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**MULREADY**, William, R. A. was born at Ennis, in Ireland, about the year 1786. When a boy, he went to London with his parents; at the age of fifteen entered as a student in the Royal Academy, and made good progress, aiming at first at the classic style, or what, according to the notions of the day, was called high art. Following the bent of his genius, however, he soon relinquished this course, and devoted himself to the study of nature and the works of those artists who attained high reputation in a less pretentious walk of art. His first pictures were landscapes of limited dimension and subject, views in Kensington gravel-pits, old houses at Lambeth, and interior of cottages. He next essayed figure-subjects of incidents in every-day life, such as "A Roadside Inn," "Horses Baiting," "The Barber's Shop," and "Punch" (painted in 1812), "Boys Fishing" (1813), "Idle Boys" (1816). M. was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy in November 1815, and an Academician in February 1816; a strong proof of the high estimation in which his talents were held by his brethren, for the higher dignity is rarely conferred till after a probation of several years as Associate. Even in his earliest time, his works were characterised by much elaboration; but those he executed about the middle period of his career exhibit an extraordinary amount of finish and greater brilliancy of coloring, qualities that he carried further and further as he advanced in years; and though he lived to a great age (he died on July 7, 1863), he continued to work with undiminished powers till within a day of his death. A great number of M.'s best works now belong to the public, as portions of the Vernon and Sheepshanks' collections. In the first-named, there are four pictures, one of these "The Last in, or Truant Boy," exhibited in 1835, being one of the most elaborate works of his middle period; while in the Sheepshanks' collection there are no fewer than 28 of his works, among which, "First Love," exhibited in 1840, is a remarkable example of refinement in drawing, and delicacy of feeling and expression. "The Soumel," exhibited in 1839, is perhaps his highest effort in point of style; and by "The Butt-Shooting a Cherry," exhibited in 1848, is best exemplified the remarkable minuteness of his finish and richness of his coloring. An edition of the "Vicar of Wakefield," published in 1840, by Van Voorst, embellished with 20 wood-cuts from M.'s drawings, is a very fine work. "Women Bathing" was exhibited in 1849; and, in 1852, "Blackheath Park." "The Toy Seller," a large picture exhibited the year before he died, was unfinished, and not at all equal to earlier and smaller ones, but remarkable as the work of a man whose artistic efforts had been lauded sixty years before.

**MULTA'N** (or *Mooltan*), an ancient and important city of India, in the Punjab, on a mound consisting of the ruins of ancient cities that occupied the same site, three miles from the left bank of the Chenab—the inundations of which sometimes reach M.—and 200 miles south-west of Lahore. It has railway communication with all the principal towns of India—Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Peshawar, &c. The

city is surrounded by a dilapidated wall, from 40 to 50 feet in height. The vicinity abounds in mosques, tombs, shrines, &c., attesting alike the antiquity and magnificence of the former cities; and the country around is remarkable for its fertility. M. is a military station, with a small redoubt in the rear of the cantonment. Its bazaars are numerous, extensive, and well stocked; and its shops, 6000 in number, are well supplied with European and Asiatic commodities. Manufactures of silk, cottons, shawls, scarfs, brocades, tissues, &c., are carried on, and there is an extensive banking trade. The merchants of M. are proverbially esteemed extremely rich. Steamers ply between this city and Hyderabad, a distance of 570 miles; and the Indus Valley Railway opens up a commercial outlet from Central Asia, the Punjab, and the North-west Provinces, to the Arabian Sea by Hyderabad and Karachi. In 1849, M. was taken by the British troops under General Whish, and annexed with its territory to the British possessions. The population of M. in 1868 was 56,826.

**MULTIPLE-POINDING** is a well-known form of action in Scotland, by which competing claims to one and the same feud are set at rest. It means double poinding or double distress, suggesting that a person who has funds in his possession is liable to be harassed by double distress; and hence he commences a suit called the action of multiple-poinding, by which he alleges that he ought not to be made to pay the sum more than once; and as he does not know who is really entitled to payment, he cites all the parties claiming it, so that they may fight out their claims among themselves. The suit corresponds to what is known in England as a bill or order of interpleader.

**MULTIPLICATION**, the third and most important of the four principal processes of arithmetic, is a compendious mode of addition, when a number is to be added to itself a given number of times. The three terms of a multiplication are the *multiplicand*, or number to be multiplied; the *multiplier*, or number by which it is to be multiplied; and the *product*, giving the amount which would be obtained if the multiplicand were added to itself the number of times denoted by the multiplier. The symbol of multiplication is  $\times$ ; and in arithmetic, the numbers are placed above each other as in addition, with a line drawn under them; in algebra, the quantities are merely placed side by side, with or without a dot between them—e. g., the multiplication of 2 by 4 may be written  $2 \times 4$ , and of  $a$  by  $b$ ,  $a \times b$ ,  $a.b$ , or  $ab$ . For multiplication of fractions, see **FRACTIONS**.

The operation of multiplication has been much abbreviated by the use of Logarithms (q. v.), and has been rendered a mere mechanical process, by the invention of Napier's Bones, the Sliding Rule, Guenter's Scale, &c.

**MULTIVALVE SHELLS**, or Multivalves, are those shelly coverings of molluscs which are formed of more than two distinct pieces. In systems of Conchology (q. v.), the term is one of primary importance; but since the study of the living animals has led to arrangements very different from those founded on their mere shells, a very subordinate place has been assigned to it, as indicating a distinction, much less important than was at first supposed. Thus, Chitons (q. v.), which have multivalve shells, are now placed in the same order of gasteropods with Liumpets (q. v.), of which the shells are univalve; and *Pholas* (q. v.) and *Teredo* (q. v.), which have two principal valves and some small accessory valves, the latter also a long shelly tube, are placed among lamellibranchiate mollusca, along with most of the bivalves of conchologists. In conchological systems, barnacles and acorn-shells were also generally included, and ranked among multivalves; but these are now no longer referred even to the same division of the animal kingdom. See **CIRRHOPODA**.

**MULTURES**, in Scotch Law, mean a quantity of grain either manufactured or in kind deliverable to the proprietor or tacksman of a mill for grinding the corn sent there. Some persons living in the neighborhood are bound to send their corn to be ground at a particular mill, in which case the lands are said to be astricted to the mill, and form the thirl or sucken, and the tenants or proprietors of the land are called insunken multurers. Those who are not bound to go to the mill are called out-sucken multurers. Thirlage is thus classed among servitudes, being a kind of burden on the lands. Such a right is unknown in England, except sometimes in old manors.

**MUM**, a peculiar kind of beer, formerly used in this country, and still used in Germany, especially in Brunswick, where it may be almost regarded as the national drink. Instead of only malt being used, it is made of malt and wheat, to which some brewers add oats and bean-meal. It is neither so wholesome nor so agreeable as the common ale or beer.

**MUMMY.** See **EMBALMING**.

**MUMMY-WHEAT** is said to be a variety of wheat produced from grains found in an Egyptian mummy. But no good evidence of this origin has been adduced—in fact, it is as good as proved to be impossible; and the same variety has long been in general cultivation in Egypt and neighboring countries. The spike is compound—a distinguishing character, by which it is readily known, but which is not altogether permanent. It is occasionally cultivated in Britain, but seems more suitable to warmer regions.

**MUMPS**, the, is a popular name of a specific inflammation of the salivary glands described by nosologists as *Cynanche Parotidea*, or *Parotitis*. In Scotland, it is frequently termed *The Branks*.

The disorder usually begins with a feeling of stiffness about the jaws, which is followed by pains, heat, and swelling beneath the ear. The swelling begins in the parotid, but the other salivary glands (q. v.) usually soon become implicated, so that the swelling extends along the neck towards the chin, thus giving the patient a deformed and somewhat grotesque appearance. One or both sides may be affected, and, in general, the disease appears first on one side and then on the other. There is seldom much fever. The inflammation is usually at its height point in three or four days, after which it begins to decline, suppuration of the glands scarcely ever occurring. In most cases no treatment further than antiphlogistic regimen, due attention to the bowels, and protection of the parts from cold, by the application of flannel or cotton-wool, is required, and the patient completely recovers in eight or ten days.

The disease often originates from epidemic or endemic influences, but there can be no doubt that it spreads by contagion; and, like most contagious diseases, it seldom affects the same person twice. It chiefly attacks children and young persons.

A singular circumstance connected with the disease is, that in many cases the subsidence of the swelling is immediately followed by swelling and pain in the testes in the male & x, and in the mammae in the female. The inflammation in these glands is seldom very painful or long continued, but occasionally the inflammation is transferred from these organs to the brain, when a comparatively trifling disorder is converted into a most perilous disease.

**MUNCHHAUSEN**, Karl Friedrich Hieronymus, Baron von, a member of an ancient and noble German family, who attained a remarkable celebrity by false and ridiculously exaggerated tales of his exploits and adventures, so that his name has become proverbial. He was born in 1720, at the family estate of Bodenwerder, in Hanover, served as a cavalry officer in the Russian campaigns against the Turks in 1737—1739, and died in 1797. A collection of his marvellous stories was first published in England under the title of "Baron Munchhausen's Narrative of his Marvellous Travels and Campaigns in Russia" (Lond. 1785). The compiler was one Rudolf Erich Raspe, an expatriated countryman of the baron's. A second edition appeared at Oxford (1786) under the title of "The Singular Travels, Campaigns, Voyages, and奇异 Adventures of Baron Munchhausen, commonly pronounced Munchhausen; as he relates them over a bottle when surrounded by his friends." Several other editions rapidly followed. In the same year (1786) appeared the first German edition, edited by the poet Bürger; the latest—entitled "Des Freiherrn von Munchhausen, wunderbare Reisen und Abenteuer" (1849 and 1855)—is enriched by an admirable introduction by Adolf Ellisen, on the origin and sources of the famous book, and on the kind of literary fiction to which it belongs. Ellisen's father knew the splendid old braggart in his latter days, and used to visit him. Nevertheless, although Raspe may have derived many of his narratives from M. himself, he appears to have drawn pretty largely from other sources. Several of the adventures ascribed to the baron are to be found in older books, particularly in Bebel's "Fiction" (Strasb. 1508); others in Castiglione's "Cortegiano," and Bildermann's "Uto-

pia," which are included in Lange's "Deliciae Academicae" (Heilbronn, 1765). M.'s stories still retain their popularity, especially with the young.

MU'NDANE EGG. In many heathen cosmogonies, the world (*Lat. mundus*) is represented as evolved from an egg. The production of a young animal from what neither resembles it in form nor in properties, seems to have been regarded as affording a good figure of the production of a well-ordered world out of chaos. Thus, in the Egyptian, Hindoo, and Japanese systems, the Creator is represented as producing an egg, from which the world was produced. The same notion is found, in variously modified forms, in the religions of many of the ruder heathen nations. Sometimes a bird is represented as depositing the egg on the primordial waters. There are other modifications of this notion or belief in the classical and other mythologies, according to which the inhabitants of the world, or some of the gods, or the powers of good and evil, are represented as produced from eggs. The egg appears also in some mythological systems as the symbol of reproduction or renovation, as well as of creation. The Mundane Egg belonged to the ancient Phœnician system, and an egg is said to have been an object of worship.

MUNGO. St., the popular name of St Kentigern, one of the three great missionaries of the Christian faith in Scotland. St Ninian (q. v.) converted the tribes of the south; St Columba (q. v.) was the apostle of the west and north; St Kentigern restored or established the religion of the Welsh or British people, who held the country between the Clyde on the north, and the furthest boundaries of Cumberland on the south (see BRETT'S AND SCOTS). He is said to have been the son of a British prince, Owen ab Urien Rheged, and of a British princess, Dwynwen or Thenaw, the daughter of Llewddyn Lueddog of Dinas Eiddyn, or Edinburgh. He was born about the year 514, it is believed at Culross, on the Forth, the site of a monastery then ruled by St Serf, of whom St Kentigern became the favorite disciple. It is said, indeed, that he was so generally beloved by the monastic brethren, that his baptismal name of Kentigern or Cyndeyrn, signifying "chief lord," was exchanged in common speech for Mungo, signifying "lovable" or "dear friend." Leaving Culross, he planted a monastery at a place then called Cathures, now known as Glasgow, and became the bishop of the kingdom of Cumbria (q. v.). The nation would seem to have been only partially converted, and the accession of a new king drove St Kentigern from the realm. He found refuge among the kindred people of Wales, and there, upon the banks of another Clyde, he founded another monastery and a bishopric, which still bears the name of his disciple, St Asaph. Recalled to Glasgow by a new king, Rydderech or Roderick the Bountiful, Kentigern renewed his missionary labors, in which he was cheered by a visit from St Columba, and dying about the year 601, was buried where the cathedral of Glasgow now stands. His life has been often written. A fragment of a memoir, composed at the desire of Herbert, Bishop of Glasgow, between 1147 and 1164, has been printed by Mr Cosmo Innes in the "Registrum Episcopatus Glasguensis." The longer life by Joceline of Furness, written about 1180, was published by Pinkerton in his "Vitæ Antiquæ Sanctorum Scotiæ." It appeals to two still older lives. The fame of St Kentigern is attested by the many churches which still bear his name, as well in Scotland as in the north of England. The church of Crosthwaite, where Southey is buried, is dedicated to him. The miracles which he was believed to have wrought were so deeply rooted in the popular mind, that some of them sprung up again in the 18th c. to grace the legends of the Cameronian martyrs. Others are still commemorated by the armorial ensigns of the city of Glasgow—a hazel-tree whose frozen branches he kindled into a flame, a tame robin which he restored to life, a hand-bell which he brought from Rome, a salmon which rescued from the depths of the Clyde the lost ring of the frail queen of Cadyw. Nor is it St M. only whose memory survives at Glasgow; the parish church of "St Enoch" commemorates his mother, St Thenaw; and it is not many years since a neighboring spring, which still bears her name, ceased to be an object of occasional pilgrimage.

MUNI, a Sanscrit title, denoting a holy sage, and applied to a great number of distinguished personages, supposed to have acquired, by dint of austerities, more or less divine faculties.

MU'NICH, (Ger. *München*), the capital of Bavaria, is situated in  $48^{\circ} 8'$  n. lat., and  $11^{\circ} 35'$  e. long., in the midst of a barren and flat elevated plain, at a height of

about 1700 feet above the level of the sea. Pop. (1871), 169,478, about 90 per cent. being Roman Catholics, 9 per cent. Protestants, and 1 per cent. Jews; (1875) 198,024. M. lies on the left bank of the Isar, and consists, in addition to the old town, of five suburbs, and of the three contiguous districts of Au, Haidhausen, and Obergiesing. By the efforts of King Ludwig I., who spent nearly 7,000,000 thalers on the improvements of the city, M. has been decorated with buildings of almost every style of architecture, and enriched with a larger and more valuable collection of art-treasures than any other city of Germany. It possesses 42 churches, of which all but two or three are Catholic, and of these, the most worthy of note are: the cathedral, which is the see for the archbishopric of Munich-Freising, built between 1468—1494, and remarkable for its two square towers, with their octagonal upper stories, capped by cupolas, and its 30 lofty and highly-decorated windows; the church of the Jesuits, or St Michael's, which contains a monument by Thorwaldsen to Eugene Beauharnais; the Theatiner Kirche, completed in 1767, and containing the burying-vaults of the royal family; the beautiful modern church of St Mariä-Hilf, with its gorgious painted glass and exquisite wood-carvings; the round church, or Basilica of St Boniface, with its dome resting on 64 monoliths of gray Tyrolean marble, and resplendent with gold, frescoes, and noble works of art; the cruciform-shaped Ludwig Kirche, embellished with Cornelius's fresco of the Last Judgment; and lastly, the Court Chapel of All Saints, a perfect casket of art-treasures. Among the other numerous public buildings, a description of which would fill a volume, we can only briefly refer to a few of the more notable; as the theatre, the largest in Germany, and capable of accommodating 2,400 spectators; the post-office; the Ruhmes-halle; the new palace, including the older royal residence, the treasury and chapel, antiquarian collections, &c.; and the Königsbau, designed by Klenze in imitation of the Pitti Palace, and built at a cost of 1,250,000 thalers, containing J. Schnorr's frescoes of the Nibelungen; the Banqueting Halls, rich in sculpture by Schwanthaler, and in grand fresco and other paintings. In the still incomplete suburb of Maximilian are situated the old Pinakothek, or picture gallery, erected in 1836 by Klenze, containing 800,000 engravings, 9,000 drawings, a collection of Etruscan remains, &c.; and immediately opposite to it, the new Pinakothek, completed in 1853 and devoted to the works of recent artists; the Glyptothek, with its twelve galleries of ancient sculpture, and its noble collection of the works of the great modern sculptors, as Canova, Thorwaldsen, Schadow, &c. Among the gates of M., the most beautiful are the Siegesthor ("The Gate of Victory") designed after Constantine's triumphal arch in the Forum, and the Isarthor with its elaborate frescoes. In addition to these and many other buildings intended either solely for the adornment of the city, or to serve as depositories for works of art, M. possesses numerous scientific, literary, and benevolent institutions, alike remarkable for the architectural and artistic beauty of their external appearance, and the liberal spirit which characterises their internal organisation. The library, which is enriched by the biblical treasures of numerous suppressed monasteries, contains about 800,000 volumes, of which 1,300 are incunabula, with nearly 22,000 MSS. The university, with which that of Landshut was incorporated in 1826, and now known as the Ludwig-Maximilian University, comprises 5 faculties, with a staff of 116 professors and teachers. In 1876 the number of matriculated students attending the university was 1208. In association with it are numerous medical and other schools, a library containing 200,000 volumes, and various museums and cabinets. M. has an ably-conducted observatory, supplied with first-rate instruments by Fraunhofer and Reichenbach; 8 gymnasia, 4 Latin, 1 normal, various military, professional, polytechnic, and parochial schools, of which the majority are Catholic; institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, and crippled, and for female orphans, besides numerous hospitals, asylums, infant schools, &c.; an academy of sciences; royal academies of painting, sculpture, music, &c.; a botanic garden, parks, public walks, and gardens, adorned with historic, patriotic, and other monuments, and designed for the celebration of annual and other national fairs and festivals; spacious cemeteries, &c. M. is mainly indebted to Ludwig I. for its celebrity as a seat of the fine arts, as the greater number of the buildings for which it is now famed were erected between 1820 and 1850, although, under his successors, Maximilian II., and Ludwig II. (ascended the throne in 1864), the progress of the embellishments of the city has been continued on an equally liberal scale. M. is somewhat behind

many lesser towns of Germany in regard to literary advancement and freedom of speculation, while its industrial activity is also inferior to its state of high artistic development. It has, however, some eminently good iron, bronze, and bell founders, and is famed for its lithographers and engravers, and its optical, mathematical, and mechanical instrument-makers, amongst whom Uitzschneider, Fraunhofer, and Ertl have acquired a world-wide renown. M. is noted for its enormous breweries of *Bavarian beer*; and has some good manufactures for cotton, wool, and damask goods, wax-cloth, leather, paper-hangings, carriages, pianos, gold, silver, and steel wares, &c.

The present name of this city cannot be traced further than the 12th c., when Henry the Lion raised the *Villa München* from its previous obscurity, by establishing a mint within its precincts, and making it the chief emporium for the salt which was obtained from Halle and the neighboring districts. In the 13th c., the dukes of the Wittelsbach dynasty selected M. for their residence, built the Ludwigsburg, some parts of whose original structure still exist, and surrounded the town with walls and other fortified defences. In 1327, the old town was nearly destroyed by fire, and rebuilt by the Emperor Ludwig of Bavaria very much on the plan which it still exhibits; but it was not till the close of last century, when the fortifications were razed to the ground, that the limits of the town were enlarged to any extent. The last fifty years indeed comprise the true history of M., since within that period all its finest buildings have been erected, its character as a focus of artistic activity has been developed, its population has been more than doubled, and its material prosperity augmented in a proportionate degree.

MUNICIPAL ARCHITECTURE, the style of the buildings used for municipal purposes, such as town-halls, guild-halls, &c. These were first used when the towns of the middle ages rose in importance, and asserted their freedom. Those of North Italy and Belgium were the first to move, and consequently we find in these countries the earliest and most important specimens of municipal architecture during the middle ages. It is only in the "free cities" of that epoch that town-halls are found. We therefore look for them vainly in France or England till the development of industry and knowledge had made the citizens of the large towns so wealthy and important as to enable them to raise the municipal power into an institution. When this became the case in the 15th and 16th centuries, we find in these countries abundant instances of buildings erected for the use of the guilds and corporations and the municipal courts. Many of these still exist alone; with the corporate bodies they belong to, especially in London, where the halls are frequently of great magnificence. Many of these corporation halls have recently been rebuilt by the wealthy bodies they belong to, such as the Fishmongers, Merchant Taylors, Goldsmiths, and other companies. Municipal buildings on a large scale for the use of the town councils and magistrates have also been recently erected in many of our large towns, which had quite outgrown their original modest buildings; and now no town of importance is complete without a great town-hall for the use of the inhabitants.

Municipal buildings always partake of the character of the architecture of the period when they are erected; thus, we find in Italy that they are of the Italiano-Gothic style in Como, Padua, Vicenza, Venice, Florence, &c., during the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries. In Belgium, during the same period, they are of the northern Gothic style, and are almost the only really fine specimens of the civil architecture of the middle ages we possess. The Cloth-hall at Ypres, and the town-halls of Bruges, Louvain, Bruges, Oudeinde, &c., the Exchange at Antwerp, and many other markets, lodges, halls, &c., testify to the early importance of the municipal institutions in Belgium.

It is a curious fact, that in France, where the towns became of considerable importance during the middle ages, so few municipal buildings remain. This arises from the circumstance, that the resources of the early municipalities of France were devoted to aid the bishops in the erection of the great French cathedrals, and the townspeople used these cathedrals as their halls of assembly, and even for such purposes as masques and amusements.

Of the English corporation halls, those which remain are nearly all subsequent to the 14th c., from which time to the present there are very many examples. The Guild-hall of London is one of the earliest. The present building was begun in 1411,

and was built chiefly by contributions from the trades "companies" of London. Of the town-halls recently erected, those of Manchester, Liverpool, and Leeds are amongst the most important.

**MUNICIPALITY**, Municipal Corporation (from Lat. *municeps*, from *munus* and *capiō*, one who enjoys the rights of a free citizen), a town or city possessed of certain privileges of local self-government; the governing body in such a town. Municipal institutions originated in the times of the Roman empire. The provincial towns of Italy, which were from the first Roman colonies, as also those which, after having an independent existence, became members of the Roman state, though subjected to the rule of an imperial governor, were allowed to enjoy a right of regulating their internal affairs. A class of the inhabitants called the *curia*, or *decuriones*, elected two officers, called *duumviri*, whose functions were supposed to be analogous to those of the consuls of the imperial city, and who exercised a limited jurisdiction, civil and criminal. There was an important functionary in every municipality called the *defensor civitatis*, or advocate for the city, the protector of the citizens against arbitrary acts on the part of the imperial governor. In the later ages of the empire, the Decurions were subject to heavy burdens, not compensated by the honor of the position, which led many to endeavor to shun the office. The municipal system declined with the decline of the empire, yet it retained vitality enough to be afterwards resuscitated in union with feudalism, and with the Saxon institutions of Britain. Some cities of Italy, France, and Germany have indeed derived their present magistracy by direct succession from the days of imperial Rome, as is notably the case with Cologne. The bishop being a shield between the conquerors and the conquered, in many cases discharged the duties or obtained the functions of the *defensor civitatis*. To the north of the Alps, under the feudal system, he became officially the civil governor of the city, as the count was of the rural district. In Southern Europe, where feudalism was less vigorous, the municipalities retained a large share of freedom and self-government.

Of the cities of the middle ages, some were entirely free; they had, like the provincial towns of Italy before the extension of the Roman conquests, a constitution independent of any other powers. Venice, Genoa, Florence, Hamburg, and Lübeck, all stood in this position. Next in dignity were the free imperial cities in Germany, which, not being comprehended in the dominions of any of the princes, were in immediate dependence on the empire. Most of these cities rose into importance in the 18th c.; and their liberties and privileges were fostered by the Franconian emperors, to afford some counterpoise to the growing power of the immediate nobility. Nürnberg was especially celebrated for its stout resistance to the House of Brandenburg, and the successful war which it waged with the Franconian nobility. In England, the more important cities were immediate vassals of the crown; the smaller municipalities sometimes owned a subject superior, sometimes a greater municipality for their overlord.

Under the Anglo-Saxons, the English burghs were subject to the rule of an elective officer, called the "Portreeve," who exercised in burgh functions similar to those of the shire-reve in the shire. The Norman conquerors recognized the already existing privileges of the towns by granting them charters. Instead of a shire-reve, a viscount was placed by the king over each shire, and a bailiff instead of the former elective officer over each burgh. In the larger towns, the bailiff was allowed to assume the Norman appellation of Mayor. The municipal franchise seems to have been vested in all the resident and trading inhabitants, who shared in the payment of the local taxes, and performance of local duties. Titles to freedom were also recognised on the grounds of birth, apprenticeship, marriage, and sometimes free gift.

In all the larger towns, the trading population came to be divided into guilds or trading companies, through membership of which companies admission was obtained to the franchise. Eventually the whole community was enrolled in one or other of the guilds, each of which had its property, its by-laws, and its common hall, and the community elected the chief officers. It was on the wealthier and more influential inhabitants that municipal offices were generally conferred; and the practice gradually gained ground of these functionaries perpetuating their authority without appealing to the popular suffrage. Contentions and disputes arose regarding the right of election, and eventually the crown threw the weight of its influence into the

scale of self-elective ruling bodies. As the greater municipalities grew in strength, we find their right recognised to appear in parliament by means of representatives. The sheriffs were considered to have a discretionary power to determine which towns should, and which should not have this privilege of representation. The sovereigns of the House of Tudor and Stuart acquired the habit of extending the right of parliamentary representation to burghs not in the enjoyment of it, while at the same time, by granting or renewing to them municipal charters, they modelled the constitution of these burghs to a self-elective type, and restricted the right of voting in the choice of a representative to the governing body. During the reign of William III., Anne, and the earlier Georges, the influence of the crown was largely employed in calling new municipal corporations into existence, with the view of creating additional parliamentary support for the ministry in power. The burghs of Scotland had a history much like that of the burghs of England; their earlier charters were mere recognitions of already existing rights, and were granted to the inhabitants at large. In the course of the 14th and 15th centuries, the municipal suffrage fell gradually more and more into the hands of restricted bodies of men, until act 1469, c. 5, gave to the councils the right of appointing their successors, the old and new council together electing the officer-bearers of the corporation. This state of things continued till 1833, not without much complaint. In the Scottish burghs, the several trades possessed a much more exclusive monopoly than in England. Along with the outcry for parliamentary reform arose an outcry for municipal reform; and a separate municipal reform act putting an end to the close system was passed for each part of the empire. The English act (5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 76), entitled "An act to provide for the regulation of Municipal Corporations in England," conferred the franchise on the owners and occupiers of property within burgh, with certain qualifications as to property, residence, &c. This constituency elected the councillors, and from the body of the councillors, the mayor and aldermen were chosen. Act 89 and 88 Vict. c. 55, limited the requisite period of residence to one year's occupation, and the ballot was introduced by 85 and 83 Vict. c. 33, in municipal as in parliamentary elections. Act 8 and 4 Will. IV. made an entire change in the mode of electing-councils in Scottish burghs which already had a council, and conferred councils on burghs which had none. A vote was given to every one who had resided six months in the burgh, or within seven miles of it, and possessed the requisite qualification to exercise the parliamentary franchise; a property qualification similar to what conferred the parliamentary franchise being required in burghs that did not send or contribute to send a member to parliament. The Municipal Elections Amendment Act (Scotland) 1868, has placed the municipal franchise in the hands of all registered voters to return a member of parliament, and in the case of burghs not represented in parliament, in the hands of all persons possessing similar property qualifications; and act 88 and 84 Vict. c. 92 has provided for the establishment of a municipal register in burghs not represented in parliament. An exemption, under 8 and 4 Will. IV. c. 76, of nine small burghs from the operation of the new system has been done away with. Town-councillors must be electors residing in or carrying on business in the burgh. They remain in office three years, and elect from their own number the provost and bailies. The English act of Will. IV. abolished the exclusive privileges of the guilds, but these monopolies continued in Scotland till 1839, when they were swept away by 9 and 10 Vict. c. 17. The Irish municipal system, which had been imported ready-made from England, was assimilated to the altered English system by 8 and 4 Vict. c. 108.

MUNIMENT-HOUSE, a strong fire-proof apartment or building suited to contain archives, papers, and other valuables.

MU'NJEET (*Rubia cordifolia* or *munifista*), a species of Madder (q. v.), of which the root yields an excellent red dye. The plant differs from the common madder in its more distinctly quadrangular stem, its cordate-oblong leaves commonly in fours, and its red berries. It is a native of India, China, Japan, Central Asia, and Siberia. The root has long been used in India as affording a red dye; and is now an article of export to Europe, as a substitute for madder.

MUNKA'CS, a market-town of Hungary, situated on an affluent of the Theiss, 178 miles north-east of Pesth. The inhabitants are mostly artisans, and the chief production is hosiery. There are also alum manufactories, saltpetre-works, and in

the vicinity, iron-works, and mines of rock-crystal, called Hungarian diamonds. A short distance east from the town is the fortress (founded in 1859) of M., built upon an isolated height, which, although small and insignificant-looking, yet, from its strong walls and advantageous position, has, for the last few centuries, withstood many a siege. Since the beginning of the present century, it has been used as a state-prison. Pop. (1860) 8602.

MUNSTER, the largest of the four provinces of Ireland, occupies the south-west, and is bounded on the n. by Connnaught, on the e. by Leinster, and on the w. and s. by the Atlantic. It contains the six counties of Clare, Cork, Kerry, Limerick, Tipperary, and Waterford, and the country is described under these heads. Area, 6,064-570 statute acres. The population of the province, which in 1841 was higher than that of any of the other provinces, was shewn to be, in 1871, 1,398,486, or 489,748 less than that of Ulster, now the most populous of the provinces.

MÜNSTER, chief town of the district of the same name, as well as capital of all Westphalia, is situated in  $51^{\circ} 55'$  lat., and  $7^{\circ} 40'$  e. long., at the confluence of the Aa with the Münster Canal, 65 miles north-east of Düsseldorf. The population in 1871 was 24,815; in 1875, 38,585. M., which is a bishopric, and the seat of a military council, a high court of appeal, and other governmental tribunals, is one of the handsomest towns of Westphalia, retaining numerous remains of medieval architecture, whose quaint picture-queueness is enhanced by the numerous trees and shady alleys, by which the squares and streets are ornamented. Among its 14 churches, of which the majority are Catholic, the most noteworthy are the cathedral, built between the 18th and 15th centuries, and despoiled of all its internal decorations by the Anabaptists; Our Lady's Church, with its noble tower; the splendid Gothic church of St Lambert, in the market-place, finished in the 13th c., on the tower of which may still be seen the three iron cages in which the bodies of the Anabaptist leaders, John of Leyden, Knippercolling, and Kretching, were suspended, after they had suffered the most horrible martyrdom; and the church dedicated to St Ludgerus, the first bishop of M., with its singular round tower, surmounted by an octagonal lantern. The Gothic town-hall possesses historical interest in being the spot at which, in 1848, the Peace of Westphalia was signed in a large hall, which has lately been restored, and which contains portraits of all the ambassadors who were parties to the treaty. The palace, built in 1767, is surrounded by fine pleasure-grounds, including horticultural and botanical gardens, connected with the academy; and these, with the ramparts, which, since the Seven Years' War, have been converted into public walks, form a great attraction to the city. M. is well provided with institutions of charity and benevolence. The old Catholic university of M. was dismembered in 1818, and its funds apportioned to other educational establishments; and the present academy, which comprises a Catholic theological and philosophical faculty, is now the principal school. It has a library of 50,000 volumes, a natural history museum, and various collections of art and antiquity connected with it. M. has one gymnasium, a normal school for female teachers, and a number of town schools. The industrial products of M. include leather, woollen fabrics, thread, starch, and sugar, besides which there are good carriage manfactories, breweries, and distilleries. The trade is limited to the produce of the country, the principal of which are the noted Westphalian ham and sausages.

M. was known under the name of Mimigardevorte in the time of Charlemagne, who, in 791, appointed it as the see of the new bishop of the Saxons. St Ludgerus. Towards the middle of the 11th c., a monastery was founded on the spot, which in course of time derived its present name from its vicinity to the minster, or monastery. In the 12th c., the bishopric was elevated into a principality of the empire. In the 13th c., the city was incorporated in the Hanseatic League; and in 1532, it declared its adhesion to the Reformed faith, notwithstanding the violent opposition of the chapter. During the years 1536 and 1586, M. was the scene of the violent politico-religious movement of the Anabaptists, when the excesses of these pretended reformers worked a violent reaction in the minds of the people, which had the effect of restoring the prestige of the episcopal power; and although the citizens occasionally made good their attempted acts of opposition to their spiritual rulers, they were finally reduced to submission under Bishop Christopher Bernhard of St Gal, who having, in 1662, built a strong citadel within the city, transferred the epis-

copal place of residence thither from Koesfeld, where it had been established by earlier bishops. In the Seven Years' War, M. was repeatedly besieged and taken by both the belligerent parties. The bishopric of M., which since 1719 had been merged in the archbishopric of Cologne, although it retained a special form of government, was secularised in 1803, and divided among various royal houses; but subsequently shared in the common fate of other German provinces, and was for a time incorporated with France. The Congress of Vienna gave the greater part of the principality to Prussia, a small portion being apportioned to the House of Oldenburg, while Hanover acquired possession of the Münster territories of the mediatised Dukes of Arenberg.

MU'NTJAK (*Cervus muntjac*, *Cervulus vaginalis*, or *Stylocerus muntjac*), a species of deer, abundant in Java, Sumatra, and other islands of the same region. It is about one-fifth larger than the roebuck, which it considerably resembles in form. The horns are remarkable, as there springs from the common base of each an additional horn, which is about an inch and a half in length; the principal horn, which is simple, curved, and pointed, being about five inches in length. The female has no horns. The male has large canine teeth or tusks, which also are wanting in the female.—Allied species are found in India and China.

MÜNZER, Thomas, one of the leaders of the Anabaptists (q. v.), was born at Stolberg, in the Harz, took his degree at Wittenberg as Master of Arts, and for some time preached the doctrines of the Reformation in Zwickau and other places. Ere long, however, he adopted mystic views, and declaimed against what he called the "servile, literal, and half" measures of the reformers, requiring a radical reformation both in church and state according to his "inward light." He proclaimed an entire community of goods, and incited the populace to plunder the houses of the wealthy. Mühlhausen fell for a time under his sway, and that of another fanatic named Pfeifer, who joined him. He took an active part in the Peasant War, and inflamed the spirits of the insurgents by the wildest speeches and songs; but they were utterly defeated on 15th May 1525, after a severe conflict, at Frankenhausen, by the Elector John and Duke George of Saxony, the Landgrave of Hesse, and the Duke of Brunswick. M. fled, but was taken and carried to Mühlhausen, where he was beheaded along with Pfeifer and a number of others. He shewed no dignity or courage in the closing scenes of his life. See Strobel's "Leben Schriften und Lehren Thom. Müntzer's" (Nürnberg, 1795); Sellemann's "Thom. Munzer" (Dresden and Leips., 1842); and Heinrich Leo in the "Evangelische Kirchenzeitung" (Berlin, 1856).

MURÆNA, a genus of malacopterons fishes, of those to which the name Eel is commonly given, the whole of the eels being sometimes included in the family *Muraenidae*. See EEL. The true *Muraena* have no fins, except the dorsal and anal, which are low and fleshy. They have one row of sharp teeth in each jaw. The head is very large, and the jaws are moved with great power. The M. of the Romans, or MURRY (*M. helena*), abounds in the Mediterranean, and is sometimes of large size, four feet or more in length, golden yellow in front, and purple towards the tail, beautifully banded and mottled. It is much thicker in proportion to its length than any of the fresh-water eels. Its flesh is white and highly esteemed. It prefers salt-water, but can accommodate itself to fresh-water pond. The ancient Romans kept and fed it in vivaria. The story of Vedius Pollio feeding his murenas with offending slaves is well known. This M. has been caught on the British shores, but very rarely.

Allied to the genus M. is the genus *Sidera*, found in the Pacific.

MURAL CROWN, in Heraldry, a crown in the form of the top of a circular tower, masoned and embattled. It is meant to represent the crown which was given by the Romans as a mark of distinction to the soldier who first mounted the walls of a besieged town, and fixed there the standard of the army. A mural crown supporting the crest, in place of a wreath, occurs in the achievements of several of the English nobility, and in various grants of arms made in the early part of the present century to officers who had distinguished themselves in the war. Viscount Beresford, in consequence of his gallantry at the battle of Albuera, obtained as crest, issuing out of a mural crown, a dragon's head with its neck pierced through

by a broken spear, the head of the spear point downwards being held in the mouth of the dragon.

MURAT, Joachim, king of Naples, was the son of an innkeeper at La Bastide-Fortunière, near Cahors, in France, and was born there 25th March 1767 or 1768. He was at first intended for the priesthood, and actually commenced the study of theology and canon law at Toulouse, but entered the army, and being threatened with punishment for insubordination, deserted, and after spending some time at home, proceeded to Paris, where, it is said, he was for some time a waiter at a café, but soon obtained admission into the Constitutional Guard of Louis XVI. On the outbreak of the Revolution, he was made a sub-lieutenant in a cavalry regiment. His gallantry and extreme republicanism soon won him the rank of colonel. He attached himself closely to Bonaparte, under whom he served in Italy and in Egypt, signalising himself in many battles; rose to the rank of a general of division (1799); returned with Bonaparte to France; and rendered him most important assistance on the 18th Brumaire, by dispersing the Council of Five Hundred at St Cloud. Bonaparte now intrusted him with the command of the Consular Guard, and gave him his youngest sister, Caroline, in marriage. M. commanded the cavalry at Marengo, where he greatly distinguished himself. On the establishment of the French Empire, he was loaded with honors. He continued to command the cavalry in the armies led by the Emperor, and contributed not a little to the victory at Austerlitz, and to many other victories. In 1806, the newly-erected grand duchy of Berg (q. v.) was bestowed upon him. On 1st August 1808, he was proclaimed king of the two Sicilies by the style of Joachim I. Napoleon. He took possession of Naples, but the Bourbons, through the support of Britain, retained Sicily.

M. possessed the qualities requisite for a general of cavalry rather than those of a king. He was very deficient in political skill and energy; but by the moderation of his government, he won the hearts of his subjects. Even his love of pomp and show, and the theatrical splendor of his equipment, which were a subject of mirth in France and Germany, rather gratified the Neapolitans. He endured with difficulty the yoke of Napoleon, which left him little but the outward show of royalty. In the expedition against Russia, he commanded the whole cavalry, but on its failure, he returned to Naples, anxious and discontented. He joined the French army again in 1813, but after the battle of Leipzig, withdrew to his own dominions, determined on breaking the French fetters with which he was bound. He concluded a treaty with Austria, and a truce with the British admiral, and promised the allies an auxiliary corps. He hesitated, however, even after his new course seemed to have been decisively adopted; and finding his position insecure after Napoleon's overthrow, he entered into private communications with him at Elba. On the Emperor's return to France, M. placed himself at the head of an army of 40,000 men, and commenced a hasty war against Austria. He was defeated at Ferrara, 12th April, 1815, and again at Tolentino, 2nd May. With a few horsemen he fled to Naples, where all was insurrection and commotion; thence to the island of Ischia, and found his way to France, whilst his wife and children took refuge in the British fleet. After Napoleon's final overthrow, he found refuge in Corsica, from which he proceeded in a foolhardy manner with a few followers to the coast of Naples, and proclaimed himself king and liberator, but was presently taken prisoner, and after trial by a court-martial, was shot in a hall of the castle of Pizzo, on 18th October 1815. See Léonard Gallais, "Histoire de Joachim Murat" (Paris, 1828), and Coletta, "Histoire des Six derniers mois de la Vie de Joachim Murat" (Paris, 1821). His widow assumed the title of Countess of Lipona, and resided in the neighborhood of Trieste, where she died in 1839. His two sons went to the United States, where the elder, NAPOLÉON ACHILLE MURAT, settled in Florida, and published a number of works on the constitution and politics of his adopted country. He died 15th April, 1847. The younger, NAPOLÉON LUCIEN CHARLES, married an American lady in 1827, but suffered several reverses in fortune, and Madame Murat was obliged to open a boarding-school for the support of herself and her husband. Twice he attempted to return to France secretly (in 1837 and 1844), but failed on both occasions. The Revolution of 1848, however, opened the country to him. He attached himself closely to Prince Louis Napoleon; and was in 1849 French Ambassador Extraordinary at Turin. In 1852 he was made a senator; and in 1853 he received the title of prince. The Italian revolution appeared to present

some chances for him, but nothing came of these. He was made prisoner by the Germans at Metz in 1870.

MURATORI, Ludovico Antonio, a celebrated antiquary and historian, was born at Viguoia, in the duchy of Modena, October 21, 1672. From a very early period, his predilection for historical and literary pursuits began to manifest itself; and, having entered into holy orders, without, however, accepting any ecclesiastical office, his life was devoted partly to the literature of his profession, but mainly to researches in history, both sacred and profane, especially the history of his native country. In his 22d year, he was appointed one of the librarians of the Ambrosian Library at Milan, a post which has since received equal celebrity from a successor not unworthy of the fame of M., the illustrious Angelo Mai (q. v.). Here he gave to the world his first publication, a collection of Sinedited Greek and Latin fragments, under the titles of "Anecdota Graeca" and "Anecdota Latina." But his most important labors were reserved for the capital of his native duchy, whither, in 1700, he was called by the Duke of Modena, to take charge of the celebrated D'Este Library, and of the ducal archives; his only ecclesiastical preferment being that of provost of the church of St Mary, at Pomposa. From the date of his return to Modena, M. began to devote himself more exclusively to Italian history, especially to the history of medieval Italy; and his labors in this department extended over the greater part of his life. It was not until the year 1728 that the first volume of his great collection, "Rerum Italcarum Scriptores," appeared, and the work proceeded at regular intervals for nearly thirty years, the last of the twenty-eight folio volumes which compose it bearing the date of 1761. This immense publication, which was produced by the joint contributions of the princes and higher nobility of Italy, embraces a range from the 5th to the 16th c., and contains all the chronicles of Italy during that vast period, illustrated with commentaries and critical notices. It was accompanied by a collection of dissertations illustrative of the religious, literary, social, political, military, and commercial relations of the several states of Italy during the period, in 6 vols. folio, 1738-1742, a work which, although far from being exempt from errors, is still regarded as a treasure-house of medieval antiquities. While engaged in these prodigious labors, M. carried on an active literary correspondence with the scholars of the various countries of Europe, and contributed essays not unfrequently to the principal historical and literary academies, of most of which he was a member. He was the first, moreover, to undertake a general History of Italy from the commencement of the vulgar era down to his own time. It is in 12 vols. 4to, and still retains its value as a book of reference, having been continued by Coppi down to the year 1819. In his capacity of archivist of the Duke of Modena, he compiled, in two vols. folio, the "Antiquities of the d'Este Family" (1710-1740), as well as a series of historical and polemical treatises on certain territorial questions in dispute between the House of Modena and the court of Rome. To the department of classical scholarship, M.'s collection of "Inscriptions" (6 vols. folio, 1789-1748), which, in this point of view, was a necessary supplement to the collection of Gruter and the other antiquaries who had preceded him, is still acknowledged as a most important contribution; and he has also left works of standard merit in the departments of jurisprudence, of literary criticism, of poetry, of biography, and even of the history of medical science. In the studies of his own profession, as well liturgical and historical, as dogmatical and even ascetical, M., although he did not follow the method of the schools, was hardly less distinguished than if he had made these the pursuit of his life. Some of his opinions were regarded with disfavor, if not directly condemned; but his vindication of himself, addressed to the learned Pope Benedict XIV., drew forth a warm and honorable testimony to the uprightness of his motives, which, without approving of the opinions to which exception had been taken, declared them free from the imputation of being contrary either to the doctrine or to the discipline of the church. Although M.'s life was essentially that of a scholar, yet his exactness in discharging the duties of a parish priest was beyond all praise, and several of the existing charitable institutions of Pomposa were founded by him. He died at Modena, January 28, 1750, in his 78th year. His works, which it would be tedious to enumerate in full detail, fill 46 volumes in folio, 84 in 4to, 18 in 8vo, and many more in 12mo. Some of these are posthumous, and were published by

His nephew, G. F. Muratori, from whom we also have a life of his distinguished uncle, in 4to, printed at Omer, 1788.

MURCHISON, Sir Roderick Impey, geologist and geographer, was born at Taradale, Ross-shire, in 1792. He was educated at the Grammar-school, Durham, and having a bias for military life, next studied at the Military College, Marlow. He entered the army at an early age, and served as an officer in the 36th Regiment in Spain and Portugal. He was placed on the staff of his uncle, General Sir Alexander Mackenzie, and then obtained a captaincy in the 6th Dragoons. Quitting the army in 1816, he devoted himself to science—more especially to geology. He afterwards travelled in various parts of the globe. He found the same sedimentary strata lying in the earth's crust beneath the old red sandstone in the mountainous regions of Norway and Sweden, in the vast and distant provinces of the Russian empire, and also in America. The result of his investigations was the discovery and establishment of the Silurian system, which won for him the Copley Medal of the Royal Society, and European reputation as a geologist. His subsequent exposition of the Devonian, Peruvian, and Laurentian systems increased and confirmed his reputation. He explored several parts of Germany, Poland, and the Carpathians; and in 1840 he commenced a geological survey of the Russian empire, under the countenance of the imperial government. M. de Verneuil was associated with him in this great work, completed in 1845. Struck with the resemblance in geological structure between the Ural Mountains and the Australian chain, M., in his anniversary address in 1844, first predicted the discovery of gold in Australia. In 1846, six years before that metal was practically worked, he addressed a letter to the President of the Royal Geological Society of Cornwall, inciting the unemployed Cornish tin-miners to emigrate and dig for gold in Australia. He was elected President of the British Association for the Advancement of Science in 1846; President of the Royal Geographical Society in 1844 and 1845; was re-elected in 1857, and continued to hold that post till 1870, when he was compelled to resign it by paralysis. His anniversary addresses to the geographers were of great interest and value. Perhaps no man of the present century has done more to promote geographical science at home, and kindle spirit of adventure among those engrossed in Arctic exploration on the one hand, and African discovery on the other. In 1855, he succeeded Sir H. De la Beche in the office of Director of the Museum of Practical Geology. He was a D.C.L. of Oxford, LL.D. of Cambridge, and a Vice-president of the Royal Society. He was knighted in 1846, made K.C.B. in 1853, and a baronet in 1863. From the Emperor of Russia he received the Grand Cross of St Anne, and also that of St Stanislaus. He died 22d October 1871. The greater portion of his contributions to science were published in the "Transactions" of the Geological and other Societies. His principal works were "The Silurian" (1836); "The Geology of Russia in Europe and the Ural Mountains," in 1845 (2d ed. 1853). He also published volumes on the "Tertiary Deposits of Lower Styria," &c. (1830), the "Geology of Cheltenham" (1834), &c.—See "Life of Sir Roderick M." by Arch. Geikie, LL.D. (1875), and obituary notice by Sir Henry Rawlinson in "Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society," vol. xvi. No. 4.

MURCHISONIA, a genus of fossil gasteropodous mollusca belonging to the family *Haliotidae*, and so named in honor of Sir R. I. Murchison. The genus consists of at least 60 species, all which are characteristic of the Palaeozoic rocks, occurring in the series from the Lower Silurian up to the Permian. The shell differs from the large genus *Pleurotomaria* only in being very much elongated. Like it, the whorls are sculptured and zoned, the aperture is channeled in front, and the outer lip is deeply notched.

MURCIA, a former province of Spain, now subdivided into the smaller provinces of Albacete and Murcia, is situated in the south-east of the peninsula. It is bounded on the n. by New Castile, on the e. by Valencia, on the s. by the Mediterranean, and on the w. by Granada, Andalusia, and New Castile. Area, 10,311 sq. m. Pop. (1870) 660,040 (of modern province, 439,067). In the n.-e., the province is partly level; but in the s.-w., it is composed of great valleys, high plateaus, and mountain ranges. The coast comprises stretches of desert. The principal river is the Segura, which flows through the middle of the province from w. to e. On the whole, M. is not very productive, and never will be, on account of the failure of water, partly caused by the

destruction of the forests. The only fertile districts are the valleys of the Segura, and the side-valleys of Lorca, Albacete, Chinchilla, and Almansa. The E-para wastes have remained uncultivated since the banishment of the Moors in 1610; and the canal of M., which is intended to irrigate the arid Campo de Cartagena, is not yet finished. M. is one of the most thinly peopled districts of Spain. The north yields wheat and barley; the south, maize, fruits, wine, oil, silk, and hemp. Goats, sheep, and swine are reared in great numbers. In metals, salt, and mineral springs, M. is abundant; it has also many smelting-works for iron, lead, and copper ores, brimstone and alum. The roads, however, are in the most wretched condition, and industry in general is still in backward state. The province was frightfully devastated by a great earthquake, 18–21 March 1829. M. was conquered by the Arabs in 711; after the fall of the califate of Cordova, it became an independent Arab kingdom, but, six years afterwards, was subjugated by King Ferdinand III of Castile in 1241.

MURCIA (the Roman *Murcia*), a large, important, and ancient town of Spain, capital of the province of the same name, on the left bank of the Segura, and near the junction of that river with the Sangonera, 50 miles south-west of Alicante. It stands in the midst of a beautiful and luxuriantly productive *huerta* or garden, 16 miles in length, and from 7 to 8 miles wide. This *huerta* forms a portion of what is called the vale of M.; is well watered, has a bright green appearance even in winter; produces wheat, flax, pulse, and vegetables, and grows innumerable mulberry, orange, fig, and palm trees. The streets of M. are narrow but clean, and the houses are gaudily painted in pink and yellow. Its squares are filled with cypresses, orange, lemon, and other southern trees. It is the see of a bishop suffragan to Toledo; the cathedral is surmounted by a tower begun in 1522, completed 1766, and crowned by a dome from which a magnificent view is obtained. The city contains few objects of fine art, a circumstance which is accounted for by the fact that, on the occasion of its siege by Sebastiani, that general, after promising that persons and property should be respected, entered the town 23d April 1810, and rifled it of its wealth and art-treasures. Silks, linens, baskets, mats, and cordage are manufactured, and oil-mills, tanneries, and other works are in operation. Pop. 80,000.

MURDER is the crime of killing a human being of malice aforethought, and is punishable with death. It is immaterial what means are employed to effect the object. Blackstone says that the name of murder, as a crime, was anciently applied only to the secret killing of another, which the word *moerda* signifies in the Teutonic language. And among the ancient Goths in Sweden and Denmark, the whole vill or neighborhood was punished for the crime, if the murderer was not discovered. Murder is defined by Coke thus: "When a person of sound memory and discretion unlawfully killeth any reasonable creature in being, and under the king's peace, with malice aforethought, either express or implied." Almost every word in this definition has been the subject of discussion in the numerous cases that have occurred in the law-courts. The murderer must be of sound memory or discretion; i. e., he must be at least 14 years of age, and not a lunatic or idiot. The act must be done unlawfully, i. e., it must not be in self-defence, or from other justifiable cause. The person killed must be a reasonable creature, and hence killing a child in the womb is not murder, but is punishable in another way (see INFANTICIDE). The essential thing in murder is that it be done maliciously and deliberately; and hence, in cases of hot blood and scuffling, the offence is generally manslaughter only. Killing by duelling is thus murder, for it is deliberate. It is not necessary, in order to constitute murder, that the murderer kill the man he intended, provided he had a deliberate design to murder some one. Thus, if one shoots at A, and misses him, but kills B, this is murder, because of the previous felonious intent, which the law transfers from one to the other. So if one lays poison for A, and B, against whom the poisoner had no felonious intent, takes it, and is killed, this is murder. Formerly, in England, the Benefit of Clergy (q. v.) was allowed in cases of murder, till it was abolished by 7 and 8 Geo. IV. c. 28. The only sentence on murderers is now death, which is carried out by hanging. Formerly, the murderer was directed after death to be hung on a gibbet in chains near the place of the crime. Formerly, also, dissection was added as part of the sentence, and the execution was to take place on the day next but one after sentence. But now an interval of a fortnight usually

takes place, and the body is buried in the precincts of the prison. Attempts to murder were until recently punishable in England like capital felony; but now attempts to murder are punishable only with penal servitude for life, or for not less than three years.

MUREX, a Linnean genus of gasteropodous molluscs, of which has now been formed the family *Muricidae*, belonging to the order *Pectinibranchiate* of Cuvier. The sexes are distinct; the animal has a broad foot, often much expanded; the eyes are not on stalks; the shell has a straight canal in front, often prolonged through part of a very long beak; no canal behind. The *Muricidae* all prey on other molluscs, boring through the shells with their hard-toothed proboscis. The name ROCK-SHELL is often given to many species of *M.*; and some, from the length of the beak, are called WOODCOCK-SHELL. Some have the shell beset with long and regularly arranged spines. The whorls of the shell are marked with ridges, or varices. Some species of *M.* are found on the British coasts. Species are found in all parts of the world; the largest are tropical. The ancients obtained their purple dye (see TYRIAN PURPLE) from species of *M.*, particularly *M. trunculus* and *M. brandaris*. The VENUS COMB of the Indian seas is *M. tribulus*, a very delicate and beautiful shell, with many long thin spines. Fossil *Muricidae* are numerous, but are scarcely found in any formation older than the eocene tertiary.

MUREXIDE, Purprure of Ammonia, or Roman Purple, a curious coloring matter obtained from guano. It is similar to the purple dye or Tyrian purple of the ancients, which was made from a species of *Murex*—hence its name. Murexide is a product of uric acid, and as this exists in abundance, and in a very free state, in guano, that material has been found one of the best sources from which to obtain it. One process used by Mr Rumney of Manchester, the chief manufacturer of this material, to produce murexide, is to dissolve uric acid in dilute nitric acid, and after evaporating for some time at a temperature a little short of boiling, whilst still hot, to add a slight excess of ammonia. Two compounds are formed by this process, Alloxan and Alloxanthin, and their mutual reaction on each other results in the formation of the beautiful minute green metallic-lustrous crystals of murexide, which, in combination with some of the compounds of lead and mercury, yield most brilliant red and purple dyes. The use of murexide was becoming extensive until the discovery of the aniline colors, the greater brilliancy of which has checked its employment. Murexide is used in printing both cotton and silk goods, which, under the name of the “Roman-purple style,” has been brought to great perfection by several large firms.

MURGAB, a river of Central Asia, which rises on the northern border of Afghanistan, in the Hindu Kush, immediately to the north of the sources of the Heri (q. v.). The *M.* flows westward, then north-westward, and finally northward, passing from amongst the mountains in which it has its source into the desert plains of Turkestan, where the volume of its water gradually diminishes, until it finally loses itself in a swamp in the sandy plain of Merv, after a course of about 400 miles. In the upper part of its course it receives many tributaries, but none in the lower. The most noteworthy place on its banks is Merv, or Mern (anc. Antiochëia Margiana), a town of Independent Turkestan, about 800 miles south-east from Khiva. Merv was an important town in the days of the Seljuk dynasty, of which it was the capital, but is now very ruinous.

#### MURATIC ACID. See HYDROCHLORIC ACID.

MURIDÆ, a family of rodent quadrupeds, containing many genera and a very large number of species, distributed over all parts of the world, and of which rats and mice may be regarded as typical examples. To this family belong also voles, lemmings, dormice, jerboas, marmots, &c. The *M.* are of the section of rodents having distinct clavicles. They have three or four molars on each side in each jaw, the molars at first furnished with rounded tubercles, which wear down till they exhibit mere roughened crowns. The typical *M.*, and those most nearly allied to them, have scaly tails. Marmots, dormice, jerboas, &c., have hairy tails. There are great diversities of structure and habits among the Muridæ. All of them feed on vegetable food, but many of them are ready also to eat animal substances.—The limits of the family *M.* are very differently stated by different naturalists.

MURILLO, Bartholomé Estéban, was born at Seville, and baptised Jan. 1, 1618; and after receiving some education, was placed with his relative, Juan del Castillo, to study painting. Having saved a little money, which he made by painting religious pictures for exportation to South America, he went to Madrid in 1641, being then in his 24th year, was favorably noticed by his celebrated townsmen, Velasquez, and through his influence, was enabled to study the *chef-d'œuvre* of Italian and Flemish art in the royal collections. In 1645, he determined to return to Seville, though advised to proceed to Rome by Velasquez, who offered him letters from the king. After settling in Seville, he received numerous important commissions, and was soon acknowledged as the head of the school there. In 1648, M. married a lady of fortune; he now maintained a handsome establishment, and his house was the resort of people of taste and fashion. The Academy of Seville was founded by him in 1660, but he filled the office of president only during the first year. He fell from a scaffold when painting in Cadiz on an altar-piece for the Church of the Capuchins, returned to Seville, and soon after died from the injury he received, April 8, 1682. In early life, he painted many pictures illustrative of humble life; in these, the manner was darker and less refined than that exhibited in his later pictures, which are mostly scriptural or religious pieces. In the Louvre, and in England, there are about forty of his works. Sir David Wilkie, who greatly admired and carefully studied the Spanish school, has remarked, in reference to it: "Velasquez and Murillo are preferred, and preferred with reason, to all the others, as the most original and characteristic of their school. These two great painters are remarkable for having lived in the same time, in the same school, painted for the same people, and of the same age, and yet to have formed two styles so different and opposite, that the most unlearned can scarcely mistake them; Murillo being all softness, while Velasquez is all sparkle and vivacity."

MU'RO, an episcopal town of South Italy, in the province of Potenza, 17 miles north-west of the town of Potenza. Its castle, built on a height overlooking the ravine, was the scene of the murder of Joanna I., queen of Naples. Pop. 8388.

MURO'M, or Moorom, a town in the south-east of the government of Vladimir, in European Russia, 70 miles east-south-east of Vladimir, and situated on the right bank of the Oka, a tributary of the Volga. Pop. (1867) 11,286. The chief industrial establishments are tanneries and sail-cloth and linen factories. The fisheries on the Oka supply the surrounding country. M. is also noted for its orchards and kitchen-gardens, the latter of which supply a great portion of Russia with cucumber-seed of the first quality. Gypsum quarries in the neighborhood are extensively worked during winter. There is a large trade in wheat, flax, linseed, and timber. M. has a very picturesque appearance, and was formerly surrounded by impenetrable forests. It is frequently mentioned in the old national ballads, and is one of the most ancient towns of Russia.

MU'RRAIN is the generic term loosely used to designate a variety of diseases of domestic animals, but more correctly restricted to the vesicular epizootic, popularly known as the mouth and foot disease. It is a contagious eruptive fever, affecting cattle, sheep, pigs, and poultry; but rarely communicable to horses or men. It is characterised by the appearance of little bladders or vesicles in the mouth, on the lips, gums, and tongue; on the udder, and in the interdigital space; causing inability to eat, and drivelling of saliva, heat and swelling of the udder, and lameness. The disorder runs a fixed and definite course usually in eight or ten days. Good nursing, comfortable lodgings, and a liberal supply of soft, easily digestible food, are the chief requisites for speedy recovery. A laxative may be given if needed. The mouth may be washed out twice daily with a mild astringent solution, which may be made with half an ounce of alum, oxide of zinc, or sugar of lead, to the quart of water. The udder in milch cows, in which the complaint is usually most serious, should be bathed with tepid water before and after milking, which must be attended to very regularly; and the feet kept clean, and washed occasionally with the lotion used for the mouth.

MURRAY, or Moray, James Stewart, Earl of, sometime called the "Good Regent," was the natural son of James V. of Scotland, by Margaret, daughter of John, fourth Lord Erskine, afterwards wife of Sir Robert Douglas of Lochleven. He was born about 1531, made Commendator of the priory of St Andrews in 1558,

and subsequently of the priory of Macon (in France). He joined the Reformers in 1556, and almost immediately became the chief of the Protestant party in Scotland. In 1561, he was sent to France, to invite Queen Mary to return to her kingdom; and on her arrival, he became her prime minister and adviser. In February 1562, he was created Earl of Mar; but that earldom having been claimed by Lord Erskine, the title of Earl of Moray was conferred upon him instead a few months afterwards. Strongly opposed to the marriage of Mary with Lord Darnley, 29th July 1566, he endeavored to oppose it by an appeal to arms; but he was easily put to flight by the queen, and obliged to take refuge in England. He did not return to Edinburgh till the 10th March 1566, the day after the assassination of Riccio, in which he was an accomplice. In April 1567, he went to France, but was recalled in August of the same year by the lords in arms against the queen, when he found Mary prisoner in Lochleven, and himself appointed regent of the kingdom. After the escape of the queen, he defeated her forces, May 18, 1568, at Langside, near Glasgow, and was afterwards one of the commissioners sent to England to conduct the negotiations against her. By his prompt and vigorous measures, zeal, and prudence, he succeeded in securing the peace of the kingdom, and settling the affairs of the church, but was assassinated at Lulilithgow by Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh, January 21, 1570.

MURRAY, John, the name of three generations of English publishers, will forever remain associated with the palmiest days of English literature in the 18th and 19th centuries. The founder of the house, John M'Murray, was born in Edinburgh about 1746. He obtained a commission in the Royal Marines in 1762, and in 1768 was still second-lieutenant, when, disgusted with the slowness of promotion, and panting for a more active career, he purchased the bookselling business of Mr Sandby, opposite St Dunstan's Church, London; and, dropping the Scottish prefix, became a bookseller and publisher at "82 Fleet Street." He brought out the "English Review," and published the elder Disraeli's "Curiosities of Literature," &c. He could himself wield the pen, as some pamphlets remain to testify. He died November 16, 1793, and was succeeded in due time by his son JOHN, who was left a minor of fifteen at his father's death. One of the earliest hits of John the second was Mrs Rundell's Cookery-book, which proved to be a mine of wealth—more productive, perhaps, than "Childe Harold" itself. He became connected with Thomas Campbell and Sir Walter Scott, and in 1808—1809, projected the "Quarterly Review," a Tory organ, in opposition to the Whig "Edinburgh Review," then in the height of its influence. The first number was published February 1, 1809, under the editorship of William Gifford. The new periodical was completely successful, and brought M. into communication not only with the chief literati, but also with the Conservative statesmen of the time. A still more fortunate acquaintance was that with Lord Byron, whose "Childe Harold" was published by M. in 1812. M. now removed from Fleet Street to Albemarle Street, where the business is still carried on. Here Byron and Scott first met, and here Southey made the acquaintance of Crabbe. Almost all the literary magnates of the day were "four o'clock visitors" in Albemarle Street. Byron's pleasant verse has described the scene:

"The room's so full of wits and bards,  
Crabbes, Campbells, Crokers, Freres, and Wards."

M.'s dinner-parties included politicians and statesmen, as well as authors, artists, and dilettanti. M. paid Byron nearly £20,000 for his works, and his dealings with Crabbe, Moore, Campbell and Irving, were princely. The second John M. died in his 65th year, in 1843, and was succeeded by his son, JOHN M. the third. Born in 1808, he was educated first at the Charter House, and afterwards at Edinburgh University. The age of Byron had gone by, when, in 1843, he succeeded to the business of his father and grandfather. A more practical and realistic age had succeeded, and the "Home and Colonial Library," issued to beat off foreign and American piracies, was the precursor of the cheap railway and other literature of the present day. A lively and vigorous competition, arising out of the wants of a new era, has somewhat altered the relation of the great publishing houses. That of Albemarle Street no longer ranks first in the extent and variety of its transactions, but many of the greatest works in history, biography, travel, art, and science have issued from the Albemarle Street press under the régime of the third Murray. Among his later successes may be mentioned Dr Livingstone's "Travels" and "Last Journals," Smiles's "Life

of George Stephenson," and Charles Darwin's "Origin of Species by Natural Selection." His handbooks of continental travel have lately been supplemented by handbooks of English counties, and these, it is understood, owe much to the personal assistance and superintendence of the present head of the famous house of Murray.

MURRAY, Lindley, an English grammarian, was born at Swatara, Lancaster County, Pennsylvania, U.S., in 1745. He was educated at an academy of the Society of Friends, and, on his father's removal to New York, was placed in a counting house, from which he escaped to a school in New Jersey. He then studied law, and was admitted to the bar at the age of 21, and commenced a good practice. During the revolutionary war he engaged in mercantile pursuits with such success as to accumulate a handsome fortune. His health failing, he came to England and purchased the estate of Holdgate, near York, where he devoted himself to literary pursuits. In 1797, he published his "Power of Religion on the Mind," which passed through seventeen editions. His "Grammar of the English Language" was issued in 1795, and was followed by "English Exercises," the "Key," the "English Reader," "Introduction and Sequel," and a "Spelling Book." There can be no stronger indication how entirely the systematic study of the English language was—until recent years—neglected by scholars, than the fact that M.'s Grammar was for half a century the standard text-book throughout Britain and America. M. wrote an autobiography to the year 1809, which was published after his death, February 16, 1826.

MURRAY RIVER, the principal river of South Australia. See AUSTRALIA.

MURSHEDABA'D, a town of India, capital of a British district of the same name in Bengal proper, is situated on the left bank of the Bhagiratti, a branch of the Ganges, about 124 m. n. of Calcutta. On the opposite side of the river stands Mahinagar, usually reckoned a part of M. The town occupies a great space, being several miles both in length and breadth, but the buildings are for the most part of mud. It contains two palaces; the one, old and gloomy; the other, constructed after the European style, and of great beauty, was completed in 1840. Situated on the most frequented route by water from Calcutta to the North-West Provinces, the trade of M. is important. Formerly, it was the capital of Bengal, and so wealthy, that Clive compared it with London. Pop. (1871) 46,182, of whom about 60 per cent. are Hindus, and 40 per cent. Mohammedans.

MURVIEDRO, a small town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, and 18 miles north-north-east of the city of that name on the left bank of the Palancia, and two miles from its mouth. Pop. about 5000. It stands on the site of the ancient Saguntum (q. v.).

MURZU'K. See FEZZAN.

MUSA'CÆ, a natural order of endogenous plants, the largest of herbaceous plants, generally destitute or almost destitute of true stems, yet resembling trees in appearance, and sometimes rivalling palms in stateliness; the long sheathing bases of the leaf-stalks combining to form a false stem. The blade of the leaf has many fine parallel veins proceeding from the midrib to the margin. The flowers are congregated on spadices, which are protected by spathes. The fruit is either a 3-valved capsule or fleshy.—The species are not numerous; they are natives of warm climates, in which they are widely distributed, and are of great value to the inhabitants of tropical countries; the fruit of some, particularly of the genus *Musa*, being much used for food, whilst the fibres of the leaves are employed for cordage and for textile purposes. See PLANTAIN, BANANA, and ABACA. A very interesting plant of the order M. is the TRAVELLER'S TREE (q. v.) of Madagascar.

MUSAUS, Johann Karl August, a German writer, born in 1787 at Jena, where he studied theology, was nominated to a country church, but prevented from entering upon the cure committed to him in consequence of the opposition of the peasantry of the parish, who refused to receive him on the ground that he had been once seen to dance. In 1768, he received the appointment of tutor to the pages at the ducal court, and in 1770 he became professor at the Weimar gymnasium. His first literary production, which appeared in 1760, was a parody of Richardson's "Sir Charles Grandison," which was at that time extravagantly admired in Germany.

The success of this satirical squib was complete; but as literary fame did not bring with it a corresponding amount of pecuniary reward, M. was compelled to gain his living by other means than writing; and an interval of more than eighteen years elapsed before he found leisure to reappear as an author. In 1778, he published his "Physiognomischen Reisen," in which he endeavored, by good natured yet striking satire, to counteract the absurd uses to which the Germans of his day had turned Lavater's system. This, like his previous work, was pre-eminently successful, and encouraged by the marks of popular favor with which it was received, he laid aside his incognito, and continued to devote himself to authorship. In 1782, appeared his charming version of German folk-lore, under the title of "Volksmärchen der Deutschen," which professed to be merely a collection of popular tales noted down from the lips of illiterate old country people; but these tales were tinged with such a blending of genial humor, quaint fancy, and strong sense, that they have become a classical work of their kind, popular among persons of every age and class. His satirical sketches, entitled "Fr. und Hein. Erscheinungen in Holbein's Maier," (Winterthur, 1788), maintained his reputation as one of the sprightliest and most genial satirists of his country. Under the name of Schellenberg, he began a course of tales, "Straßfeder" (Berl. 1787), which, however, he did not live to complete. He died in 1787. His "Morallische Kinderklapper" appeared the year after his death, while his other posthumous writings were edited in 1791, with an interesting notice of the author, by his relative and pupil, A. V. Kotz-bue. M.'s style was at once correct and elegant, adapting itself with singular flexibility to the various subjects which he handled; while the unaffected geniality and frank loving nature which are reflected in all he wrote, have deservedly made him one of the most popular writers of his day in Germany.

MUSÆ'US, one of the ancient Greek poets of the mythic period, is said to have been the son of Eumolpus and Selene; according to others, the son and pupil of Orpheus. To him was ascribed the introduction of the Eleusinian and other mysteries into Greece, and the ordering of many religious rites. He was among the ancients also the reputed author of a number of poems, oracles, purificatory verses, a war of the Titans, a theogony, hymns, &c.; but of the few verses which remain the authenticity is very doubtful.—A later MUSÆUS, who probably flourished about the end of the sixth c. of the Christian era, was the author of a very pleasing amatory poem, in Greek, entitled "Hero and Leander," discovered in the 18th c., of which the first edition was published by Aldus Manutius about 1494, and of which there have been many subsequent editions.

MU'SCÆ VOLITA'NTES is the term applied to ocular spectra, which appear like flies on the wing, or floating black spots before the eyes. There are two kinds of muscæ volitantes—the one a perfectly harmless kind, while the other is symptomatic of one of the most serious diseases of the eyes, viz., amaurosis.

Whoever will look through a minute pin-hole in a card at the clear sky may see floating before his sight a number of translucent tubes or fibres, and many little beads, of which some are separate, some attached to the tubes, and some apparently within them. Some of the tubes or fibres are straight, others looped or twisted, and others again forked. All these objects are bright in the middle, and bounded by fine black lines, beyond and parallel to which may be seen an appearance of colored lines or fringes. The doublings and crossings of the loops or knots in the twisted fibres appear as black points. Though the eye be fixed, these bodies change their position with greater or less rapidity. Now, in ordinary light and vision all these objects are imperceptible, unless the knots or fibres happen to be larger than usual, when they constitute the harmless kind of muscæ volitantes. The black lines and fringes are phenomena of the inflexion or diffraction (q. v.) of light, which are never seen except in divergent rays, and all muscæ volitantes having such fringes must be situated at a greater or less distance from the retina; and there are conclusive reasons for believing that they occupy the vitreous humor, and cannot therefore portend amaurosis; whereas those black spots which have no fringes, and which do not move, or which move only with the motions of the eye, are points in the retina which are insensible to light, and are therefore to be regarded as symptomatic of danger to vision. To decide, then, whether the muscæ volitantes are or are not indicative of danger, the patient should fix his eye on a white surface (as a sheet of

letter-paper) after a sudden shake of the head; if they sink gently downwards, they are innocent. It should perhaps be added, that though they seem to descend, they must in reality be ascending; floating up in the vitreous humor as far as the cellular partitions formed by the hyaloid membrane will permit. See EYE. For further information on the differences between the innocent and the dangerous forms of musca volitantes, the reader is referred to an article by Sir David Brewster in the "North British Review" for November 1856.

MUSCARIUM, or Silk-worm Rot (*Botrytis Bassiana*), a fungus (see BOTRYTIS) which grows on silk-worms, and often kills them in great numbers. It consists of erect branching threads, with clusters of spores at the end of short lateral branches. The spores of this fungus germinate even on healthful silk-worms, and in circumstances otherwise most favorable to their healthfulness. They germinate also on the caterpillars of other lepidopterous insects. When this pest appears among silk-worms, its progress cannot be checked by any means known. For prevention, it is most important that the silk-worms be not overcrowded.

MUSCAT, or Maskat, an independent Arab state, forming the sea-coast of Oman, in Eastern Arabia. It extends from the Strait of Ormuz to the Island of Muscat, and nowhere exceeds 150 miles in width. The coast and interior are both sterile, but the country is studded with very fertile oases. The capital is Muscat (population, 60,000), on the Persian Gulf, a fortified town, surrounded with gardens and date-palms. It has a very good harbor, which, in the winter months, is reckoned the best refuge in the Indian Ocean, and is a most important centre of trade, where the productions of Europe, of Africa, and of the East are exchanged. The principal exports are Arabian coffee and pearls obtained from the Persian Gulf; but wheat, dates, raisins, salt, sulphur, drugs, and horses are also exported. The independence of Oman dates from 761, when the people elected a sovereign of their own. For 900 years the Imams were elected for personal merit, and afterwards from members of personal merit, and afterwards from members of a ruling family. M. was taken by Albuquerque in 1507, and remained in the hands of the Portuguese till 1648, when the Arabs recovered possession of it. The Imams afterwards made extensive conquests in Eastern Africa, including Zanzibar, Mombas, Quiloa, &c. In 1795, they acquired possession of the coasts of Laristan and Mogistan, the islands of El Kishim and Ormuz, and the town of Bender Abbas in Persia, paying to the Shah a rent or tribute of 6000 taousas. The state was very prosperous under the wise and mild sway of Said Seid, the late Imam. He ascended the throne in 1803, at the age of 16, and reigned till his death in 1856. He was long a faithful ally of England. In 1854, the Imams were driven from their Persian dependencies, which in their opinion belonged to them in perpetuity so long as they paid the rental. They recaptured Bender Abbas, but in consequence of English interference, they were compelled to conclude a treaty with Persia in April 1856. This is said to have broken the heart of the old Seid, who died on 19th Oct. 1856. He appointed his son Majid to succeed him in Zanzibar, and his son Thuwayni to succeed him in Muscat. The latter was murdered by his son Salim in 1868, who reigned for a short time, but was driven out by his uncle, Sayed Tuky. In consequence of the unsettled state of affairs in M., Persia has assumed the government of Bender Abbas and the Persian coast territory. See ZANZIBAR and WAHABIS.—See "History of the Imams and Seyeds of Oman," by Sabih-ibn-Razik, from the Arabic, by Rev G. P. Badger (1871); Markham's "History of Persia" (1874).

MUSCATEL (Ital. *moscato*, musk), the name given to many kinds of sweet and strong French and Italian wines, whether white or red. Amongst the finest are the white Rivesalte and red Bagnol wines from Roussillon, and the Lunel from the Pyrenees, the Lacryma Christi and Cariglano of Naples, &c.

MUSCATINE, a city of Iowa, U. S., is on the west bank of the Mississippi, 100 miles above Keokuk, and 32 south-east of Iowa City. It has a large trade by the river, and several railroads, three steam flour-mills, planing-machines, four large saw-mills, which annually produce about 80,000,000 feet of timber, besides shingles, &c. There are 14 churches, schools, newspapers, &c. Pop. (1870) 6718.

MUSCHELKALK (Ger. shell-lime), the middle member of the Triassic, or New Red Sandstone period, the beds of which are entirely absent from the British strata.

Being typically developed in Germany, the foreign name has been universally adopted to designate them. They consist of (1st) a series of compact, grayish, regularly-bedded limestone, more than 300 feet thick; and (2d) alternations of limestone, dolomite, marl, gypsum, and rock-salt, nearly 800 feet thick. The limestone abounds in the remains of Mollusca. The paleozoic Goniatites are replaced by the Ceratites, a remarkable link between them and the Secondary Ammonites. Ceratites are distinguished by the few small denticulations of the inner lobes of the suture. The heads and stems of Lily encrinites (*Encrinus*) are also abundant in these strata, and the remains of ganoid fish have also been met with.

**MU'SCI.** See **Mosses.**

**MUSCICAPIDÆ**, a family of birds of the order *Inseparables* and tribe *Dentirostræ*, of which the greater number receive the popular name Fly-catcher (q. v.). The limits of the family are, however, very variously defined by different ornithologists. The M. are mostly inhabitants of the warmer parts of the world, in which they are very widely diffused. The species are very numerous.

**MUSCIDÆ**, a family of dipteron insects, having a short, thick membranous proboscis, geniculated at the base, entirely retractile so as to be concealed within the mouth, and terminated by two large lobes (see **HOUSE-FLY**); the antennæ three-jointed; the thorax with a transverse suture. The species are very numerous, and universally distributed. More than 800 are found in Britain, among which are the well-known House-fly, Blow-fly, &c. The larvæ are Maggots (q. v.). Although some of the M. are troublesome, none of them are so much so as species of some other allied families.

**MUSCLE AND MUSCULAR TISSUE.** Muscular tissue is specially distinguished by its contractile power, and is the instrument by which all the sensible movements of the animal body are performed. When examined under a high magnifying power, the fibres of which it is composed are found to exist under two forms, which can be distinguished from one another by the presence or absence of very close and minute transverse bars or stripes. The fibres of the voluntary muscles—or those whose movements can be influenced by the will—as well as the fibres of the heart, are *striped*; while those of the involuntary muscles—the muscular structures over which we have no control—as, for example, the muscular fibres of the intestinal canal, the uterus, and the bladder, are *unstriped*.

On examining an ordinary voluntary muscle with the naked eye (a muscle from one of the extremities of any animal, for example), we observe that it presents a fibrous appearance, and that the fibres are arranged with great regularity in the direction in which the muscle is to act or contract (for it is by their inherent power of contracting that muscles act). On closer examination, it is found that these fibres are arranged in *fasciculi*, or bundles of various sizes, enclosed in sheaths of areolar tissue, by which they are at the same time connected with and isolated from those adjoining them; and when the smallest *fasciculus*, visible to the naked eye, is examined with the microscope, it is seen to consist of a number of cylindrical fibres lying in a parallel direction, and closely bound together. These primitive (or, as some writers term them, the *ultimate*) fibres present two sets of markings or *striæ*—viz., a longitudinal and a transverse set. The fibres, when separated from each other, frequently split longitudinally into *fibrillæ*. Sometimes, however, when a fibre is extended, it separates in the direction of the transverse striæ into a series of discs. Either cleavage is equally natural, but the latter is the least common. Hence, observes Mr Bowman, who has specially investigated the minute structure of the voluntary muscle, “it is as proper to say that the fibre is a pile of discs as that it is a bundle of fibrillæ; but, in fact, it is neither the one nor the other, but a mass in whose structure there is an intimation of the existence of both, and a tendency to cleave in the two directions. If there were a general disintegration along all the lines in both directions, there would result a series of particles, which may be termed *primitive particles* or *sarcous elements*, the union of which constitutes the mass of the fibre. These elementary particles are arranged and united together in the two directions, and the resulting discs, as well as fibrillæ, are equal to one another in size, and contain an equal number of particles. The same particles compose both. To detach an entire fibrilla is to abstract a particle of every disc, and vice versa.” The fibres are supplied with vessels and nerves which lie in the intervals between them,

and are attached by their extremities through the medium of tendon or aponeurosis to the parts which they are intended to move. Aggregated in parallel series, of greater or lesser size, and associated with nerves, vessels, tendinous structures, &c., they form the various MUSCLES, which are for the most part solid and elongated, but are sometimes expanded (as in the diaphragm) into a membranous shape. The length of the fibres is usually about that of the muscle in which they may occur, and may vary from two feet or more (in the sartorius muscle) to less than two lines (in the stapedius muscle in the middle ear); while their width varies from 1-60th to 1-1500th of an inch, being largest in crustaceans, fishes, and reptiles, where their irritability, or power of contracting under the action of a stimulus, is most enduring, and smallest in birds, where it is most evanescent. Their average width in man is about 1-400th of an inch, being about 1-352d of an inch in the male and 1-454th of an inch in the female. The average distance between the striae, or the size of the sarcous elements, in the human subject is 1-9400th of an inch, the extremes being 1-1500th and 1-6000th of an inch, according to the contraction or relaxation of the fibre. The form of the fibres is polygonal, their sides being flattened against those of the adjoining fibres. Each fibre is enclosed in a transparent, very delicate, but tough and elastic tubular sheath, which cannot always be readily seen, but is distinctly shewn stretching between the separated fragments of a fibre which has been broken within it, for its toughness will often resist a force before which its brittle contents give way. This tubular sheath is known as the *sarcolemma* or *myolemma*—the former term being derived from the Greek words *sark*, flesh, and *lemma*, a skin or husk; and the latter, from the Greek words *mūs*, a muscle, and *lemma*.

It was for a long time believed that the contraction of a muscle was associated with a change in the direction of each fibre from a straight line to a sinuous or zig-zag course. The investigations of Mr Bowman have, however, shewn that this view is erroneous. He has proved that in a state of contraction there is an approximation of the transverse striae, and a general shortening with a simultaneous thickening of the fibre, but that it is never thrown out of the straight line, except when it has ceased to contract, and its extremities are acted on by the contraction of adjacent fibres.

Muscles grow by an increase, not of the number, but of the bulk of their elementary fibres; and Mr Bowman believes "that the number of fibres remains throughout life as it was in the foetus, and that the spare or muscular build of the individual is determined by the mould in which his body was originally cast."

The structure of the *involuntary* or *unstriped* muscles must now be considered. This form of muscular tissue most commonly occurs in the shape of flattened bands of considerable length, but of a width not exceeding 1-2000th or 1-3000th of an inch. These bands are translucent, and sometimes slightly granular, and are usually marked at intervals by elongated nuclei, which become much more apparent on the addition of acetic acid. Kölliker has shewn that every one of these bands or fibres is either a single elongated cell (a fibre-cell) or is a fasciculus of such cells. These fibres have not usually fixed points of attachment like the striated fibres, but form continuous investments around cavities within the body—such as the intestinal canal, the bladder, the uterus, the blood-vessels, &c.—or are dispersed through the substance of tissues, such as the skin, to which they impart a contractile property.

The chemical composition of ordinary (or voluntary) muscle is described in the article FLESH. It is only necessary to add that the fibrillæ, or the sarcous elements of which they are composed, consist of a substance termed SYNTONINE (q. v.), which closely resembles the fibrine or coagulating constituent of the blood; and that the same syntone is also the main constituent of the unstriped muscles, or at all events of their fibre-cells. Like the blood-fibrine, it exists in a fluid form in the living tissue, and only coagulates or solidifies after death.

Our limited space prevents even an allusion to the arrangement and distribution of blood-vessels, nerves, and areolar-tissues in muscular structures; and we therefore pass on to the consideration of the muscles and their functions.

Muscles vary extremely in their form. In the limbs they are usually of considerable length, surrounding the bones and forming an important protection to the joints; while in the trunk, they are flattened and broad, and contribute very essentially to form the walls of the cavities which they enclose. There is unfortunately

no definite rule regarding the nomenclature of muscles. Muscles derive their names (1) from their situation—as the temporal, pectorals, glutaeal, &c.; or (2) from their direction—as the rectus, obliquus, &c., of which there may be several pairs—as, for example, rectus femoris, rectus abdominalis, rectus capitis, &c.; or (3) from their uses—as the masseter, the various flexors, extensors; or (4) from their shape—as the deltoid, trapezius, rhomboid, &c.; or (5) from the number of their divisions—as the biceps and triceps; or (6) from their points of attachment—as the sterno-clido-mastoid, the genio-hyo-glossus, the sterno-thyroid, &c. In the description of a muscle we express its points of attachment by the words *origin* and *insertion*; the former being applied to the more fixed point or that towards which the motion is directed, while the latter is applied to the more movable point. The application of these terms is, however, in many cases arbitrary, as many muscles pull equally towards both attachments. Muscles opposed in action are termed *antagonists*, this antagonism being in most cases required by the necessity that exists for an active moving power in opposite directions. Thus, by one set of muscles, the *flexors*, the limbs are bent; while by a contrary set, the *extensors*, they are straightened. One set, termed the muscles of mastication, closes the jaws, while another set opens them; and probably every muscle in the body has its antagonists in one or more other muscles.

The skeleton, which may be termed the locomotive framework, may be regarded as a series of levers, of which the fulcrum is, for the most part, in a joint—viz., at one extremity of a bone—the resistance (or weight) at the further end, and the force (or muscle) in the intermediate portion. In most cases, in order to preserve the necessary form of the body, muscles are applied at a great mechanical disadvantage as regards the exercise of their power; that is to say, much larger force is employed than would suffice, if differently applied, to overcome the resistance. The two main sources of this disadvantage lie in the obliquity of the insertion, and consequently of the action of most muscles, and in the muscle being usually inserted very near the fulcrum. The first of these disadvantages is in many cases diminished by the enlargements of the bones at the joints. The tendons of the muscles situated above the joint are usually inserted immediately below the bony enlargement, and thus reach the bone that is to be moved in a direction somewhat approaching the perpendicular. If this enlargement did not exist, the contraction of the muscle, instead of causing the lower bone to turn upon the upper one with comparatively little loss of power, would do little more than cause the two ends of the bones to press upon each other. The second mechanical disadvantage is compensated for by gain in the extent and velocity of movement, and by the avoidance of the great inconvenience of having the muscles extended in straight lines between the ends of jointed continuous levers. Thus the bones of the forearm are bent upon the bone of the arm by the biceps muscle which arises close to the head of the latter, and is inserted at a short distance from the elbow-joint, which acts as the fulcrum of the lever. By this arrangement, a contraction of a single inch in the muscle moves the hand, in the same time, through the extent of about 12 inches, but then the hand moves through every inch with only about the twelfth part of the power exerted by the muscle. By the junction of two or more levers in one direction, as in the different segments of the extremities, the extent and velocity of their united actions are communicated to the extreme one. Thus a blow of the fist may be made to include the force of all the muscles engaged in extending the shoulder, elbow, and wrist.

The great and characteristic property of muscular tissue—that of shortening itself in a particular direction when stimulated—is called *contractility*. The stimulus may be direct irritation by mechanical means, or by galvanism, or by some chemical substance, but in the living body the muscular fibres are, in most cases, made to contract by the immediate influence of the nerves distributed among them, which are consequently termed *motor nerves* (see **NERVOUS SYSTEM**), and are under the influence of the will. By an exertion of volition, we can contract more or fewer muscles at once, and to any degree, within certain limits; and as a matter of fact, there is hardly any ordinary movement performed in which several muscles are not called in play. But every voluntary muscle is also subject to other influences more powerful in their operation than the will. The movement of the features under the impulses of passion and emotion are more or less involuntary,

as is shewn by the very partial power the will has of restraining them, and the extreme difficulty of imitating them.

Many movements ensue involuntarily when certain impressions, which need not necessarily be attended with consciousness, are made on the surface of the body, or on any part of its interior, either by external or internal causes. Such movements are termed **reflex**, and are noticed in the article **NERVOUS SYSTEM**. Our space precludes us from noticing the individual groups of muscles in the human body. Several important groups are, however, noticed under **ARM**, **EYE**, **FOOT**, **HAND**, **LEG**, &c.

**MUSCULAR FORCE**, Origin of. The recent and decisive investigation of Professor Fick and Wislicenus<sup>\*</sup> of Zurich, of Professor Frankland and of Professor Parkes, have completely overthrown the physiological views on this subject held previous to the year 1866. While the inference from previous experiments was, that the effect of exercise was to cause a very large increase in the elimination of carbon, and a much smaller, but very perceptible increase in the elimination of nitrogen, Fick and Wislicenus (from observations made on the excretion of nitrogen during the ascent of the Faulhorn) deny altogether the increase of the nitrogen, and come to the conclusion, that the force generated in the muscles is the result of the burning (oxidation) of non-nitrogenous substances (fats or carbo-hydrates), and not of the burning of the albuminous constituents of muscular tissue; and they conclude, that the nitrogenous constituents of muscles are rather to be regarded as forming the machine in which these fats or carbo-hydrates are burned, than as the subjects which are burned. Dr Frankland ("Philosophical Magazine," September 1-66) arrives at the conclusion that the non-nitrogenous constituents of the food, such as starch, fat, &c., are the chief sources of the actual energy which becomes partially transformed into muscular work. He does not, however, deny to the albuminous matter a co-operation in the production of muscular power, but he regards their chief use as being to renew the muscular tissue. The muscles are thus the source both of animal heat and of muscular force. One of the latest investigators of this important subject is Professor Parkes, who communicated the result of his inquiries to the Royal Society (see "Proceedings of the Royal Society," Nos. 89 and 94, 1867). Two series of experiments were made on soldiers at Netley. Two men were kept on ordinary diet and on usual work for four days; were then kept in perfect rest for two days, on a diet free from nitrogen; then finally returned for four days more to their usual food and work. In the second series, the same course was adopted, except that throughout the whole period the men took a constant quantity (302 grains) of nitrogen daily.

The conclusions deduced by Dr Parkes from these experiments were, that Professors Fick and Wislicenus are quite correct in stating that there is no increase of nitrogen eliminated during the period of exercise. There is, on the contrary, a slight decrease. They are not correct in stating that there is no increase after exercise, for there is a perceptible, though not a very large increase. "Without going into an analysis of the experiments, which would occupy too much space, I believe," says Dr Parkes in his Sanitary Report contained in the last volume of the Army Statistical, Sanitary, and Medical Report, 1867, p. 846, "my results indicate that our ideas of the origin of muscular force and of nutrition generally must be modified; that during action, muscles appropriate nitrogen, and grow; and that they do not give it off and waste, as was formerly supposed, or undergo no change, as Fick and Wislicenus believe. In other words, formation of nitrogenous tissues goes on during action, and removal of nitrogen goes on during rest. The mechanical force manifested during muscular action is, however, probably derived from changes in the carbo-hydrates, especially the fats, which changes are connected with the appropriation of nitrogen by the muscles."

The theory of muscular action which he proposes for consideration is this. During action, the muscles appropriate nitrogen; this act is accompanied by changes in the carbo-hydrates, which lead to the manifestation of mechanical force; these changes lead to effete products (lactic acid, &c.) in the muscles, which, as appears from Rauke's experiments, stop their contraction. Then ensues an action of oxy-

\*A translation of their Memoir may be found in the "Philosophical Magazine" for June 1866 (supplementary number).

gen upon the nitrogenous framework of the muscle, and a removal of the effete products of the carbo-hydrates, so that the muscle becomes again capable of appropriating nitrogen, and of acting. The amount of truth in this theory must be decided by the investigations of others; it seems the only one which can explain the facts, if these have been correctly made out.

Although it is mainly to the above-named physiologists that we owe our recently acquired knowledge, it deserves mention that previous investigations undertaken on different but allied subjects by other physiological chemists, as, for example, Dr. Edward Sinyth, Lawes and Gilbert, Playfair, and Haughton, are entirely in accordance with our views.

MUSES, in the Classic Mythology, divinities originally included amongst the Nymphs, but afterwards regarded as quite distinct from them. To them was ascribed the power of inspiring song, and poets and musicians were therefore regarded as their pupils and favorites. They were at first honored amongst the Thracians, and as Pieris around Olympus was the original seat of that people, it came to be considered as the native country of the Muses, who were therefore called *Pierides*. In the earliest period their number was three, though Homer sometimes speaks of a single muse, and once, at least, alludes to nine. This last is the number given by Hesiod in his "Theogony," who also mentions their names—Clio (q. v.), Euterpe (q. v.), Thaleia (q. v.), Melpomene (q. v.), Terpsichore (q. v.), Erato, Polyhymnia (q. v.) Urania (q. v.), and Calliope (q. v.). Their origin is differently given, but the most widely-spread account represented them as the daughters of Zeus and Mnemosyne. Homer speaks of them as the goddesses of song, and as dwelling on the summit of Olympus. They are also often represented as the companions of Apollo, and as singing while played upon the lyre at the banquets of the Immortals. Various legends ascribed to them victories in musical competitions, particularly over the Sirens (q. v.). In the later classic times, particular provinces were assigned to them in connection with different departments of literature, science, and the fine arts; but the invocations addressed to them appear to have been, as in the case of modern writers, merely formal imitations of the early poets. Their worship amongst the Romans was a mere imitation of the Greeks, and never became truly national or popular. Among the places sacred to them were the wells of Aganippe and Hippocrene on Mount Helicon, and the Castalian spring on Mount Parnassus.

MUSE'UM (Gr. *mouséion*), originally the name given by the ancients to a temple of the Muses, and afterwards to a building devoted to science, learning, and the fine arts. The first museum of this kind was the celebrated Alexandrian Museum (see ACADEMY). After the revival of learning in Europe, the term *museum* was sometimes applied to the apartment in which any kind of philosophical apparatus was kept and used; but it has long been almost exclusively appropriated to collections of the monuments of antiquity and of other things interesting to the scholar and man of science. In this sense it began to be first used in Italy, and probably in the case of the famous Florentine Museum, founded by Cosmo de Medici, which soon became a great and most valuable collection of antiquities. Nothing analogous to the museums of modern times existed amongst the ancients, the greatest collections of statues and paintings which were made in the houses of wealthy Romans having been intended for splendor rather than for the promotion of art. The name soon ceased to be limited to collections of antiquities, and sculptures, and paintings; collections illustrative of natural history and other sciences now form a chief part of the treasures of many of the greatest museums, and there are museums devoted to particular branches of science. Of the museums of Britain, the British Museum (q. v.) is the greatest; that of Oxford, founded in 1679, is the oldest.—The museum of the Vatican, in Rome, contains immense treasures in sculptures and paintings, and also in books and manuscripts.—The museum of the Louvre in Paris, that of St Petersburg, and those of Dresden, Vienna, Munich, and Berlin, are amongst the greatest in the world. The usefulness of a museum depends not merely upon the amount of its treasures, but, perhaps, even in a greater degree upon their proper arrangement; and whilst great collections in the chief capitals of the world are of incalculable importance to science, its interests are also likely to be much promoted by those local museums, still unhappily not numerous, which are devoted to the illustration of all that belongs to particular and limited districts. Museums appropriated to the illustration of the industrial arts—their raw material, their machines,

and their products—and of everything economically valuable, are of recent origin, but their importance is unquestionably very great. Pre-eminent among institutions of this kind in Britain are the South Kensington Museum in London, and the Museum of Science and Art in Edinburgh.

MUSHROOM, or Agaric (*Agaricus*), a genus of fungi, of the suborder *Hymenomycetes*, having a *hymenium* of unequal plates or gills on the lower side of the *pileus*. The species are very numerous. Many of them are poisonous, many are edible, and some are among the most esteemed fungi. The species most esteemed in Britain is the COMMON M. (*A. campestris*), a native also of most of the temperate regions both of the northern and of the southern hemisphere, and of which a very large and fine variety occurs in Eastern Australia. It is found during summer and autumn (but chiefly in autumn) in pastures, orchards, vineyards, &c. Its *pileus* is regularly convex, becoming almost flat when old; fleshy, dry, white with a tinge of yellow or brown; of a silky smoothness on the upper surface, or somewhat scaly, but never warty; thickly set on the under side with very unequal gills, which in a young state are pink, and afterwards become dark brown. The *pilens* is attached by its centre to the top of the stem. The stem is of a firm fleshy texture, and towards the top is surrounded by a more or less distinct white membranous ring, the remains of the curtain or vail (*industrium*), which in a young state extends to the *pileus*, and covers the gills. This M. is gathered for the table when young, being preferred when the vail is still unbroken, and the unexpanded *pileus* has the form of a ball or button; but both in this state, and afterwards, whilst it shews no symptoms of decay, it is used for making Ketchup (q. v.). It has a very pleasant smell and taste, and the flesh, when bruised, assumes a reddish-brown color.—Very similar to it, and often sold instead of it in London and elsewhere, but rejected by all skilful housekeepers as nūt fit even for making ketchup, is the ST GEORGE'S AGARIC (*A. Georgii*), sometimes called *whitecaps*, frequent in moist pastures and near buildings in all parts of Britain. This species is easily distinguished by its larger size—the *pileus* being sometimes 18 inches broad—its coarser appearance, its rather disagreeable smell, the yellow color which its flesh assumes when bruised, and the lighter color of its gills.—Care must be taken not to confound the Common M. with the white variety of *Agaricus phalloides*, a species not uncommon in Britain, chiefly in woods and on the borders of woods, which is very poisonous. Perhaps it is the possibility of this mistake which has led to the prohibition of the Common M. in Rome, where many kinds of esculent fungi are brought in great abundance to the market, and where a special officer superintends the sale of them. *A. phalloides* is, however, easily distinguished by the ring at the bottom of the stem, the white color of the gills, the warts on the upper surface of the *pileus*, and the powerful smell, which becomes extremely disagreeable as the M. grows old.—Another species of M. much in use for the table is the FAIRY-RING M. (*A. oreades*), sometimes called Scotch Bonnets—the *Champignon* of the French. It is common in pastures in Britain and most parts of Europe, often forming Fairy Rings (q. v.). It is much smaller than the Common M., the *pileus* being seldom more than an inch broad, the stem taller in proportion. The stem is solid, fibrous, and tough, with no ring; the *pileus* smooth, fleshy, tough, convex, with a more or less distinct boss (*umbo*) in the centre, of a watery-brown color, the flesh white. The odor is strong, but agreeable. This M. is used for ketchup, and is also dried and powdered for use at table as a savory addition to sauces and stews. It is constantly brought to market in England. It is liable, however, to be confounded with several poisonous species; but only one of them, *A. dealbatus*, forms fairy rings, and this may be readily distinguished by its disagreeable odor, by its becoming grayish-brown in zones when soaked in water, by the margin of the *pilens* being at first rolled inwards, and by its very fine dingy whitish gills.—The other edible species of M. or agaric are numerous, but they are chiefly used on the continent of Europe, and scarcely at all in Britain, although some of them are common British plants.—The ORANGE-MILKED AGARIO (*A. deliciosa*), which grows chiefly in fir-woods and among junipers, has a viscid *pileus*, four inches or more broad, at first orange, afterwards pale, the gills and juice orange, the gills running down the stem, the smell and taste agreeable.—The MOUSSERON (*A. prunulus*) is common in woods and pastures, particularly on sandy soils. It has a *pileus* about 2–4 inches broad, convex, yellowish-white when young, the gills

at first white, and afterwards flesh-colored. The odor is agreeable. It is much esteemed on the continent as an article of food.—The PARASOL AGARIC (*A. procerus*) is found in pastures, especially under trees. It loves sandy soils. It is remarkable for its long stem, 8—12 inches high, with a thick spongy ring. The pileus is 3—7 inches broad, at first obtusely conic, then bell-shaped, covered with brown scales. The taste and smell are pleasant.—The WHITE FIELD AGARIC (*A. virgineus*) is one of the most common of British species, growing in pastures, with viscid or satiny white or whitish convex pileus, fully an inch broad, stem nearly two inches long, and light chocolate-colored distant gills, which run down the stem. It grows either singly or in groups.—The ANISE M., or SWEET-SCENTED AGARIC (*A. odorus*), grows in shady woods and dellis among moss and decaying leaves. It has a slightly convex pileus, about three inches broad, with pale gills. The odor is like that of anise.—The IVORY M. (*A. etuberosus*) is found in woods, with pileus 2—3 inches broad, of a grayish-yellow color, broad gills, and a rather long and somewhat scaly stem.—The SMOKY M. (*A. fumosus*), with pileus smoke-gray above, the gills and stalk yellowish, is common in fir-woods.—All these are edible, and more or less pleasant and nutritious. Finer than most of them is the IMPERIAL M. (*A. caesarius*), the Kaiserling of the Germans, a species found in loamy soils in some parts of Europe, with orange pileus and lighter yellow stem and gills; but, unhappily, it is apt to be confounded with the very poisonous *Amanita* (q. v.) *muscaria*.

The COMMON M. is frequently cultivated both in the open garden and in houses or sheds. To grow it in the open garden, beds are prepared, generally of earth mixed with horse-dung, partly fresh and partly from old hotbeds, and are raised into ridges almost as high as broad. To grow it in houses, boxes are filled with alternate layers of half-rotten horse-dung and of straw, with a surface layer of fine manure. But of each of these methods there are many different modifications, none of which can here be detailed. In both, the production of mushrooms is sometimes left to the chance—often almost of a certainty—of spawn (*mycelium*) or spores existing in the dung or earth; sometimes, to increase the probability of a speedy and abundant crop, earth is introduced into the bed or box from a pasture known to be rich in mushrooms, and M. spawn is also frequently planted, which is either collected where mushrooms grow, or produced by artificial means, often appearing and being propagated extensively without the development of the M. itself. The almost certain production of M. spawn in heaps of slightly-fermenting horse-dung, straw, and earth, has been often urged as an argument in favor of the equivocal generation of fungi, but the minuteness and multitude of the spores may more reasonably be urged on the opposite side.

MUSIC (Gr. *mousike*, from *mousa*, muse; Lat. *musica*), a combination or succession of sounds having the property of *pitch*, so arranged as to please the ear. The pleasure derived from music arises from its exciting agreeable sensations, and raising pleasing mental images and emotions. Apart from words, it expresses passion and sentiment, and linked to words, it loses its vagueness, and becomes a beautiful illustration of language.

The doctrine of musical sounds is based on the principles of Acoustics (q. v.). Sound is conveyed through elastic media by waves, not of alternate elevation and depression, but of alternate condensation and rarefaction, in which it is the form, the condition of the groups of particles that progresses, not each individual particle. When a series of vibrations recur on the ear at precisely equal intervals of time, following each other so closely that each cannot be separately distinguished, the result is a musical sound or note. The sound ceases to have a musical character when each pulsation is individually audible, as is the case when there are fewer than about sixteen beats in a second. The gravity or sharpness of the sound is called its pitch, and depends on the number of vibrations in a given time. A succession or progression of musical sounds following each other constitutes melody; the difference in pitch between any two of them is called an interval. Where two or more musical sounds, whose relative pitch is properly proportioned, are heard simultaneously, the result is a chord, and a succession of chords constitutes harmony.

When a vibration is communicated to a string stretched between two points, the result is a musical note, whose pitch is dependent on the length of the string and the degree of tension applied to it; the shorter the string, and the greater the tension, the higher is the pitch. If the string be divided in the middle, the tension re-

maining the same, the note produced is twice as high in pitch, and is called the octave to the note produced by the whole string. Every vibration of the one corresponds to two of the other, and there is between a note and its octave a far closer relation than between any two other notes; they go together almost as one sound, and are considered to a great extent as one musical sound. In the diatonic scale, familiar to every correct ear, there are six notes, bearing certain harmonic relations to the fundamental note, interposed between it and its octave; and as we ascend, the notes arrange themselves in similar successions of sevens, each set an octave higher, or double the pitch of that which preceded it. The seven notes are designated by the names of the first seven letters of the alphabet, the same letter being used for any note and its octave. For another notation also in use, see SOLMIZATION. Taking C for the fundamental note, we have for our scale

C D E F G A B C D E F G A B C, &c.

The scale may be extended up or down indefinitely, so long as the sounds obtained continue to be musical. The satisfaction and sense of completeness which the diatonic scale gives the ear, arise from its being founded on correct harmonic principles. The quality called harmony is produced by a coincidence of vibrations: notes are more harmonious the oftener their waves coincide. Besides the octave, two of whose waves coincide with one of the fundamental, there are other intervals harmonious, though in a less degree. Dividing our string into three parts instead of two, we have a note higher than the octave, which may be lowered by an octave by making the string two-thirds of the original length, and produces a wave of which three coincide with two of the fundamental. Next to the octave, this note stands in the most intimate relation to the fundamental; it is called the dominant. Dividing the string by five, and lowering the note two octaves, another harmonic is got, called the mediant. In contradistinction from both these, the fundamental note (or any of its octaves) is called the tonic or key-note. C being taken as the key-note, E is the mediant, and G the dominant. These three notes, when struck simultaneously, form the harmonic triad, and stand to each other in the relation of 1, 5-4, 3-7 (numbers indicating the number of vibrations, which are inversely as the length of the string) or, reducing fractions to integers, in the relation of 4, 5, 6. When a musical string is vibrating, these sounds are heard on close observation more or less distinctly vibrating along with it, the cause being a spontaneous division of the string into aliquot parts, producing subordinate vibrations simultaneously with the principal vibrations. But the dominant may in its turn be the tonic from which another triad of tonic, mediant, and dominant is taken, forming a scale of triads extending indefinitely up and down, and it is from three such adjacent triads that the diatonic scale originates. Its elements are the triad of the tonic united with the triads which stand in the most intimate relation to it—viz., those immediately above and below it—

F A C, C E G, G B D.

F is the note whose dominant is C (the tonic), and therefore, in respect of C, it is called the subdominant. A is the mediant of the subdominant F, and therefore called the submediant. D is the dominant of the dominant, and is called the supertonic. B, the mediant of the dominant, is called the leading note. We have seen that the notes of each triad stand to each other in the relation of 4, 5, 6. Preserving this proportion, and multiplying to avoid fractions, we have

F A C E G B D  
as 16, 20, 24, 30, 36, 45, 54

We must multiply F and A by 2, and divide D by 2, to bring them within the compass of an octave, and then we have

C D E F G A B C  
as 24, 27, 30, 32, 36, 40, 45, 48

These are the degrees of the Diatonic Scale, which are indicated by the white keys of the pianoforte, as in the following figure.

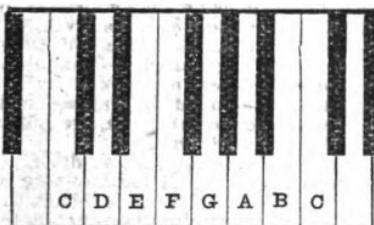
The interval CD is commonly called a second; CE, a third; CF, a fourth; CG, a fifth; CA, a sixth; and CB, a seventh; CC being, as already seen, an eighth or octave—names corresponding to the position of the notes on the key board or in the

diatonic scale, but having no relation to the proper proportional numbers already given. The intervals of the third, fifth, and sixth (counting from the key-note), owing to the more intimate harmonic relation of the notes between which they lie, afford more satisfaction to the ear than the others, or are, as it is called, the most perfectly consonant intervals. Intervals may be counted from any note as well as the tonic. DF is called a third as well as CE, although these intervals are unequal. We may have intervals beyond the octave; they are, however, substantially but repetitions of those below, CD, a ninth, being also, a second, and so on.

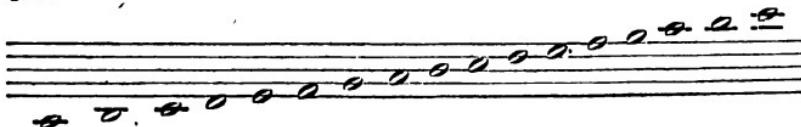
It is often desirable in the course of a musical composition to change the key-note, which involves the formation of a diatonic scale on some other note than C, in which case we are said to modulate from one key into another. As the intervals CD, DE, EF, &c., are by no means all equal, the notes which we have already got will not do for a scale founded on any other tonic than C. The ratios of the intervals in the diatonic scale, expressed in numbers by logarithms, are :

|    |    |    |    |    |    |    |   |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|---|
| C  | D  | E  | F  | G  | A  | B  | C |
| 61 | 46 | 28 | 51 | 46 | 51 | 28 |   |

At first sight it would appear that in keyed instruments there must be a separate row of keys for each tonic, but practically this is found not to be necessary. If D instead of C be taken as key-note, E, G, and A are some approach to the correct second, fourth, and fifth, but F and C are greatly too low in pitch for a proper third and seventh. With some notes taken as key-note, the correspondence is greater, with others it is less. The difficulty is overcome by a system of compromises called Temperament (q. v.). Roughly speaking, we have in the diatonic scale an alternation of two long intervals, a short interval, three long intervals, and a short interval. The long intervals 51 and 46 are styled tones, and the short interval 28 a semitone. Were the tones all equal, and the semitone exactly half a tone, a note interposed in the middle of each tone, dividing the seven intervals into twelve, would make it immaterial where the scale began. A system founded on this supposition is the remedy actually adopted in most keyed instruments, and the inaccuracy produced by this compromise is not sufficiently great to offend the ear.



The interposed notes indicated by the black keys of the pianoforte (see fig.), complete what is called the chromatic scale, consisting of twelve intervals approximately equal.



The notes of music are represented in ordinary notation on a series of five parallel lines, called the staff. On these lines, and in the four spaces between them, marks are placed indicating the notes, which are counted upwards, beginning with

the lowest line. Every line or space is called a degree, the staff consisting of nine degrees.

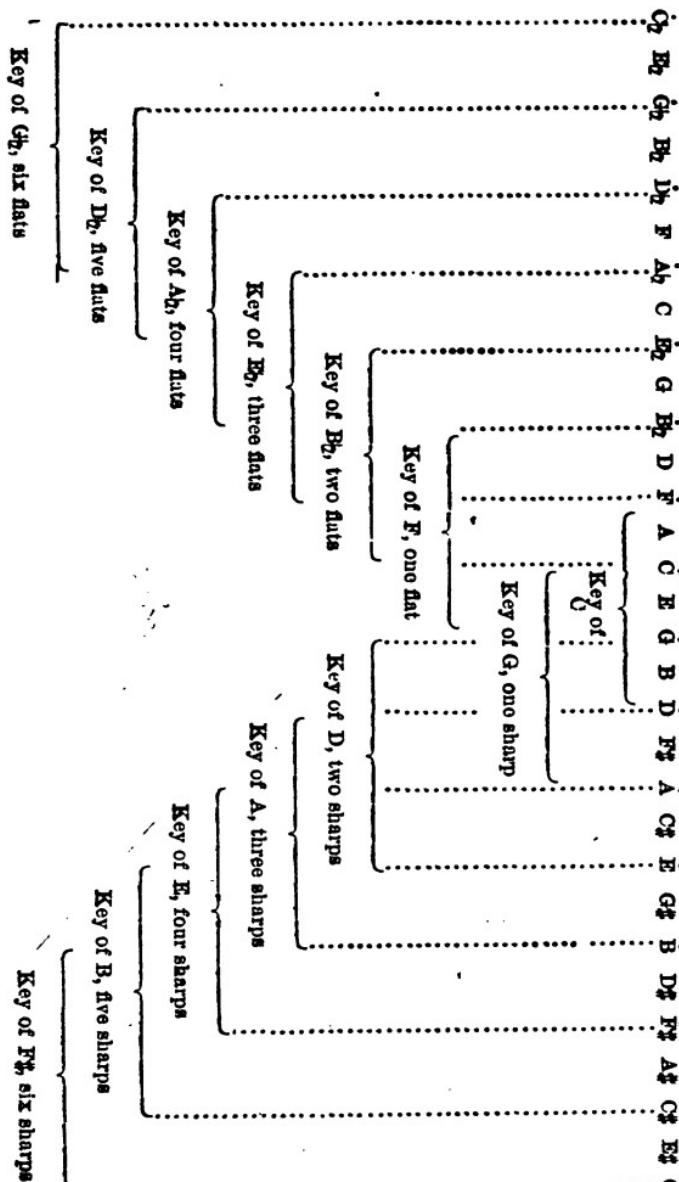
When more than nine notes are required, the spaces below and above the staff are used, and the scale is extended by means of short added lines, called leger lines. The pitch of the notes on the scale is determined by a figure called a clef, (*clavis*, a key), placed at the beginning of the staff on a particular note, from which all the others are counted. The clefs most in use are the bass, tenor, and treble clefs, represented on the notes F, C, and G respectively (see CLEF). The treble and bass clefs only are used in music for keyed instruments, and when a staff is required for each hand, they are joined together by a brace, the upper staff for the right hand, the lower for the left. The ascending scale in these clefs is as follows:

These notes correspond with the white keys of the pianoforte or the diatonic scale when C is key-note, no allowance being made for the black keys, which, as we have seen, divide the tones into semitones. Those semitones which do not occur with C as key-note are represented by the signs  $\sharp$  (sharp) and  $\flat$  (flat). The sign  $\sharp$ , prefixed to a note, elevates it a semitone in the scale, raising, for example, F to F sharp.  $\flat$  lowers the note by a semitone, depressing B to B flat. When a note which has been elevated by a sharp, or depressed by a flat, is to be restored to its original place, the character  $\natural$  (natural) is prefixed to it.

The names of the intervals correspond to the degrees of the staff, but it has been seen that intervals of the same name are not necessarily equal. If the sign of a flat or a sharp be prefixed to either note of an interval, it still preserves its name of a third, a fifth, &c.; but to distinguish intervals of the same degree, the qualifying epithets of major and minor, augmented and diminished, are used.

The different keys in music are best understood by reverting to the scale of triads, on which the diatonic scale is founded. Taking a series of triads, of which the dominant of each is the key-note of the next, we obtain the following scale, extended both upwards and downwards from C:

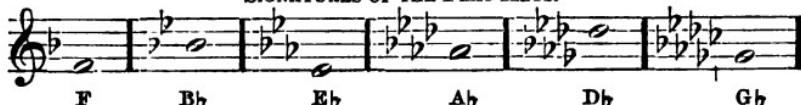
Each triad is composed of the key-note, its mediant, and dominant, and the scale of each key is composed of the triad of the key-note, with the triad immediately preceding and that immediately following it. Each key is succeeded by the key of its dominant, and if we begin with the key of C (in the middle of the scale), each key acquires an additional sharp till we reach the key of F $\sharp$  with six sharps. These are the sharp keys. If, beginning again with the key of C, we go back instead of forward in the scale of triads, we obtain the flat keys; each key has an additional flat to that above it, till we come down to the key of G $\flat$  with six flats. This key in instruments with temperament is exactly the same with that of F $\sharp$ , and on this account it is not generally found convenient to extend the keys beyond six, or at most seven, sharps or flats. G $\sharp$  with seven sharps is the same as D $\flat$  with five flats, and C $\flat$  with seven flats is the same as B with five sharps. In music written in these keys, double sharps and double flats occur, which are indicated by the characters  $\times$  and  $\flat\flat$  respectively. In writing music in any key with sharps or flats, it is usual, instead of prefixing the sharp or flat to each note when required, to place the sharps and flats belonging to the key together after the clef, on the degree to which they belong, and such collections of sharps or flats are called the signature.



## SIGNATURES OF THE SHARP KEYS.



## SIGNATURES OF THE FLAT KEYS.



A sharp or flat introduced in a composition which does not appear in the signature, is prefixed to the note, and called an accidental.

The diatonic scale and keys above described belong to what is called the major mode; there is also another mode in use called the minor mode. In the minor, as in the major mode, the diatonic scale and the keys are based on the scale of triads. Each of the triads already considered consists of two unequal intervals, called a major third and minor third. Supposing we begin with the minor instead of the major third, we have a succession of chords taking their minor third from one triad and their major third from another. These compound cords are called minor triads. Their proportion is as 10, 12, 15, and out of three such consecutive minor triads the scale of the minor mode is constructed.

D F A C E G B  
80, 96, 120, 144, 180, 216, 270

Multiplying D and F by 2, and dividing B by 2, to bring the whole within the compass of an octave, we have:

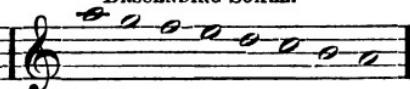
A B C D E F G A  
120, 135, 144, 160, 180, 192, 216, 240.

The scale here represented is what is known as the descending scale of the minor mode. When the seventh of the scale ascends to the eighth, it becomes sharp, as the proper leading note or sharp seventh to the tonic. This sharp is, however, always omitted from the signature, and placed accidentally before the seventh which it is to elevate. In order to avoid the harsh interval of the augmented second (from F to G#), it is usual in the ascending scale to make the sixth sharp also, in order to accommodate the seventh; thus the ascending or accidental scale of the minor mode has two notes altered from the signature.

## ASCENDING SCALE.



## DESCENDING SCALE.



Each minor scale is called the relative minor to the major scale on its right hand in the scale of triads, with which it has the same signature: thus the relative minor scale to C major is that of A minor.

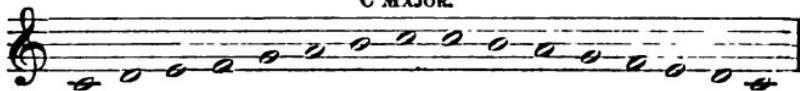
C major      F A C E G B D

A minor      D F A C E G B

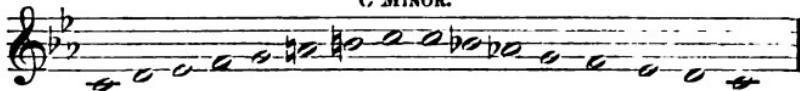
Each minor scale is also called the tonic minor to the major scale on the same key note, from which it differs in flattening the third of its tonic, and in the descending

scale also the third of its subdominant and dominant. The tonic minor scale to C major is C minor.

## C MAJOR.



## C MINOR.

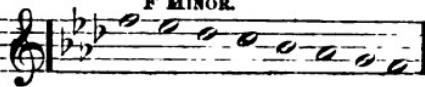


As the descending scale regulates the signature, each tonic minor has three flats more, or three sharps less in its signature than its tonic major.

## F MAJOR.



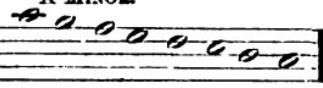
## F MINOR.



## A MAJOR.



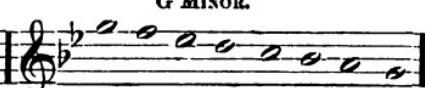
## A MINOR.



## G MAJOR.



## G MINOR.



In this last example, F $\sharp$ , B $\flat$ , and E $\sharp$  are all considered sharps in contrast with F $\flat$ , B $\sharp$ , and E $\flat$  of the minor scale.

*Rhythm.*—In musical notation, the relative duration of notes is indicated by their form. Notes may be open or close; they may consist of a head only, or of a head and stem. Where there is a stem, it may be turned up or down, according to convenience. The semibreve, the longest note in ordinary music, is open, and consists of a head only (O). The minim is an open note with a stem, half the length of a semibreve (P); the crotchet is a close note with a stem, half the length of a minim (F); the quaver is a close note with a stem and hook, half the length of a crotchet (C); a quaver is further divided into two semiquavers with two hooks (E); four demi-semiquavers with three hooks (B); and eight semi-demi-semiquavers with four hooks (A). In slow religious music, an open square note, called a breve (D), sometimes occurs. The semibreve is equivalent in time to two minims, four crotchets, eight quavers, sixteen semiquavers, thirty-two demi-semiquavers, and sixty-four semi-demi-semiquavers. The notes formed with hooks may be grouped

together [Musical staff showing a group of eighth notes with stems pointing up and down]. In vocal music this is not done except

when a group is to be sung to one syllable. When a dot is placed after a note  $\text{F}^{\cdot}$  it is lengthened by one-half; when two dots,  $\text{F}^{\cdot\cdot}$  it is lengthened by three-fourths.

Every piece of music is divided into portions equal in time, called measures, which are separated from each other by vertical lines called bars. The term bar is often loosely used to denote the measure as well as the line. The exact length of the measure is indicated by a sign at the beginning of the movement. In common

time, indicated by the sign  each measure includes a semibreve, or its equivalent made up in notes of lower value:

 All

other measures of time have for their signatures two figures placed as a fraction, one over the other. The figures of the denominator are either 2, 4, 8, or 16, which stand for minims, crotchets, quavers, and semiquavers respectively (i. e., halves, fourths, &c. of a semibreve); the numerator indicates the number of these fractional parts of a semibreve contained in each measure. There is another form of common time besides that already noticed, which is called half-time, has a minim or

two crotchets in the measure, and is known by the signature  i. e., two



When there are three minims, crotchets, or quavers in a measure, the piece is said to

be in triple time, its signature being   or .



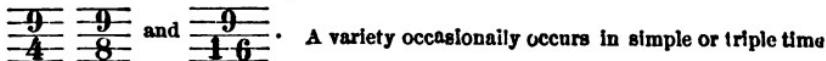
When two or more measures of triple time are united in one measure, the movement is said to be in compound common time. Its usual forms are indicated by

the signatures  and  . In the first, there are three submeasures of three

crotchets; in the second, two submeasures of three quavers—.



Compound triple time occurs where there are nine notes in a measure, either crotchets, quavers, or semiquavers, grouped in three. Its signatures are—



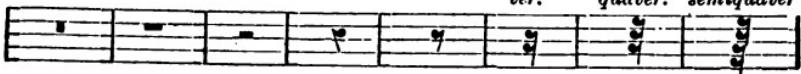
by the measure note being divided into three, or even five or seven, instead of two parts, which are grouped together, sometimes with the figure 3, 5, or 7, placed



The object of the division of musical passages into measures is to indicate their rhythm, a quality forming an essential element in the pleasure derived from music. Notes of music, like words or syllables, are accented or unaccented. The principal accent is given to the first note of a measure. Of the four measure notes in common time, the third has also a subordinate accent, as has the third measure note in triple time. There are occasions when a strong accent, or emphasis as it is called, is laid on the part of the measure which is usually unaccented; this the composer indicates by the Italian terms *rinforzando*, *aforzato*, abbreviated *rinf.*, *af.*

When in the course of a movement silence is required for a time, this is indicated by a rest or rests corresponding to that time; the breve, semibreve, minim, &c., have each their respective rests, which are represented as follows:—

*Breve. Semibreve. Minim. Crotchet. Quaver. Semiquaver. Demi-semi-quaver. Semi-demi-quaver. semi-semiquaver*

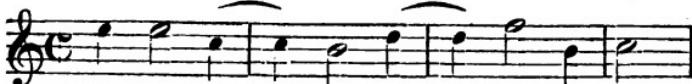


A rest may, like a note, be dotted to indicate the addition of half to its length.

The double bar  consists of two strong vertical lines, placed at the end of

a musical composition, and also at other parts (not necessarily coincident with the end of a measure) where a strain or rhetorical division of a movement terminates. When dotted on one side, all the measures on the side with the dots are to be repeated from the beginning, or from the antecedent double bar.

A tie is an arch placed between two notes on the same degree, to indicate that instead of the two notes written, one note is to be played of the length of both. When the last note of one measure is thus connected with the first of the next measure, the former, though naturally the unaccented note, acquires the emphasis—



When the same arch is drawn over two or more notes not in the same degree, it is

called a slur, and merely indicates that they are to be played smoothly or fluently



When notes are to be played short, distinct, and detached (*staccato*), a dot is placed over them. A dash implies a greater, and the union of dot and slur a less degree of staccato—



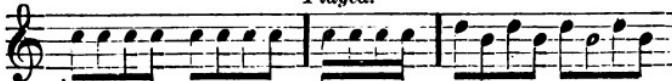
The pause  $\overline{\smash{\overset{\cdot}{\phantom{.}}}}$  placed over a note indicates a delay in the time of the movement, and a continuance of the sound made on that part of the measure.

The various degrees of softness and loudness which occur in a piece of music are indicated by the letter *f* for *forte*, loud; *p* for *piano*, soft, also *pp* for *pianissimo*, very soft; *mf* for *mezzo forte*, rather loud, and *ff* for *fortissimo*, very loud. A gradual increase of loudness is denoted by the word *crescendo*, or the sign  $<$ ; and a diminution from loud to soft by the word *diminuendo*, or the contrary sign  $>$ . Many other expressions are used in the body of written music, indicating slowness, quickness, and the character of execution. The most important of them are explained under separate articles—as are the various musical graces or embellishments known under the names of the Appoggiatura, Beat, Shake, and Turn. Among abbreviations in frequent use are a line drawn over or under a semibreve, or through the stem of a minim or crotchet, to divide it into quavers; or a double line, to divide it into semiquavers. Two minims may be connected to indicate their repetition as quavers. Thus—

*Written.*



*Played.*



**Harmony.**—We have mentioned that when a string is struck, its harmonics are more or less distinctly heard along with it. This arises from the string spontaneously

1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    9    10



neously dividing itself into aliquot parts—as one-half, one-third, one-fourth, one-fifth, one-sixth, one-seventh, &c., of the string. The numbers 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, express-

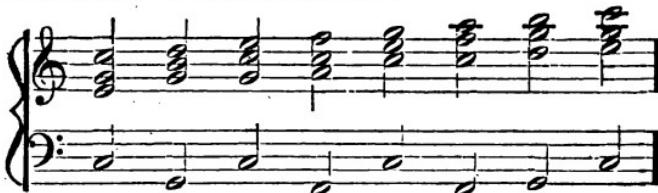
ing the relative number of vibrations in a given time, are a measure of the pitch of the note, and placed proportionally to one another, or in the form of a fraction, they are a measure of the interval. The prime numbers 2, 3, 5, and 7, and their compounds, constitute the harmonics of a musical sound; no division by a higher prime number is tolerable to the ear along with the fundamental note, and no sound corresponding to such division is audible in the vibrations of a string.

The degrees of the harmonic scale consist of intervals decreasing in a geometrical ratio from the octave to the minor tone, viz.—

|                    |                     |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1 : 2 Octave.      | 6 : 7 Grave third.  |
| 2 : 3 Fifth.       | 7 : 8 Tone maximus. |
| 3 : 4 Fourth.      | 8 : 9 Tone major.   |
| 4 : 5 Major third. | 9 : 10 Tone minor.  |
| 5 : 6 Minor third. |                     |

Other intervals more or less consonant are to be found in the harmonic scale, of which the most important is 4 : 7, the grave seventh. From this scale is derived the triad, which we have seen to be the foundation of the diatonic scale, and also the whole theory of chords.

The first five notes of the harmonic scale are the component parts of the major common chord, by far the most consonant chord that can be produced by five notes. Neglecting octaves, its essential notes are the major triad, C E G, or 4, 5, 6, which, as already seen, consists of a fifth divided harmonically into major third and minor third. The root on which a chord is formed, or the note by whose division into aliquot parts the notes of the chord are produced, is called its fundamental bass, and the fundamental bass of the triad C E G is C. The common chord is the triad with the addition of the octave of the root; its proportions are 4, 5, 6, 8. Every key contains within itself two other triads besides that of the key-note—viz., those of the subdominant and dominant, which have the subdominant and dominant of the key-note respectively for their fundamental basses; and the feeling of satisfaction produced by the diatonic scale arises out of the fact, that its notes belong to a progression of chords formed on a fundamental bass suggested by the ear. This fundamental bass is here indicated on the lower staff.—



The relative position of the notes of a chord, and consequently its intervals, may be altered by raising one or more of them an octave; and, on the whole, the nearer the intervals approach to their position in the harmonic scale, the purer is the harmony. Close, in contradistinction to dispersed harmony, is when the notes of a chord are so near that no component note could be placed between them. When the fundamental bass of a chord ceases to be its lowest note, the chord is said to be

inverted. Thus

and

are inversions of the common chord,

but not

, where the fundamental bass is still the lowest note.

The minor triad is, as we have seen, a compound chord, whose ratio is 20, 24, 30, taking its minor third from the triad below, and its major third from the triad above. Its fundamental bass is the key-note. The minor mode has, like the major, three triads in each key—those of the tonic, subdominant, and dominant; and the minor common chord admits of the same inversions as the major, by making the third or fifth the lowest note.

The first seven notes of the harmonic scale contain the chord next in consonance to the common chord, the chord of the seventh or dominant harmony. Rejecting octaves, it is the harmonic triad with the addition of the grave seventh, 4, 5, 6, 7, C E G B<sub>b</sub>, or G B D F, and admits of three inversions, according as the third, fifth, or seventh is taken instead of the root as the lowest note. This chord belongs to the key of which its fundamental note is the dominant; and in order to satisfy the ear, it requires to be followed by a resolution into the common chord of the key, or one of its inversions, the major third rising a semi-tone to the key-note, and the seventh descending one degree—



The dominant seventh note is flatter by an interval of 68, 64 than the subdominant of the key, though the two are not distinguishable on keyed instruments. The chord of the dominant seventh is the same in the tonic minor as in the major mode, but differs in its resolution, in respect that it descends a tone instead of a semitone



The dominant harmony affords numerous means of

modulating from one key to another. For example, the addition of a dominant seventh, to the common chord of a key, effects a modulation into the key of the

sub-dominant In modulating into the key of the

dominant, the supertonic bears the dominant harmony, and becomes dominant of



For other modulations we must refer to

works on the theory of music.

The following more complex harmonies are also in general use—



1. the chord of the added ninth, consisting of the dominant harmony (its root generally omitted) with the fifth of the adjacent triad above. 2, 3, and 4. the different forms of the added sixth, or chord of the subdominant. 3 is the triad of the subdominant, with the third of the adjacent triad below, or rather its octave; 3 is

the triad of the subdominant, minor mode, with the third of the adjacent triad below; and 4, the same triad with the third of the tonic major to the adjacent triad below. 5, the diminished seventh, a compound of the characteristic notes (B F) of the dominant harmony of the major mode with those (G ♯ D) of the relative minor. 6, 7, and 8, the augmented sixths, all dominant harmonies, resolving into the major tonic. 6, called the Italian sixth (F A D♯), is a compound of the characteristic notes (A D♯) of the dominant harmony of the minor mode (B D♯ F A) inverted, with the dominant seventh note (F) of the major triad (C E G) below for a bass; 7, the French sixth (F A B D♯), the same as the last, with the addition of the octave to the fundamental bass; 8, the German sixth (F A C D♯), compounded of the characteristic notes of the dominant harmony of the minor mode inverted, with the dominant sevenths of the major triads below and above.

All classical harmonies can be reduced to the chords enumerated, varied by inversions, omissions, suspensions, and pedal basses. A pedal bass or organ-point is a bass note sustained through a progression of chords, to only the first and last of which it is the proper bass. The pedal bass of the tonic is often used with the chord of the dominant seventh, the added ninth, and the diminished seventh, and occasionally with other chords: sometimes the pedal harmonies are taken on the dominant instead of the tonic, and the holding note sometimes occupies an upper part instead of the base—

A musical composition consists of a succession of notes or of chords subject to certain laws. Like discourse, music has its phrases, periods and punctuation. When a piece of music continues in the same key, it is said to move by progression, a term used in contradistinction to modulation, where the key is changed. Progression in music of two parts is of three kinds—oblique, when one part repeats or holds on the same note, while the other moves up and down; direct, where both parts move in the same way; and contrary, where one moves up, and the other down. Consecutive chords should in general be connected, either as having some note in common, or as being the chords of closely connected keys. There are certain chords which require a special resolution—i. e., they must be followed by certain other chords; and there are certain progressions which, from harshness, are in ordinary cases to be avoided, more particularly consecutive fifths, and consecutive octaves, the latter, however, being admissible when used merely to strengthen a part. Modulation is generally effected by introducing the chords common to both keys, and the secret of good modulation consists in the skilful choice of intermediate chords. Every regular piece of music is composed in a particular key, in which it begins and ends, and which predominates over all the other keys into which it has modulated. The keys into which a key most readily modulates, are those most nearly related to

It—viz., the dominant, the subdominant, and the relative and tonic major or minor. We have seen how modulation may take place by introducing the dominant harmony of the new key or one of its inversions, and in this way the entire harmonic circle of the keys can be made, either by ascending or descending fifths; but in order to effect this change, it will be necessary, on reaching the key of C<sup>#</sup>, with seven sharps, to substitute, by what is called an Euharmonic (q. v.) change, D<sub>b</sub> with five flats, or *vice versa*, which on instruments with temperament produces no real change on the pitch, but merely on the names of the notes.

The arrangement of chords which the ear naturally expects at the close of a strain is called a cadence; it corresponds in music to the period which closes a sentence in discourse. It is perfect when the harmony of the dominant precedes the harmony of the key-note, and imperfect when the harmony of the key-note precedes that of the dominant without its seventh.

The imperfect cadence is the most usual termination of a musical phrase, or short succession of measures containing no perfect musical idea. A portion of melody formed of two regular phrases, and containing a perfect musical idea, is called a section, and its regular termination is the perfect cadence.

## Perfect.

## Imperfect.



Music is produced by the human voice, and by a variety of artificial instruments. For the application of the voice to musical purposes, see SINGING. Musical instruments are classified as stringed instruments, wind instruments, and instruments of percussion. In some stringed instruments, as the pianoforte, the sounds are produced by striking the strings by keys; in others, as the harp and guitar, by drawing them from the position of rest. In a third class, including the violin, viola, violoncello, and double bass, the strings are put into vibration with a bow. In wind instruments, the sound is produced by the agitation of an enclosed column of air; some, as the flute, clarionet, oboe, bassoon, flageolet—instruments of wood, and the trumpet, horn, cornet-a-piston, &c., of metal, are played by the breath; in others, as the organ, harmonium, and concertina, the wind is produced by other means. In the two last-named instruments, the sound is produced by the action of wind on free vibrating springs or reeds. Instruments of percussion are such as the drum, kettle-drum, cymbals, &c. The chief peculiarities of the more important musical instruments are noticed in special articles.

Musical compositions are either for the voice, with or without instrumental accompaniment, or for instruments only. Of vocal music, the principal forms may be classed as church music, chamber music, dramatic music, and popular or national music. The first includes plain song, faux-bourdon, the chorale, the anthem, the sacred cantata, the mass and requiem of the Roman Catholic Church, and the oratorio. Vocal chamber music includes cantatas, madrigals, and their modern successors, glees, as also recitatives, arias, duets, trios, quartets, choruses, and generally all forms, accompanied or unaccompanied, which are chiefly intended for small circles. Dramatic music comprehends music united with scenic representation in a variety of ways, in the ballet, the melodrama, the vaudeville, and the opera, in which last, music supplies the place of spoken dialogue. Instrumental music may be composed for one or for more instruments. The rondo, the concerto, the sonata, and the fantasia generally belong to the former class; to the latter, symphonies and overtures for an orchestra, and instrumental chamber music, including duets, trios, quartets, and other compositions for several instruments, where each takes the lead in turn, the other parts being accompaniments. These and other forms of composition will be found noticed separately.

*History of Music.*—A certain sort of music seems to have existed in all countries and at all times. Even instrumental music is of a very early date: representations of musical instruments occur on the Egyptian obelisks and tombs. The music of the Hebrews is supposed to have had a defined rhythm and melody. The Greeks numbered music among the sciences, and studied the mathematical proportions of sounds. Their music, however, was but poetry sung, a sort of musical recitation or intoning, in which the melodic part was a mere accessory. The Romans borrowed their music from the Etruscans and Greeks, and had both stringed instruments and wind instruments.

The music of modern Europe is a new art, with which nothing analogous seems to have existed among the nations of antiquity. The early music of the Christian Church was probably in part of Greek, and in part of Hebrew origin. The chorale was at first sung in octaves and unisons. St Ambrose and Gregory the Great directed their attention to its improvement, and under them some sort of harmony or counterpoint seems to have found its way into the service of the church. Further advances were made by Guido of Arezzo, to whom notation by lines and spaces is due, but the ecclesiastical music had still an uncertain tonality and an uncertain rhythm. Franco of Cologne, in the 13th c., first indicated the duration of notes by diversity of form. The invention of the organ, and its use in accompanying the chorale, had a large share in the development of harmony. Along with the music of the church, and independently of it, a secular music was making gradual advances, guided more by the ear than by science; it seems to have had a more decided rhythm, though not indicated as yet by bars. The airs which have become national in different countries were developments of it, but it had its chief seat in Belgic Gaul; and the reconciliation of musical science with musical art began in Flanders by Josquin Desprez in the 15th c., was completed in the 17th c. by Palestrina and his school at Rome, and reacted eventually on the ecclesiastical style. The opera, which appeared nearly contemporaneously with the Reformation and revival of letters, greatly enlarged the domain of music. Italy advanced in melody, and Germany in harmony. Instrumental music occupied a more and more prominent place. Corelli's compositions exalted the violin. Lulli and Rameau, with their ballet-like music, seized the characteristics of French taste, till the German Glück drove them out of the field. The scientific and majestic fugue reached its highest perfection under J. S. Bach. The changes introduced in ecclesiastical music in England at the Restoration gave birth to the school of Purcell; and a little later, England adopted the German Handel, who was the precursor of Haydn, Mozart, Beethoven, Spohr, and Mendelssohn. The principal fact in recent musical history is the movement with which the name of Wagner is connected, having for its aim the production and perfection of a true musical drama, in which, unlike the opera, the words and music shall be of equal importance.

See Pepusch's "Treatise on Harmony," Calcolt's "Musical Grammar," Hawkins' and Burney's "History of Music," Marx's "Allgemeine Schule der Musik," Brun's "Elements of Musical Science," and Chambers's "Information for the People," Nos. 96-97 (1875).

**MUSIC RECORDER.** Many forms of apparatus have been invented for writing down music in a legible form by the very act of playing it on a keyed instrument, such as the pianoforte or organ. Beginning with 1747, various attempts had been made to effect this object, when, in 1863, Mr Fenby invented and patented his *Phonograph*, in which he brought in the aid of electro-magnetism. His chief aim, as an improvement on previous apparatus, was to devise a method of denoting the length of the notes, as well as their pitch and the interval between them. On pressing down any key of the instrument, a stud on the under side touches a spring; the spring sets in action a small electro-magnetic apparatus, which causes a tracer to pass against a strip of paper moving onward at a uniform rate by means of a cylinder and clockwork. The paper is chemically prepared, so as to receive a brown stain whenever the tracer passes along its surface. The length of each note is expressed by horizontal dashes of greater or less length, made by the tracer; and the arrangement is such as to denote the lines of the stave as well as the character of the note. By subsidiary adjustments, the apparatus is made to express accidental sharps and flats, changes of time, &c.

The Abbé Moigno's *Phonautograph*, introduced to the British Association in

1860, is a contrivance—not for noting down sounds in any kind of musical notation—but for causing a vibrating surface to tell its number and character of vibrations. A kind of spheroidal drum is covered at one end with a diaphragm or stretched membrane; a sheet of paper is carried along this drum-head by means of clock-work; and a system of small levers moves a pen. A tuning-fork, an organ-pipe, or the voice is sounded in proximity to the drum, the body of air within which acts as a reinforcement of the sound; the membrane vibrates in a manner which can be *felt* by the pen, although not seen by the eye; and the pen makes zigzag markings on the paper. When the sound is produced by a tuning-fork or an organ-pipe, the zigzag lines are so regular that they serve to count the number of vibrations belonging to each particular note. When the sound is that of a singing voice, the markings become very peculiar, especially in such words as contain the gutturals *r, g, &c.*

**MUSK**, or Musk Deer (*Moschus moschatus*), a ruminant quadruped, the type of the family *Moschidae*. This family differs from *Cervidae* (Deer) in the want of horns, and in the long canines of the males, projecting beyond the lips. The M. is an inhabitant of the elevated mountainous regions and table-lands of Central Asia. The habits of the M. are very similar to those of the Chamois. Its favorite haunts are the tops of pine-covered mountains, but its summer range extends far above the region of pines. Its habits are nocturnal and solitary, and it is extremely timid. It is much pursued by hunters on account of its odoriferous secretion, which has been known in Europe since the 8th c., and is much valued as a perfume. This secretion, *musk*, is produced in a glandular pouch situated in the hinder part of the abdomen of the males; and its natural use seems to be that of increasing sexual attractiveness. The musk-bag is formed by an unfolding of a portion of the skin of the belly, within which a number of membranes are contained, and between these membranes are glands by which the musk is secreted. When newly taken from the animal, musk is soft and almost resembles an ointment; it is reddish-brown, and has an excessively powerful odor. Very little of it reaches Europe unadulterated.—Musk is usually imported either in the form of *grain-musk*, that is, the musk which has been collected chiefly from stones upon which it has been deposited by the animal, in which state it is a coarse powder of a dark-brown color; or in the *pod*, that is, in the musk-sac, which is cut altogether from the animal, and dried with the musk inside. Of both kinds the annual importations are about 15,000 ounces per annum, chiefly from China and India. Small quantities are used in medicine, but the greater portion is employed by the perfumers. It is imported in small boxes or catties, often covered with bright-colored silk, and each containing 25 pods. The kinds generally known in trade are the Tonquin or Chinese, which is worth two guineas an ounce in the pod, or £3, 10s. per ounce in grain; and the Cabardine, Kabardine, or Siberian, which is always imported in pod, and is very inferior, being only worth about 15s. an ounce.

The flesh of the M. is sometimes eaten, but has a very strong flavor. The season of migration from the highest and coldest to more temperate regions, is that at which the M. is chiefly pursued.—No other animal of the family *Moschidae* yields the perfume called musk, or has more than a rudimentary musk-bag. The other species of *Moschidae* belong to the genus *Tragulus*, and receive the popular name *Chevrotain*. They have a very elongated muzzle; and the accessory hoofs assume the form of oppressed conical claws. They inhabit the thick woody copses or jungles of the Indian Islands, and are the smallest of ruminant quadrupeds. Some of them are not larger than a hare. Their tusks are not so long as those of the Musk. One of them, the *Napu* of Java and Sumatra, has the smallest blood corpuscles of any known animal.

**MUSK DUCK** (*Cairina moschata*), a species of duck, of the non-oceanic section of *Anatidae* (see DUCK); of a genus characterised by an elevated tubercle at the base of the bill, the edges of the mandibles sinuated, the face and lores covered with a bare tuberculated skin, the wings furnished with a knob or spur at the bend. The M. D., or **Muscovy Duck**—so called, however, through mistake, and receiving its name M. D. more appropriately from its musky smell—is a native of the warm parts of America. It is very plentiful in Guiana, in that part of the year when winter reigns in the north. It is a larger bird than the common duck, in its wild state

almost black, with glosses of blue and green, and white wing-coverts, but varies considerably in domestication. It is often to be seen in poultry-yards in Britain, but is rather curious than profitable. It hybridises readily with the common duck, but the hybrid is sterile.—The M. D. of Australia is a very different species belonging to the genus *Diziura*.

MUSK OX (*Bos moschatus*, or *Oribos moschatus*), an animal of the family *Bovidæ*, regarded as a connecting-link between oxen and sheep. It inhabits the most northern parts of America, enduring the winter even of Melville Island and Banks' Land; but, like many other animals, it is partially migratory, some individuals or herds seeking more southern regions and better pastures on the approach of winter, whilst some remain in the furthest north. It is not found in Greenland, Spitzbergen, or Siberia. The M. O. is scarcely equal in size to the smallest of Highland cattle, but appears larger from the profusion of long matted woollen hair with which it is covered, and which hangs almost to the ground. The head is covered with long hair as well as the body, the face alone having short hair. Beneath the long hair there is a thick coat of exquisitely fine wool. The head is large and broad; the forehead convex; the extremity of the muzzle hairy. The horns are very broad at the base, and in the male meet on the forehead; they do not rise but bend down on each side of the head, and curve outwards and upwards towards the tip, which tapers to a sharp point. They are about two feet long measured along the curvature; and about two feet in girth at the base; a pair of them sometimes weighing sixty pounds. The limbs are short, the legs have short hair. The tail is very short, and is covered with long hair, so that it is undistinguishable to the sight. The general color is brown. The female is smaller than the male, has shorter hair on the chest and throat, and smaller horns. The frog of the hoof is short, and partially covered with hair; the foot-marks are very similar to those of the reindeer.

The M. O. feeds on grass, twigs, lichens, &c. It is fleet and active, very sure-footed on rocky ground, and ascends or descends very steep hills with great ease. It is gregarious; the herds generally number thirty or forty. The powerful horns are excellent weapons of defence against wolves and bears, which are often not only repelled but killed. When musk oxen are assailed by firearms, however, they generally huddle more and more closely together, and do not even seek safety by flight, so long as the assailants are unseen. The flesh is much prized by the Esquimaux, but retains much of the strong musky odor which characterises the living animal. The horns are used for various purposes; particularly the wide base for vessels. The fine wool has been spun and woven into a fabric softer than silk. No attempt has yet been made to domesticate the M. O.; which, however, seems worthy of it, and suitable for all cold regions.

MUSK PLANT, Musk Root, Musk Tree, Musk Wood. Different parts of a number of plants smell more or less strongly of musk. Among these are the common little Musk Plant (see *MIMULUS*), the Musk-tree of Van Diemen's Land (see *ASTER*), and the Musk Ocho (see *HIBISCUS*)—The musk-tree of Jamaica (*Moschoxylum Swartzii*) belongs to the natural order *Meliaceæ*. It emits from all parts a smell of musk.—All parts of *Guaera grandifolia*, another tree of the same order, a native of the West Indies, sometimes called musk wood, also smells strongly of musk, but particularly the bark, which is used in perfumery.—The drug called MUSK ROOT or SAMBUL is brought from the East, and is the root of a plant supposed to be of the natural order *Umbelliferae*; but the plant is unknown, nor is it certain whether its native country is Persia, or some more remote region of Central Asia. It has a pure musky odor, and is used as a substitute for musk.

MUSK RAT, or Desman (*Myagale* or *Galemys*), a genus of insectivorous quadrupeds of the Shrew (q. v.) family (*Sorecidæ*), differing from the true Shrews (*Sorex*) in having two very small teeth between the two large incisors of the lower jaw, and the upper incisors flattened and triangular. Behind these incisors are six or seven small teeth (lateral incisors or false canine teeth) and four jagged molars. The muzzle is elongated into a small flexible proboscis, which is constantly in motion. The eyes are very small; there are no external ears; the fur is long, straight, and divergent; the tail long, scaly, and flattened at the sides. All the feet have five toes, fully webbed; and the animals are entirely aquatic, inhabiting lakes and rivers, and making holes in the banks with the entrance from beneath the surface of the water.

Only two species are known, one (*M.* or *G. Pyrenaica*) about eight inches long, with tail as long as the body, a native of the streams of the Pyrenees; another larger species (*M.* or *G. moschata*), very plentiful in the Volga and other rivers and lakes of the south of Russia, nearly equal in size to the common hedgehog, with tail about three-fourths of the length of the body. The Russian desman is blackish above, whitish beneath; it has long silky hair, with a softer felt beneath, and its fur is held in some esteem. Desman skins, however, are chiefly valued on account of the musky odor which they long exhale, and which is derived from a fatty secretion produced by small follicles under the tail of the animal. The desman feeds on leeches, aquatic larvae, &c., searching for them in the mud by means of its flexible proboscis. It seldom, if ever, voluntarily leaves the water, except in the interior of its burrows, which are sometimes twenty feet long.

**MUSK RAT** (*Sorex murinus*), an Indian species of Shrew (q. v.), in size about equal to the common brown rat, in form and color much resembling the common shrew of Britain, but remarkable for the powerful musky odor of a secretion which proceeds from glands on its belly and flanks. This odor adheres most pertinaciously to any object with which the animal may come in contact, and provisions are often utterly spoiled by it. Even wine and beer are said to be spoiled by it, in spite of the glass and cork of the bottle; although the probability is much greater that it adheres to the outside of the bottle, and that the liquid is spoiled as it is poured out. One of the Indian names of this animal is *Sondeti*.

#### MUSK RAT. See MUSQUASH.

**MUSKET**, or Musquet (Fr. *mousquet*; from *mouchet*, a sparrow-hawk; in the same way that other shooting implements were named *falcon*, *falconet*, &c.), the firearm for infantry soldiers, which succeeded the clumsy harquebus, and in 1851 gave way before the Enfield rifle, which, in its turn, was converted into Snider's patent breech-loading rifle, now known as the Snider-Enfield; the latter arm, so far as the regular in infantry is concerned, has been replaced by the Martini-Henry breech-loader, but the navy, cavalry, and auxiliary forces still retain the Snider. The first muskets were matchlocks; after which came wheel-locks, aspahans or snap-hance, and flint muskets; and lastly, percussion muskets, which were a vast improvement, both for accuracy and lightness, on all which had gone before. Compared, however, to either the Enfield or Martini-Henry rifle, the musket, familiarly known as Brown Bess (possibly a corruption of Ger. *büchse*, a hollow tube or gun)—was a heavy, ugly, and ineffective weapon. The following is a table of the ranges attained, on an average, by the musket, the Enfield, and the Martini-Henry:

|  | Musket. | Enfield<br>Rifle. | Martini-<br>Henry Rifle. |
|--|---------|-------------------|--------------------------|
|  | yds.    | yds.              | yds.                     |
| Accurate fire.....                       | 100     | 600               | 1200                     |
| Effective against detached parties ..... | 150     | 800               | 1500                     |
| Effective against troops in column.....  | 200     | 1000              | 1800                     |

**MUSKETOON**, an obsolete weapon, was a short musket of very wide bore, carrying a ball of five ounces, and sometimes bell-mouthed like a blunderbuss.

**MUSKETRY**, Schools of. When the introduction of the Minaé rifle in the French service, and the subsequent arming of the British troops with the still more delicate Enfield rifle in 1851, brought the accuracy of a soldier's fire to be an important consideration in estimating his value (which with the old musket was not the case, as it was proverbial that the bullet never hit the point aimed at, however carefully), the English government at once saw the necessity of providing instruction in the manipulation of the rifle. Accordingly, instructors of musketry were attached to the troops, one to each regiment; and a school was established at Hythe in 1854, under the late General (then Colonel) Hay, where lessons on the theory of the arm, and practice in its actual employment, were the sole occupation of the day. Officers and promising men were sent there as fast as the accommodation permitted; and after a course of a few weeks were able to return to their corps, and become instructors to their comrades, so that the shooting of the whole army soon rose in a surprising degree. Whereas, before the establishment of this school, the English stood low in the scale of shooting, the competitions held during recent years at Wimble-

don have demonstrated that no nation can now excel them as marksmen. The formation of the volunteer corps, in 1859, led to a greatly increased demand for musketry instruction, which the government met by forming a second school of musketry at Fleetwood (now abandoned), where the troops and volunteers of Scotland, Ireland, and the northern English counties, found the necessary teaching. The Hythe school is superintended by a commandant and inspector-general of musketry instruction, with subordinate instructors. The inspector-general is responsible also for the instruction throughout the regiments all over the world, and to him the musketry returns from each regiment are sent annually.

MU'SLIN, a cotton fabric of Oriental origin, is said to have derived its name from the town of Mosul, in Mesopotamia, where this material was at one time very largely manufactured. At present no such trade exists there; and for muslins, of the common kinds at least, the Indian market depends upon the manufacturers of England and France. But no European manufacturer has ever been able to rival the wonderfully fine muslins of Dacca. This does not arise so much from the fineness of the yarn, although that too is very great, but from the marvellous fluency conjoined with a most delicate softness to the touch. The fineness of the yarn is so great, that until lately no machinery could produce anything like it; a piece of Dacca muslin, shewn in the International Exhibition (1862), was 81 feet in length by 3 feet in width, and contained in a square inch 104 warp threads and 100 weft threads, yet the entire piece weighed only 3½ ounces. A French manufacturer, M. Thivcl Michon of Tavare, has made a muslin of English yarn spun by the Messrs Houldsworth of Mauchester, which surpassed the finest Dacca in the excessive thinness of the yarn, but it wanted its delicate softness. Muslin is much less compact in its texture than calico, indeed it more nearly resembles gauze in appearance; but it is woven plain, without any twisting of the weft threads with those of the warp. The manufacture of muslins in Great Britain and France is very extensive, especially printed muslins, in which the patterns are produced by the same processes as in calico-printing. See WEAVING.

MU'SNUD, a Persian throne of state.

MUSOPHA'GIDÆ. See PLAIN-TAIL-BATER.

MU'SQUASH, Musk-Rat, or Ondatra (*Fiber zibethicus*), a rodent quadruped, a native of North America. It is the only known species of the genus to which it belongs, which is characterised by dentition similar to that of the voles; in some other characters more nearly agreeing with the beaver. The M. is in shape nearly similar to the brown rat; the head and body are about 15 inches in length, the tail ten inches. The whole body is covered with a short dawny dark-brown fur, intermixed with longer and coarser hairs. It is common in almost all parts of North America, from lat. 30° to lat. 69°, except in the southern alluvial districts. It is a very aquatic animal, seldom wandering from the rivers, lakes, or marshes in which it makes its abode. The fur is in demand, and forms an article of commerce—skins in large number being still exported from America to Britain and other European countries. The M. burrows in the banks of streams and ponds; the entrances of its burrows being always under water, so that it must dive to reach them. In marshes, the M. builds a kind of hut, collecting coarse grasses and mud, and raising the fabric from two to four feet about the water. The flesh of the M., at those seasons when it is fat, is in some request among the American Indians, and is said to be not unpalatable.

MUSSEL (*Mytilus*), a genus of lamellibranchiate molluscs, the type of the family *Mytilidae*, which, however, is much more restricted than the Linnean genus *Mytilus*. The *Mytilidae* belong to the division of *Lamellibranchiata*, called by Lamarck *Domyaria*, having two *adductor* muscles—muscles employed in closing the valves of the shell. The mantle has a distinct anal orifice; the foot is small; and there is a large *Byssus* (q. v.), which is divided into fibres to its base. The valves of the shell are equal; the hinge is destitute of teeth. Some, but few, of the species are found in fresh-water. See DREISSENA. Some (*Lithodomus*) burrow in stone. How they do it is utterly unknown, but they do burrow even in the hardest stone; and some small tropical species excavate for themselves holes in the shells of great limpets. The *Lithodomæ* are sometimes called *Date-shells*. Some of them are very beautiful,

which is the case also with the true mussels, after the epidermis is removed. Even the COMMON M. (*M. adulis*) then exhibits beautiful veins of blue. This species is very abundant on the British coasts, and is much used as bait by fishermen. It is gregarious, and is found in vast beds, closely crowded, adhering by the byssus to rocks, &c. These beds are usually uncovered at low-water. The shell is oblong; at its greatest size about three inches long, and an inch and a half broad. Mussels, when young, move about by means of the foot, with which they lay hold of objects and drag themselves along, until they find some suitable spot to anchor themselves by a byssus. If detached, they soon find another anchorage. In an aquarium they readily attach their byssus-threads even to the smooth glass, and the threads may be broken more easily than separated from the glass. An ingenious and important application of the strength of these threads has been made by the French, to render Cherbourg breakwater more secure by blinding the loose stones together, for which purpose it was *planted* with tons of mussels. The Common M. is much used as an article of food, and is generally found quite wholesome; yet it sometimes proves poisonous, particularly in spring and summer, either causing blotches, swellings, and an eruption, accompanied with asthma, or a kind of paralysis, and even sometimes producing delirium and death. For the FRESH-WATER MUSSLE, see that article.

MU'SSELBURGH, a small seaport and royal and parliamentary burgh of Scotland, in the county of Edinburgh, is situated at the mouth of the Esk, 6 miles east of Edinburgh. On the west side of the Esk is the fishing village of Fisherrow. Tanning, leather-dressing, and the manufacture of sailcloth, nets, and salt are carried on. The harbor of Fisherrow is frequented by coasting craft, and by small vessels from Holland and the Baltic. Timber, oil-cake, bark, seeds, and hides are imported; coal is the chief export. On the "links," a famous golfing ground, the Edinburgh races take place annually. M. unites with Leith and Portobello in sending a member to Parliament. Pop. (1871) 7517.

MUSSET, Louis Charles Alfred de, one of the foremost of recent French poets, was born at Paris, 11th Nov. 1810. He studied in succession medicine, law, finance, and painting; but finally, under the influence of the Romantic School (q. v.), devoted himself to poetry. The first work that attracted notice was "Les Contes d'Espagne et d'Italie" (1830), which by their elegant but audacious sensuousness gave deep offence. "Le Spectacle dans un Fauteuil" (1832) is a strange medley of contrasts. "Les Nuits" (1840), admittedly shew his lyrical power at its best. Many of the "Comédies et Proverbes" were popular on the stage; and M. wrote several prose romances. In 1852 he was admitted to the French Academy. He died at Paris, 2d May 1857. The exquisite beauty, tenderness, and power of much of M.'s work is continually marred by the morbid pessimism of a man prematurely old, disillusioned, blasé; on this very ground M. is often regarded as the representative poet of the modern Parisian.

MU'STANG. See HORSE.

MUSTARD (*Sinapis*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Cruciferae*, having yellow flowers, and linear or oblong pods, which terminate in a sword-shaped and compressed or 4-cornered beak, and contain one row of seeds. The seeds are globular, and their Cotyledons (q. v.) conduplicate.—The most important species is BLACK M. (*S. nigra*), an annual, which grows wild in fields and by waysides in the middle and south of Europe, and is not uncommon in the southern parts of Britain. Its pods are bluntly 4-angled, smooth, erect, and lie close to the stem, their valves 1-nerved; the leaves are smooth, the lower leaves lyrate, the upper leaves linear-lanceolate. The seeds are brownish black.—WHITE M. (*S. alba*), also a native of most parts of Europe, and of the southern parts of Britain, is an annual, having divergent pods covered with stiff hairs, the valves 5-nerved, the seeds yellowish, the leaves pinnatifid.—Both these species are cultivated in England and elsewhere, for their seeds, which are ground into powder and mixed with water, to make the well-known condiment called Mustard. The powder of the seeds is also much used in medicine as a rubefacient. The use of M. as a condiment is often found favorable to digestion. M. seeds depend for their purgancy on a principle which, when water is added to Black M., forms Volatile Oil of Mustard. (See next article.) There is also in the seeds a bland fixed oil, Oil of M., which is obtained from them by expression, and

constitutes about 28 per cent. of their weight. The cake which remains after the oil is expressed, is too acrid to be freely used for feeding cattle. It is Black M. which is chiefly cultivated, its seed being more pungent and powerful than that of White M.; but there is more difficulty in removing the skin of its seed than that of White M., which is therefore often preferred, but more in England than on the continent of Europe. M. requires a very rich soil. It is cultivated on the alluvial lands of the level eastern counties of England. Wisbeach, in Cambridgeshire, is the great M. market of England.—White M. is often sown in gardens and forced in hothouses, to be used in the seed-leaf as a small salad, having a pleasant pungency. It is also sometimes sown for feeding sheep, when turnip or rape has failed, being of very rapid growth, although inferior in quantity of crop.—WILD M., or CHARLOCK (*S. arvensis*), which is distinguished by turgid and knotty pods with many angles and longer than the two-edged beak, is a most troublesome annual weed in cornfields in Britain, often making them yellow with its flowers in the beginning of summer. Its seeds are said to have yielded the original *Durham M.*, and are still gathered for mixing with those of the cultivated species. The bland oil of the seeds is used for lamps.—PEKIN M. (*S. Pekinensis*) is an annual, very extensively cultivated in China, its leaves being used as greens. It is quite hardy in the climate of Britain.—INDIAN M. (*S. ramosa*) is extensively cultivated in India for its seeds, which are used as a condiment; as are those of *S. dichotoma* and *S. glauca*, also cultivated in India. The oil of the seeds is much used throughout India for lamps. HILL M. is a different genus, *Bunias* (q. v.).—The M. TREE of Scripture is supposed to be *Salvadora Persica*, a small tree of the natural order *Salvadoraceæ*, a small order allied to *Myrsinaceæ*. It abounds in many parts of the East. The seed has an aromatic pungency, and is used like mustard. The fruit is a berry with a pungent taste.

**Manufacture.**—The manufacture of M. as it was originally used in this country, and as it still is on the continent, consisted in simply grinding the seed into very fine meal. A false taste, however, arose for having an improved color, and the flour of mustard was introduced, in which only the interior portion of the seed is used, the husk being separated, as the bran is from wheaten flour. This causes a great loss of flavor, as the pungent oil, on which the flavor chiefly depends, exist in greatest abundance in the husk.—Hence other materials, such as capsicum powder, and other very pungent matters, are added to bring up the flavor, and wheaten flour and other substances are added to increase the bulk and lightness of color. Indeed, so many sophistications have been added, that the M. of the English tables can no longer be regarded in any other light than an elaborately compounded condiment, for which each manufacturer has his own particular recipe.

**MUSTARD, Oil of.** The seeds both of the black and the white mustard yield by expression a large quantity of a bland fixed oil, but they do not contain any essential or volatile oil ready formed. It is only the black mustard which by distillation yields the compound usually known as the oil or essence of mustard, and which is in reality sulphocyanide of ally (see GARLIC, OIL OF) contaminated with a little brown resinous matter, from which it may be freed by simple re-distillation.

When first obtained, it is a colorless fluid, which gradually becomes yellowish. It has a painfully pungent odor and acrid taste; and when applied to the skin, it speedily raises a blister. It is soluble in all proportions in alcohol, but dissolves very sparingly in water. In the article already referred to, it has been shewn that this oil and oil of garlic are naturally convertible into one another; in combination with ammonia it forms a compound which is termed *thiosinamine*, and which combines directly with acids like a true organic base. Its mode of formation is explained by the equation—



By digesting oil of mustard with alkalies, or with hydrated oxide of lead, we also obtain a feeble base termed *sinapoline*, whose formula is  $\text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{12}\text{N}_2\text{O}_2$ .

The oil is formed in much the same way as the Volatile Oil of Almonds (q. v.). The black mustard contains the potash salt of a compound termed *myronic acid*, and a peculiar coagulable nitrogenous ferment, which, when the crushed seed is moistened with water, act upon each other, and develop the oil. It is the gradual

formation of this oil, when powdered mustard and warm water are mixed, that occasions the special action of the common mustard poultice. The pungency of mustard as a condiment, of horse-radish, &c., is mainly due to the presence of this oil.

MUSTELIDÆ, a family of digitigrade Carnivora (q. v.), mostly forming the genus *Mustela* of Linneus; now divided into a number of genera, in which are ranked the weasel, ermine or stoat, sable, marten, ferret, polecat, mink, skunk, &c. The M. are distinguished by the elongated form of the body, and the shortness of the limbs; also by having generally four or five molars on each side in the upper jaw, and five or six in the lower. On each side of both jaws there is a single tuberculate tooth. All the feet have five toes. The skull is much elongated behind the eyes. The M. display great litheness and suppleness of movement. They are very carnivorous. Otters are ranked among the mustelidæ.

MUSTER (It. *mostrare*, from Lat. *monstrare*, to shew) is a calling over of the names of all the men composing a regiment or a ship's company. Each man present answers to his name, those not answering being returned as absent. —The muster-roll from which the names are called is the paymaster's voucher for the pay he issues, and must be signed by the commanding officer, the adjutant, and himself. The crime of signing a false master-roll, or of personating another individual at a muster, is held most severely punishable—by imprisonment and flogging for a common soldier, by immediate cashiering in the case of an officer. In regiments of the line, a muster is taken on the 24th of each month; in ships of war, weekly. The muster after a battle is a melancholy proceeding, intended to shew the casualties death has wrought. In early times, before the army was a standing force, and when each captain was a sort of contractor to the crown for so many men, the muster was most important, as the only security the sovereign had that he really obtained the services of the number of men for whom he paid. Accordingly, any fraud, as making a false return, or as mustering with his troop men not actually serving in it, was by the Articles of War of Henry V. made punishable with death for the second offence, and by Charles I. with death "without mercy" for even the first such crime; while any person abetting in any way in the fraud shared the penalty.

MUS'ULMAN, *Mosleman*, a Mohammedan (from Arab. *Salama*), equivalent to Moslem, of which word it is, properly speaking, the plural; used in Persian fashion for the singular. We need hardly add that this Arabic plural termination of "an," has nothing whatever to do with our word *man*, and that a further English plural in *men*, is both barbarous and absurd.

MUTE, a small instrument used to modify the sound of the violin or violoncello. It is made of hard wood, ivory, or brass, and is attached to the bridge by means of a slit, a leg of it being interjected between every two strings. The use of the mute both softens the tone, and imparts to it a peculiar muffled and tremulous quality, which is sometimes very effective. Its application is indicated by the letters, *c. s.*, or *con sordino*, and its discontinuance by *s. s.*, or *senza sordino*. The mute is sometimes used for the cornet, being inserted into the bell of the instrument, thereby subduing the sound, and producing the effect of great distance.

MU'TINY (Fr. *mutiner*, from *mutin*, "riots.") "Mutin" is connected with an old French *meule*, still seen in *émeule*, a "sedition," and is therefore from the Latin *moveare*, "to move" or "stir up." The supposition that the word is derived from the Latin *mutio*, a "muttering," is a mistake. The term is used to denote behavior either by word or deed subversive of discipline, or tending to undermine superior authority. Till lately, mutiny comprised speaking disrespectfully of the sovereign, royal family, or general commanding, quarrelling, and resisting arrest, while quarrelling, but these offences have now been reduced to the lesser crime of "mutinous conduct." The acts now constituting mutiny proper are, exciting, causing, or joining in any mutiny or sedition; when present thereto, failing to use the utmost effort to suppress it; when, knowing of a mutiny or intended mutiny, failing to give notice of it to the commanding officer; striking a superior officer, or using or offering any violence against him, while in the execution of his duty; disobeying the lawful command of a superior officer. The punishment awarded by the Mutiny Act to these crimes is, if the culprit be an officer, death or such other punishment as

a general court-marshal shall award ; if a soldier, death, penal servitude for not less than four years, or such other punishment as a general court-martial shall award. As the crime of mutiny has a tendency to immediately destroy all authority and all cohesion in the naval or military body, commanding officers have strong powers to stop it summarily. A drum-head court-martial may sentence an offender, and if the case be urgent, and the spread of the mutiny apprehended, the immediate execution of the mutineer may follow within a few minutes of the detection of his crime. It, however, behoves commanding officers to exercise this extraordinary power with great caution, as the use of so absolute an authority is narrowly and jealously watched. To prevent mutiny among men, the officers should be strict without harshness, kind without familiarity, attentive to all the just rights of their subordinates, and, above all things, most particular in the carrying out to the very letter of any promise they may have made.

**MUTINY ACT** is an Act of the British parliament, passed from year to year, investing the crown with large powers to regulate the good government of the army and navy, and to frame the articles of war. By the Bill of Rights, the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace, unless by consent of parliament, was declared illegal, and from that time the number of troops to be maintained, and the cost of the different branches of the service, have been regulated by an annual vote of the House of Commons. But parliament possesses a further and very important source of control over the army. Soldiers, in time of war or rebellion, being subject to martial law, may be punished for mutiny or desertion; but the occurrence of a mutiny in certain Scotch regiments soon after the Revolution, raised the question, whether military discipline could be maintained in time of peace; and it was decided by the courts of law, that, in the absence of any statute to enforce discipline and punish military offences, a soldier was only amenable to the common law of the country; if he deserted, he was only liable for breach of contract, or if he struck his officer, to an indictment for assault. The authority of the legislature thus became indispensable to the maintenance of military discipline, and parliament has, since 1689, at the beginning of every session, conferred this and other powers in an act called the Mutiny Act, limited in its duration to a year. Although it is greatly changed from the form in which it first passed, 15 years ago, the annual alterations in this act are now very slight, and substantially it has a fixed form. The preamble starts with the above quoted declaration from the Bill of Rights, and adds, that it is judged necessary by the sovereign and parliament that a force of such a number should be continued, "for the safety of the United Kingdom, the defence of the possessions of the crown;" while it gives authority to the sovereign to enact Articles of War for the control and government of the force granted. The act comprises 107 clauses, of which the first five specify the persons liable to its provisions—viz., all enlisted soldiers or commissioned officers on full pay, and to those of the regular army, militia, or yeomanry, when employed on active service, and to recruits for the militia while under training. Clauses 6—14, treat of courts-martial, their procedure and powers. Clauses 15—28, relate to crimes and their punishment, the leading offences being mutiny, desertion, cowardice, treason, insubordination, for each of which death may be the penalty; frauds, embezzlement, &c., for which penal servitude is awarded. Clauses 29—33, provide for the government of military prisons, and for the reception of soldiers in civil jails, under the sentences of courts-martial. Clauses 34—37, enact rules to guide civil magistrates in apprehending deserters or persons suspected of desertion. Clause 38 refers to furlough; 39—41, on the privileges of soldiers, enact that officers may not be sheriffs or mayors; that no person acquitted or convicted by a civil magistrate or jury be tried by court-martial for the same offence; and that soldiers can only be taken out of the service for debts above £30, and for felony or misdemeanor. Clauses 42—59, have reference to Enlistment (q. v.); 60—74, to stoppages, billets, carriages, and ferries, providing for the compulsory conveyance and entertainment of troops by innkeepers. Clause 75 relates to the discharge of soldiers; and the remaining 23 clauses advert to miscellaneous matters, and the penalties under the act on civil functionaries who neglect to comply with its requirements. By clauses 105 and 106 the militia, yeomanry, and volunteers, may, on emergency, be attached to the Regular Forces. Clause 107 renders a soldier liable to maintain his wife and children, and his bastard children.

## MUTUAL INSTRUCTION. See MONITORIAL SYSTEM.

MU'TTRA, or Mathurā, a town of British India, capital of a district in the n.w. Provinces, 97 miles s.e. of Delhi, is situated on the right bank of the Jumna. The fort was built by the celebrated astronomer, Jey Singh (who became Prince of Amber in 1693); and on the roof of one of the apartments is a ruinous observatory, containing a great number of astronomical instruments. Access is had to the river—which, along with the town, is considered sacred by the Hindus—by numerous ghāts, ornamented with little temples; and its banks are, every morning and evening, crowded by devotees of all ages and both sexes, to perform their religious exercises. In Hindu Mythology, it is regarded as the birthplace of the divinity Krishna. In honor of the monkey-god Hanuman, monkeys are here protected and fed, being allowed to swarm everywhere. There are also great numbers of paroquets, peacocks, and sacred bulls at large, without owners. There is a very extensive military cantonment about a mile south of the town. M. appears at an early period to have been of much more importance than it is at present; and its enormous wealth and splendor made it an object of attack to the first Afghan invaders. Mahmud of Ghuznee, in 1017, gave it up to plunder, breaking down and burning all the idols, and amassing a vast quantity of gold and silver, of which the idols were made. After this calamity, it sank into comparative obscurity. In Oct. 1803, it was, without resistance, occupied by the British troops. Pop. (1872) 59,281.

MU'TULE, a plain block under the corona of the cornice of the Doric style, similar in position to the modillio of the Corinthian order, and having a number of guttae or drops worked on the under side. See ENTABLATURE.

MU'TUUM is a term used in Scotch Law, borrowed from the Roman law, to denote a contract of loan of a certain kind of things, as corn, wine, money, which are consumed in the use, and as to which the borrower is bound to restore as much of the same kind at some future time.

MUZA IBN NOSEYR, the Arab conqueror of Spain, was born 640 A.D. He displayed great bravery and high military talents in the contests of that turbulent period, so much so that he was appointed by the calif general of the army which was raised for the conquest of Africa in 698-699. After an insignificant expedition into the interior of Africa, he set out in 707 for Mauritania, conquering the kindred tribes of Eastern Barbary, and enrolling their warriors under his standard; and by 709, the whole of Northern Africa, including the Gothic strongholds on the coast, acknowledged the authority of the calif. At this period the Gothic monarchy in Spain was in a state of complete disorganisation, and M., seizing the favorable opportunity thus presented, sent his lieutenant, Tarik Ibu Zelad, in April 711 to make an incursion into Spain. Tarik landed at Gibraltar, marched inland to the banks of the Guadalete, where he was met by Roderic the Gothic king. In the battle which ensued, the Goths were decisively vanquished, their king perished in the waters of the Guadalete, and the whole of Southern Spain lay at the mercy of the victor. M., on hearing of these successes, sent orders to Tarik to halt for further instructions; but the lieutenant, flushed with success, pressed on to the very centre of Spain, and seized Toledo, the capital of the Gothic kingdom. M. immediately set out for Spain at the head of 18,000 men (June 712), took Seville, Carmona, Merida, and other towns, and then marched upon Toledo, where he joined Tarik, whom he caused to be bastinadoed and incarcerated, but afterwards reinstated in obedience to an order from the calif. M. then marched first north-west and then east, subduing the country as he went; he then crossed the Pyrenees into France, but soon after returned to Spain, where he and Tarik received messages from the calif, commanding their immediate presence at Damascus; Tarik immediately obeyed, but M. delayed till a second message was sent to him. On reaching Damascus, he was treated with neglect, and, on the accession of the Calif Suleiman, was cast into prison, and mulcted in 200,000 pieces of gold; his two sons were deprived of their governments of Kairwan and Tangier; and the third son, who governed Spain in his father's absence, was beheaded, and his head sent to Muza. M. died soon after in the greatest poverty, at Hedjaz, 717 A.D.

MYCE'LIIUM, in Botany, a development of vegetable life peculiar to *Fungi*, but apparently common to all the species of that order. The spawn of mushrooms is

the Mycelium. The M. appears to be a provision for the propagation of the plant where its spores may not reach, its extension in the soil or matrix in which it exists, and its preservation when circumstances are unfavorable to its further development. It consists of elongated filaments, simple or jointed, situated either within the matrix or upon its surface. It is often membranous or pulpy. The development of the fungus in its proper form seems to be ready to take place, in proper circumstances, from any part of the Mycelium. Fungi often remain long in the state of M., and many kinds of M. have been described as distinct species and formed into genera. Fries has rendered great service to botany in investigating these apurious species and genera, and determining their true nature.—Liquors, in which the flocculent M. of a fungus is spreading, are said to be *mother*.

MYCE'NÆ, a very ancient city in the northeastern part of Argolia, in the Peloponnesus, built upon a craggy height, is said to have been founded by Perses. It was the capital of Agamemnon's kingdom, and was at that time the principal city in Greece. About 468 B. C., it was destroyed by the inhabitants of Argos, and never rose again from its ruins to anything like its former prosperity. In Strabo's time its ruins only remained; these are still to be seen in the neighborhood of Kharvati, and are specimens of Cyclopean architecture. The most celebrated is the "Gate of Lions," the chief entrance to the ancient Acropolis. Excavations prosecuted at M. by Dr Henry Schliemann, brought to light in 1876 several ancient tombs, containing a large quantity of gold and silver ornaments, &c.

MYELI'TIS (*myelos*, marrow) is the term employed to signify inflammation of the substance of the spinal cord. It may be either acute or chronic, but the latter is by far the most common affection. The chronic form begins with a little uneasiness in the spine, somewhat disordered sensations in the extremities, and unusual fatigue after any slight exertion. After a short time paralytic symptoms appear, and slowly increase. The gait becomes uncertain and tottering, and at length the limbs fail to support the body. The paralysis finally attacks the bladder and rectum, and the evacuations are discharged involuntarily; and death takes place as the result of exhaustion, or occasionally of asphyxia if the paralysis involves the chest. In the acute form there is much pain (especially in the spinal region), which usually ceases when paralysis supervenes. The other symptoms are the same as those of the chronic form, but they occur more rapidly and with greater severity, and death sometimes takes place in a few days.

The most common causes of this disease are falls, blows, and strains from over-exertion; but sexual abuses and intemperate habits occasionally induce it. It may also result from other diseases of the spine (as caries), or may be propagated from inflammation of the corresponding tissue of the brain.

The treatment, which is much the same as that of inflammation elsewhere, must be confided entirely to the medical practitioner; and it is therefore unnecessary to enter into any details regarding it. When confirmed paralysis has set in, there is little to hope for, but in the early stage the disease is often checked by judicious remedies.

MY'GALE, a genus of spiders, the type of a family called *Mygalidae*. They have four pulmonary sacs and spiracles, four spinnerets, eight eyes, and hairy legs. They make silken nests in clefts of trees, rocks, &c., or in the ground, sometimes burrowing to a great depth, and very tortuously. To this genus belongs the bird-catching Spider (q. v.) of Surinam; but it seems now to be ascertained that several of the larger species frequently prey on small vertebrate animals. They do not take their prey by means of webs, but hunt for it and pounce upon it by surprise. They construct a silken dwelling for themselves in some sheltered retreat. Some of them make a curious lid to their nest or burrow. They envelop their eggs, which are numerous, in a kind of cocoon.

MYLA'BRI'S, a genus of coleopterous insects, nearly allied to *Cantharis* (q. v.), and deserving of notice because of the use made of some of the species as blistering flies. *M. cichorii* is thus used in China and India; and *M. Fuesselini*, a native of the south of Europe, is supposed to have been the blistering fly of the ancients.

MYLI'TTA (? corresponding to Heb. *Meyleadeth*, Genitrix, who causes to bear), a female deity, apparently first worshipped among the Babylonians, who gradually

spread her worship through Assyria and Persia. She is originally, like almost every other mythological deity, a cosmic symbol, and represents the female portion of the twofold principle through which all creation burst into existence, and which alone, by its united active and passive powers, upholds it. M. is to a certain degree the representative of Earth, the Mother who conceives from the Sun, Bel or Baal. M. and Baal together are considered the type of the "Good." Procreation thus being the basis of M.'s office in nature, the act itself became a kind of worship to M., and was hallowed through and for her. Thus it came to pass that every Babylonian woman had once in her life to give herself up to a stranger, and thereby consider her person consecrated to the great goddess. The sacrifice itself seems, especially in the early stage of its introduction among the divine rites of the primitive Babylonians, to have had much less of the repulsiveness which, in the eyes of highly-cultivated nations, must be attached to it; and it was only in later days that it gave rise to the proverbial Babylonian lewdness. Herodotus's account of this subject must, like almost all his other stories, be received with great caution.

MYLONDON (Gr. grinder-teeth), a genus of huge fossil sloths, whose remains are found in the Pleistocene deposits of South America, associated with the *Megatherium* and other allied genera. A complete skeleton, dug up at Buenos Ayres, measured 11 feet from the fore part of the skull to the end of the tail. Although like the modern sloth in general structure and dentition, its immense size forbids us to suppose that it could have had the same arboreal habits, and the modifications of its structure seem to have fitted it for the uprooting and prostrating of the trees, the foliage of which supplied it with food.

MYNIAS, more accurately MINIAS, was, in Greek mythology, the son of Chrysos. He was king of Jolcos, and gave his name to the people called *Minye*. He built the city of Orchomenus, where rites (named after him) were celebrated in his honor. His three daughters Clymene, Iris, and Alcithoë, according to Ovid, but Lenconoë, Leucippe, and Alcithoë according to other authors, were changed into bats for having contemned the mysteries of Bacchus.

MYNPURI, or Mainpuri, a town of British India, capital of a district in the N. W. Provinces, is situated on the banks of a small affluent of the Ganges, 160 miles south-east of Delhi. It lies at an elevation of 620 feet above the sea, and is a favorite station for troops, as provisions and water are abundant and good. M. possesses a Jain temple. The rebels were driven from this place in 1857. Pop. (1871) 21,179.

MYOSO'TIS. See FORGET-ME NOT.

MYRCIA, a genus of trees of the natural order *Myrtaceæ*, to which belongs the WILD CLOVE or WILD CINNAMON of the West Indies (*M. acris*) a handsome tree of 20 or 30 feet high. Its timber is very hard, red, and heavy. Its leaves have an aromatic cinnamon-like smell, and an agreeable astringency, and are used in sashes. Its berries are round, and as large as peas, have an aromatic smell and taste, and are used for culinary purposes.—The leaves, berries, and flower-buds of *M. pimentoidea* have a hot taste and fragrant smell, and are also used for culinary purposes.

MYRIA'PODA (Gr. myriad-footed), a class of *Articulata*, resembling *Annelida* in their lengthened form, and in the great number of equal, or nearly equal, segments of which the body is composed; but in most of their other characters more nearly agreeing with insects, among which they were ranked by the earlier naturalists, and still are by some. They have a distinct head, but there is no distinction of the other segments, as in insects, into thorax and abdomen. They have simple or compound eyes; a few are destitute of eyes. They have antennæ like those of insects. The mouth is furnished with a complex masticating apparatus, in some resembling that of some insects in a larval state, in others, similar to that of crustaceans. Respiration is carried on through minute pores or spiracles, placed on each side along the entire length of the body, the air being distributed by innumerable ramifying air-tubes to all parts. In most parts of their internal organisation the M. resemble insects; although a decided inferiority is exhibited, particularly in the less perfect concentration of the nervous system. The resemblance is greater to insects in their <sup>all</sup> than in their perfect state. The body of the M. is protected by a hard chitin-

**ous covering.** The number of segments is various, seldom fewer than 24; although in some of the higher genera they are consolidated together in pairs, so that each pair, unless closely examined, might be considered as one segment bearing two pairs of feet. The legs of some of the lower kinds, as *Julus* (q. v.), are very numerous, and may be regarded as intermediate between the bristle-like appendages which serve many annelids as organs of locomotion, and the distinctly articulated legs of insects. In the higher M., as *Scolopendra*, the legs are much fewer, and articulated like those of insects. None of the M. have wings. Some of them feed on decaying organic matter, chiefly vegetable; those of higher organisation are carnivorous. The M. do not undergo changes so great as those of insects, but emerge from the egg more similar to what they are ultimately to become; although some of them are at first quite destitute of feet; and, contrary to what takes place in insects, the body becomes more elongated as maturity is approached, the number of segments and of feet increasing.

The M. are divided into two orders: the lower, *Chilognatha* (*Julus*, &c.), having the body sub-cylindrical, the feet very numerous, the head rounded, the mandibles thick and strong; the higher, *Chilopoda* (*Scolopendra*, &c.), having the body flattened, the feet comparatively few, the head broad, the mandible sharp and curved.

The M. are found in all parts of the world, in the ground, among moss, under stones, in the decaying bark of trees, in decaying roots, and in many similar situations. The largest species are tropical. They are all generally regarded with aversion. It is doubtful how far any of them are injurious to crops, although it is not improbable that they accelerate rottenness already begun; but some (Centipedes) have a venomous and painful bite.

**MYRI'CA.** See CANDLEBERRY.

**MYRISTICA'CEÆ.** See NUTMEG.

**MYRISTIC ACID** ( $C_{28}H_{47}O_9, HO$ ) is a crystalline fatty acid, found in the seeds of the common nutmeg, *Myristica moschata*. It occurs in the form of a glyceride in the fat of the nutmeg, or nutmeg butter. It has recently been found in small quantity amongst the products of the saponification of spermaceti, and of the fatty matter of milk; and hence this organic acid must be ranked amongst those which are common both to the animal and vegetable kingdom.

**MYRMECO'PHAGA.** See ANT-EATER.

**MYRO'BALANS**, the astringent fruit of certain species of *Terminalia*, trees of the natural order *Combretaceæ*, natives of the mountains of India. The genus *Terminalia* has a deciduous bell-shaped calyx and no corolla; the fruit is a juiceless drupe. *T. Belericæ*, a species with alternate elliptical entire leaves, on long stalks, produces great part of the M. of commerce; but the fruits of other species often appear under the same name. Tonic properties are ascribed to M.; but although once in great repute, they are now scarcely used in medicine. They are used, however, by tanners and by dyers, and have therefore become a very considerable article of importation from India. They give a durable yellow color with alum, and, with the addition of iron, an excellent black.—*Emblæc M.* are the fruit of *Emblæca officinalis*, of the natural order *Euphorbiaceæ*, a native of India. They are used in India as a tonic and astringent; also in tanning and in the making of ink.—There is a kind of plum called the *Myrobalan Plum*. See PLUM.

**MYRRH** (Heb. *mur*), a gum resin produced by *Balsamodendron* (q. v.) *myrrha*, a tree of the natural order *Anyridaceæ*, growing in Arabia, and probably also in Abyssinia. The M. tree is small and scrubby, spiny, with whitish-gray bark, thinly-scattered small leaves, each consisting of three obovate obtusely toothed leaflets, and the fruit a smooth brown ovate drupe, somewhat larger than a pea. M. exudes from the bark in oily yellowish drops, which gradually thicken and finally become hard, the color at the same time becoming darker. M. has been known and valued from the most ancient times; it is mentioned as an article of commerce in Gen. xxxvii. 25, and was amongst the presents which Jacob sent to the Egyptian ruler, and amongst those which the wise men from the East brought to the infant Jesus. It was an ingredient in the "holy anointing oil" of the Jews. M. appears in commerce either in tears and grains, or in pieces of irregular form and various sizes, yellow, red, or reddish brown. It is brittle, and has a waxy fracture, often exhibit-

ing whitish veins. Its smell is balsamic, its taste aromatic and bitter. It is used in medicine as a tonic and stimulant, in disorders of the digestive organs, excessive secretions from the mucous membranes, &c., also to cleanse foul ulcers and promote their healing, and as a dentifrice, particularly in a spongy or ulcerated condition of the gums. It was much used by the ancient Egyptians in embalming. The best M. is known in commerce as *Turkey M.*, being brought from Turkish ports; as the name *East Indian M.* is also given to M. brought to Europe from the East Indies, although it is not produced there, but comes from Abyssinia. It is not yet certainly known whether the M. tree of Abyssinia is the same as that of Arabia, or an allied species.

MYRSINA'CÆ, a natural order of exogenous plants, consisting of trees and shrubs, natives of warm climates, and having simple leathery leaves, destitute of stipules; hermaphrodite or unisexual flowers, generally small, but often in umbels, corymbs, or panicles; very similar in structure to the flowers of the *Primulaceæ*; the fruit generally fleshy, with 1—4 seeds. The flowers are very often marked with sunken dots or glandular lines.—There are more than 300 known species. Many of them are beautiful evergreen shrubs, particularly the genus *Ardisia*. Some have peppery fruit, as *Embelia ribes*.

MYRTA'CÆ, a natural order of exogenous plants, consisting of trees and shrubs, natives chiefly of warm, but partly also of temperate countries. The order, as defined by the greater number of botanists, includes several suborders, which are regarded by some as distinct orders, particularly CHAMELAUCIACEÆ (in which are contained about 50 known species, mostly beautiful little bushes, often with fragrant leaves, natives of New Holland), BARRINGTONIACEÆ (q. v.), and LECYTHIDACEÆ (q. v.). Even as restricted, by the separation of these, the order contains about 1300 known species. The leaves are entire, usually with pellucid dots, and a vein running parallel to and near their margin.—Some of the species are gigantic trees, as the *Eucalypti* or *Gum Trees* of New Holland, and different species of *Metrosideros*, of which one is found as far south as Lord Auckland's Islands, in lat. 50° S. The timber is generally compact.—Astringency seems to be rather a prevalent property in the order, and the leaves or other parts of some species are used in medicine as astringents and tonics. A fragrant or pungent volatile oil is often present in considerable quantity, of which *Oil of Cajeput* and *Oil of Cloves* are examples. *Cloves* and *Pimento* are amongst the best known products of the order. The berries of several species are occasionally used as spices in the same way as the true Pimento. A considerable number yield pleasant edible fruits, among which are the *POMEGRANATE*, the *GUAVA*, species of the genus *Eugenia*, and some species of myrtle.

MYRTLE (*Myrtus*) a genus of *Myrtaceæ*, having the limb of the calyx 4—5-parted, 4—5 petals, numerous free stamens, and almost globose germs, and a 2—3 celled berry, crowned with the limb of the calyx, and containing kidney-shaped seeds. The leaves are opposite and marked with pellucid dots; the flower-stalks are axillary, and generally one-flowered. The COMMON M. (*M. communis*) is well known as a beautiful evergreen shrub, or a tree of moderate size, with white flowers. It is a native of all the countries around the Mediterranean Sea, and of the temperate parts of Asia, often forming thickets, which sometimes occur even within the reach of the sea-spray. The leaves are ovate or lanceolate, varying much in breadth. They are astringent and aromatic, containing a volatile oil, and were used in medicine by the ancients as a stimulant. The berries are also aromatic, and are used in medicine in Greece and India. A M. wine, called *Myrtianum*, is made in Tuscany. M. bark is used for tanning in many parts of the south of Europe. Among the ancient Greeks, the M. was sacred to Venus, as the symbol of youth and beauty, was much used in festivals, and was, as it still is, often mentioned in poetry. The M. endures the winters of Britain only in the mildest situations in the south.—The SMALL-LEAVED M. of Peru (*M. microphylla*) has red berries of the size of a pea, of a pleasant flavor and sugary sweetness. Those of the LUMA (*M. luma*) are also palatable, and are eaten in Chili; as are those of the DOWNTY M. (*M. tomentosa*), on the Neilgherry Hills; and those of the WHITE-BERRIED M. (*M. leucocarpa*), by some regarded as a variety of the Common M., in Greece and Syria. The berries of this species or variety are larger than those of the Common M., and have a very

**pleasant taste and smell.**—A very humble species of *M. (M. nummularia)* spreads over the ground in the Falkland Islands, as thyme does in Britain.

**MYRTLE-WAX.** See **WAX.**

**MY'SIS**, a genus of podothalmaous (stalk-eyed) crustaceans, of the order *Stomatopoda*, much resembling the common shrimps in form, although differing from them in the external position of the gills. They are often called *Opossum Shrimps*, because the last two feet are furnished with an appendage, which in the female forms a large pouch, and in this the eggs are received after they leave the ovary, and are retained till the young acquire a form very similar to that of the parent, when the whole brood are at once set free into the ocean. Species of *M.* are found on the British shores, but they are far more abundant in the Arctic seas, where they form no small part of the food of whales, and of many fishes, particularly of different species of salmon.

**MYSO'RE, or Maisur**, a raj or principality of Southern India, under the protection of the British government, in lat.  $11^{\circ} 85'$ — $15^{\circ}$  n., and in long.  $74^{\circ} 45'$ — $78^{\circ} 45'$  e. It is bounded on the n. by the British collectorate of Dharwar, and otherwise surrounded by districts belonging to the Madras presidency. The area is 27,000 square miles; the pop. in 1871—1872 was 5,056,412. *M.* is an extensive table-land, with an average elevation of about 2000 feet, and with a slope principally toward the north and north-east. The chief rivers are the Cauvery, flowing south-east, and the Tungabhadro, the Hugri, and the Pennar flowing north and north-east. The climate of the higher districts is during a great portion of the year healthy and pleasant. In 1871—1872, the value of the exports, which consist of betel-nut, coffee, cotton, cardamoms, rice, silk, and sugar, amounted to £1,100,000. The imports, consisting mainly of iron, gold, pepper, salt, and pulses, were £1,070,000. Since 1888, the control of the country has been entirely in the hands of the English, and the government is administered by British commissioner. Chief town, Mysore. For the history of *M.*, see articles **HYDER ALI**, **TIPOO SAHIB**, and **INDIA**.

**MYSORE, or Maisur**, a city of India, the seat of a British residency, capital of the territory, and of the subdivision of the same name, is situated amid picturesque scenery on a declivity formed by two parallel ranges of elevated ground running north and south, 245 miles west-south-west of Mavras, lat.  $12^{\circ} 19'$  n., long.,  $76^{\circ} 42'$  e. The houses are generally built of teak, and among the chief edifices are the British residency and church. The fort is quadrangular in form, three of its sides being 450 yards in length, and the remaining side longer. The rajah's palace, occupying three sides of the interior fort, contains a magnificent chair or throne of gold. The climate is mild, but not healthy; fevers are of frequent occurrence. Carpets are manufactured. Pop. (1872) 57,766.

**MYSTAGOGUE** (Gr. *mystes*, an initiated person, and *ago*, I lead), the name in the Greek religious system of the priest whose duty it was to direct the preparations of the candidates for initiation in the several mysteries, as well as to conduct the ceremonial of initiation. It was sometimes applied by a sort of analogy to the class of professional *ciceroni*, who in ancient, as still in modern times, undertook to shew to strangers newly arrived in a city the noteworthy objects which it contained; but the former meaning is its primitive one, and formed the ground of the application of the same name in the Christian church, to the catechists or other clergy who prepared candidates for the Christian *mysteries*, or sacraments, of baptism, confirmation, and the eucharist, especially the last. In this sense, the word is constantly used by the fathers of the 4th and 5th centuries; and in the well-known lectures of St Cyril of Jerusalem, although all were addressed to candidates for the mysteries, some for baptism, and some for the eucharist, it is only to the lectures addressed to the latter that the name *mystagogio* is applied. This distinction was connected with the well-known Discipline of the Secret; and it appears to have ceased with the abolition or gradual disuse of that discipline.

**MYSTERIES** (Gr. from *muo*, to close the lips or eyes), also called *Teletai*, *Orgia*, or, in Latin, *Initia*, designate certain rites and ceremonies in ancient, chiefly Greek and Roman religions, only known to, and practised by, congregations of certain

initiated men and women, at appointed seasons, and in strict seclusion. The origin, as well as the real purport of these mysteries, which take no unimportant place among the religious festivals of the classical period, and which, in their ever-changing nature, designate various phases of religious development in the antique world, is all but unknown. It does seem, indeed, as if the vague speculations of modern times on the subject were an echo of the manifold interpretations of the various acts of the mysteries given by the priests to the inquiring disciple—according to the lights of the former or the latter. Some investigators, themselves not entirely free from certain mystic influences (like Creuzer and others), have held them to have been a kind of misty orb around a kernel of pure light, the bright rays of which were too strong for the eyes of the multitude; that, in fact, they hid under an outward garb of numeriness a certain portion of the real and eternal truth of religion, the knowledge of which had been derived from some primeval, or, perhaps, the Mosaic revelation; if it could not be traced to certain (or uncertain) Egyptian, Indian, or generally Eastern sources. To this kind of hazy talk, however (which we only mention because it is still repeated every now and then), the real and thorough investigations begun by Lobeck, and still pursued by many competent scholars in our own day, have, or ought to have, put an end. There cannot be anything more alien to the whole spirit of Greek and Roman antiquity than a hiding of abstract truths and occult wisdom under rites and formulas, songs and dances; and, in fact, the mysteries were anything but exclusive, either with respect to sex, age, or rank, in point of initiation. It was only the speculative tendency of later times, when Polytheism was on the wane, that tried to symbolise and allegorise these obscure, and partly imported ceremonies, the bulk of which had undoubtedly sprung from the midst of the Pelasgian tribes themselves in prehistoric times, and which were intended to represent and to celebrate certain natural phenomena in the visible creation. There is certainly no reason to deny that some more refined minds may at a very early period have endeavored to impart a higher sense to these wondrous performances; but these can only be considered as solitary instances. The very fact of their having to be put down in later days as public nuisances in Rome herself, speaks volumes against the occult wisdom inculcated in secret assemblies of men and women.

The mysteries, as such, consisted of purifications, sacrificial offerings, processions, songs, dances, dramatic performances, and the like. The mystic formulas (*Deiknumena, Dromena, Legomena*, the latter including the Liturgies, &c.) were held deep secrets, and could only be communicated to those who had passed the last stage of preparation in the mystagogue's hand. The hold which the nightly secrecy of these meetings, together with their extraordinary worship, must naturally have taken upon minds more fresh and childlike than our advanced ages can boast of, was increased by all the mechanical contrivances of the effects of light and sound which the priests could command. Mysterious voices were heard singing, whispering, and sighing all around, lights gleamed in manifold colors from above and below, figures appeared and disappeared; the mimic, the tonic, the plastic—all the arts, in fact, were taxed to their very utmost to make these performances (the nearest approach to which, in this country, is furnished by transformation-scenes, or sensation-dramas in general) as attractive and profitable (to the priests) as could be. As far as we have any knowledge of the plots of these Mysteries as scenic representations, they generally brought the stories of the special gods or goddesses before the spectator—their births, sufferings, deaths, and resurrections. Many were the outward symbols used, of which such as the Phallus, the Thyrus, Flower Bas-kets, Mystic Boxes, in connection with special deities, told more or less their own tale, although the meanings supplied by later ages, from the Neo-platonists to our own day, are various, and often very amazing. The most important Mysteries were, in historical times, those of Eleusis and the Thesmophorian, both representing—each from a different point of view—the rape of Proserpina, and Ceres's search for her: the Thesmophorian mysteries being also in a manner connected with the Dionysian worship. There were further those of Zeus of Crete—derived from a very remote period—of Bacchus himself, of Cybele, and Aphrodite—the two latter with reference to the Mystery of Propagation, but celebrated in diametrically opposed ways, the former culminating in the self-mutilation of the worshipper, the latter in prostitution. Further, the Mysteries of Orpheus, who in a certain degree was considered the founder of all mysteries. Nor were the other gods and goddesses forgotten;

Hera, Minerva, Diana, Hecate, nay, foreign gods like Mithras (q. v.), and the like, had their due secret solemnities all over the classical soil, and whithersoever Greek (and partly Roman) colonists took their Lares and Penates all over the antique world. The beginning of the reaction in the minds of thinking men, against this mostly gross and degenerated kind of veneration of natural powers and instincts, is marked by the period of the Hesiodic poems; and when towards the end of the classical periods, the mysteries were no longer secret, but public orgies of the most shameless kind, their days were numbered. The most subtle metaphysicians, allegorise and symbolise as they might, failed in reviving them, and in restoring them to whatever primeval dignity there might have once been inherent in them.

**MYSTERIES AND MIRACLE-PLAYS** were dramas founded on the historical parts of the Old and New Testaments, and the lives of the saints, performed during the middle ages, first in churches, and afterwards in the streets on fixed or movable stages. Mysteries were properly taken from biblical and miracle-plays from legendary subjects, but this distinction in nomenclature was not always strictly adhered to. We have an extant specimen of the religious play of a date prior to the beginning of the middle ages in the Christos Paschón, assigned, somewhat questionably, to Gregory Nazianzen, and written in 4th c. Greek. Next come six Latin plays on subjects connected with the lives of the saints, by Roswitha, a nun of Gandersheim, in Saxony, which, though not very artistically constructed, possess considerable dramatic power and interest; they have been lately published at Paris, with a French translation. The performers were at first the clergy and choristers, afterwards any layman might participate. The earliest recorded performance of a miracle-play took place in England. Matthew Paris relates that Geoffroy, afterwards Abbot of St Albans, while a secular, exhibited at Dunstable the miracle-play of St Catherine and borrowed copies from St Albans to dress his characters. This must have been at the end of the 11th or beginning of the 12th century. Fitzstephen, in his "Life of Thomas à Becket," 1188 A. D., describe with approval the representation in London of the sufferings of the saints and miracles of the confessors. On the establishment of the Corpus Christi festival by Pope Urban IV. in 1264, miracle-plays became one of its adjuncts, and every considerable town had a fraternity for their performance. Throughout the 15th and following centuries, they continued in full force in England, and are mentioned, sometimes approvingly, sometimes disapprovingly, by contemporary writers. Designed at first as a means of religious instruction for the people, they had long before the Reformation so far departed from their original character, as to be mixed up in many instances with buffoonery and irreverence, intentional or unintentional, and to be the means of inducing contempt rather than respect for the church and religion. Remarkable collections exist of English mysteries and miracles of the 15th c., known as the Chester, the Coventry, and the Townley plays. The first two have been published by the Shakespeare Society, and the other by the Surtees Society. The Townley mysteries are full of the burlesque element, and contain many curious illustrations of contemporary manners.

Out of the mysteries and miracle-plays sprang a third class of religious plays called "Morallities," in which allegorical personifications of the Virtues and Vices were introduced as *dramatis personae*. These personages at first only took part in the play along with the scriptural or legendary characters, but afterwards entirely superseded them. The oldest known English compositions of this kind are of the time of Henry VI.; they are more elaborate and less interesting than the miracle plays. Morallities continued in fashion till the time of Elizabeth, and were the immediate precursors of the regular drama.

Miracles and mysteries were as popular in France, Germany, Spain, and Italy as in England. A piece of the kind yet extant, composed in France in the 11th c., is entitled the "Mystery of the Wise and Foolish Virgins," and written partly in the Provincial dialect and partly in Latin. A celebrated fraternity, called the Confrérie de la Passion, founded in Paris in 1850, had a monopoly for the performance of mysteries and miracle-plays, which were of such a length, that the exhibition of each occupied several days. A large number of the French mysteries of the 14th c. are extant. In the alpine districts of Germany, miracle-plays were composed and acted by the peasants; these peasant-plays had less regularity in their dramatic form,

were often interspersed with songs and processions; and in their union of simplicity with high-wrought feeling were most characteristic of the people in whom the religious and dramatic element are both so largely developed. In the early part of last century, they began to partake to a limited extent of the burlesque, which had brought miracle-plays into disrepute elsewhere.

It is a mistake to suppose that the hostility of the reformers was what suppressed these exhibitions. The fathers of the Reformation shewed no unfriendly feeling towards them. Luther is reported to have said that they often did more good and produced more impression than sermons. The most direct encouragement was given to them by the founders of the Swedish Protestant Church, and by the earlier Lutheran bishops, Swedish and Danish. The authorship of one drama of the kind is assigned to Grotius. In England, the greatest check they received was from the rise of the secular drama; yet they continued to be occasionally performed in the times of James I. and Charles I., and it is well known that the first sketch of Milton's "Paradise Lost" was a sacred drama, where the opening speech was Satan's Address to the Snn. A degenerate relic of the miracle-play may yet be traced in some remote districts of England, where the story of St George, the dragon, and Beelzebub, is rudely represented by the peasantry. Strange to say, it was in the Catholic south of Germany, where these miracle-plays and mysteries had preserved most of their old religious character, that the severest blow was levelled against them. Even there, they had begun to be tainted to a limited extent with the burlesque element, which had brought them into disrepute elsewhere. In 1779, a manifesto was issued by the Prince-archbishop of Salzburg, condemning them, and prohibiting their performance, on the ground of their ludicrous mixture of the sacred and the profane, the frequent bad acting in the serious parts, the distraction of the lower orders from more edifying modes of instruction, and the scandal arising from the exposure of sacred subjects to the ridicule of free-thinkers. This ecclesiastical denunciation was followed by vigorous measures on the part of the civil authorities in Austria and Bavaria. One exception was made to the general suppression. In 1633, the villagers of Oberammergau, in the Bavarian highlands, on the cessation of a plague which desolated the surrounding country, had vowed to perform every tenth year the Passion of Our Saviour, out of gratitude, and as a means of religious instruction; a vow which had ever since been regularly observed. The pleading of a deputation of Ammergau peasants with Max. Joseph of Bavaria saved their mystery from the general condemnation, on condition of everything that could offend good taste being expunged. It was then and afterwards somewhat remodelled, and is perhaps the only mystery or miracle-play which has survived to the present day. The last performance took place in 1870. The inhabitants of this secluded village, long noted for their skill in carving in wood and ivory, have a rare union of artistic cultivation with perfect simplicity. Their familiarity with sacred subjects is even beyond what is usual in the alpine part of Germany, and the spectacle seems still to be looked on with feelings much like those with which it was originally conceived. What would elsewhere appear impious, is to the alpine peasants devout and edifying. The personator of Christ considers his part an act of religious worship; he and the other principal performers are said to be selected for their holy life, and consecrated to their work with prayer. The players, about 500 in number, are exclusively the villagers, who, though they have no artistic instruction except from the parish priest, act their parts with no little dramatic power, and a delicate appreciation of character. The New Testament narrative is strictly adhered to, the only legendary addition to it being the St Veronica handkerchief. The acts alternate with *tableaux* from the Old Testament and choral odes. Many thousands of the peasantry are attracted by the spectacle from all parts of the Tyrol and Bavaria, among whom the same earnest and devout demeanor prevails as among the performers. Plays of a humbler description, from subjects in legendary or sacred history, are not unfrequently got up by the villagers around Innsbruck, which shew a certain rude dramatic talent, though not comparable to what is exhibited at Ammergau. Girls very generally represent both the male and female characters.

**MYSTICISM** (Gr. *mustikos*, mystical), a term used with considerable vagueness, but implying that general tendency in religion to higher and more intimate communication with the Divine, to which, in most religions, ancient and modern, certain individuals or classes have laid claim. In the Platonic philosophy, and in the Eastern sys-

tems, from which that philosophy is derived, the human soul being regarded as a portion of the divine nature, it is held to be the great end of life to free the soul from the embarrassment and mental darkness in which it is held by the material trammels of the body in which it is imprisoned. In the pursuit of this end, two very opposite courses were adopted : the first, that of spiritual purification, partly by repressing the natural appetites and weakening the sensual impulses by corporeal austerities, partly by elevating the soul through intense contemplation and withdrawal from the outward objects of sense ; the other, that of regarding the soul as superior to the body, independent of its animal impulses, incapable, from its higher origin, of being affected by its outward actions, or assailed by contact with the corruption in which its lower nature might love to wallow. A similar element of M., which, in truth, must form in some sense, a constituent of every religious system, is traceable in the early doctrinal history of Christianity, and the career of Christian M. also divides itself into the same twofold course. Among the early sects external to the church, we trace the first in the system of Tatian and of the Encratites, while the second finds its parallel in the Syrian Gnostics, in Carpocrates, Bardanes, and in one form at least of the Nicolaitic heresy. Within the Christian church there never has been wanting a continuous manifestation of the mystical element. The language of St Paul in Gal. ii. 20, and in 2d Cor. xii. 2, and many expressions in the Apocalypse, may be taken as the exponents of Christian M., the highest aspiration of which has ever been towards that state in which the Christian "no longer liveth, but Christ liveth in him." And although no regular scheme of M. can be found in the early Fathers, yet the writings of Hermes the Shepherd, the Epistles of St Ignatius, the works of St Clement of Alexandria, the Expositions of Origen, and above all, the Confessions of St Augustine, abound with outpourings of the true spirit of Christian mysticism. It is curious that the first systematic exposition of its principles is said to be in the works of the pseudo-Dionysius the Areopagite; but it was not till the days of the Scholastics that it received its full development, when the mystic life was resolved into its three stages, viz., of Purification, of Illumination, and of Ecstatic Union with God and Absorption in Divine Contemplation. It was upon the explanation of this third stage that the great division of the medieval mystic schools mainly turned ; some of them explaining the union with God in a pantheistic or semipantheistic sense, and thereby annihilating the individual will, and almost the personal action of man in the state of ecstasy ; others, with St Bernard, fully preserving both the individuality and the freedom of man, even in the highest spiritual communication with his Creator. Of the former, many, as the Hesychasts (q. v.) in the Greek Church, and the Brethren of the Free Spirit (q. v.) and the Beghards in the Latin, drew from these mystical doctrines the most revolting moral consequences ; in others, as Tuiler, Ruybroek, Eckhart, the error does not seem to have gone beyond the sphere of speculation. The writings of Thomas à Kempis (q. v.), of St Catherine of Siena, of St John of the Cross, and of St Teresa, may perhaps be taken as the most characteristic representations of the more modern form of the traditional M. which has come down from the mystics of the middle ages.

The later history of M. in the Roman Catholic Church will be found under the heads of FENELON, MADAME GUYON, MOLINOS, and QUIETISM. The most remarkable followers of the same or kindred doctrines in the Protestant communions are Jacob Böhme (q. v.) of Görlitz, Emmanuel Swedenborg (q. v.), and the celebrated William Law (q. v.).

**MYTH AND MYTHOLOGY.** The word *myth* (Gr. *mythos*), originally signified *speech* or *discourse*, and was identical with the word *logos*. After the age of Pindar and Herodotus, however, it came to be synonymous with the Latin word *fabula*, *fable*, or *legend*. According to the present use of our language, a myth is an idea or fancy presented in the historical form ; and though, of course, any fiction at any time in this shape might be called a myth, yet by usage the word is confined to those fictions made in the early periods of a people's existence, for the purpose of presenting their religious belief, and generally their oldest traditions, in an attractive form. The tendency to create myths in this way seems inherent in every people ; certainly there is no people so sunk into the brute as to be without them. A myth is not to be confounded with an allegory ; the one being an unconscious act of the popular mind at an early stage of society, the other a conscious act of the individual

mind at any stage of social progress. The parables of the New Testament are allegorical; so are *Aesop's Fables*; no one mistakes them for realities; they are known to have been invented for a special didactic purpose, and so received. But the peculiarity of myths is, that they are not only conceived in the narrative form, but generally taken for real narrations by the people to whom they belong, so long at least as they do not pass a certain stage of intellectual culture. Even myths of which the allegorical significance is pretty plain, such as the well-known Greek myth of Prometheus and Epimetheus, were received as facts of early tradition by the Greeks. Myths may be divided into several classes, of which the first and most important is the theological and moral. The oldest theology of all nations is in the form of myths; hence the great importance of mythological study, now universally recognised; for it is not occupied merely or mainly with strange fancies and marvellous fictions, invented for the sake of amusement, but contains the fundamental ideas belonging to the moral and religious nature of man as they have been embodied by the imaginative faculty of the most favored races. It is this dominance of the imagination, so characteristic of the early stages of society, which gives to myth its peculiar dramatic expression, and stamps the popular creed of all nations with the character of a poetry of nature, of man, and of God. From the very nature of the case, the myth-producing faculty exercises itself with exuberance only under the polytheistic form of religion; for there only does a sufficient number of celestial personages exist, whose attributes and actions may be exhibited in a narrative form; there is nothing, however, to prevent even a monotheistic people from exhibiting certain great ideas of their faith in a narrative form, so as by prosaic minds to be taken for literal historical facts. But besides strictly theological myths, there are physical myths, that is, fictions representing the most striking appearances and changes of external nature in the form of poetical history; in which view, the connection of legends about giants, chimeras, &c., with regions marked by peculiar volcanic phenomena, has been often remarked. It is difficult indeed, in polytheistic religions, to draw any strict line between physical and theological myths; as the divinity of all the operations of nature is the first postulate of polytheism, and every physical phenomenon becomes the manifestation of a god. Again, though it may appear a contradiction, there are historical myths; that is, marvellous legends about persons, who may with probability be supposed to have actually existed. So intermingled, indeed, is fact with fable in early times, that there must always be a kind of debatable land between plain theological myth and recognized historical fact. This land is occupied by what are called the heroic myths; that is, legends about heroes, concerning whom it may often be doubtful whether they are merely a sort of inferior, and more human-like gods, or only men of more than ordinary powers whom the popular imagination has elevated into demi-gods.

The scientific study of mythology commenced with the ancient nations who produced it, specially with the acute and speculative Greeks. The great mass of the Greek people, indeed—of whom we have a characteristic type in the traveller Pansanius—accepted their oldest legends, in the mass, as divine and human facts; but so early as the time of Euripides, or even before his day in the case of the Sicilians, Epicurus and Empedocles, we find that philosophers and poets had begun to identify Jove with the upper sky, Apollo with the sun, Juno with the nether atmosphere, and so forth; that is, they interpreted their mythology as a theology and poetry of nature. This, indeed, may be regarded as the prevalent view among all the more reflective and philosophical heathens (who were not, like Xenophon, orthodox believers) up from the age of Pericles, 450 B. C., to the establishment of Christianity. But there was an altogether opposite view, which arose at a later period, under less genial circumstances, and exercised no small influence both on Greek and Roman writers. This view was first prominently put forth by Euhemerus, a Messenian, in the time of the first Ptolemies, and consisted in the flat prosaic assertion, that the gods, equally with the heroes, were originally men, and all the tales about them only human facts sublimed and elevated by the imagination of pious devotees. This view seemed to derive strong support from the known stories about the birth and death of the gods, specially of Jove in Crete; and the growing sceptical tendencies of the scientific school at Alexandria, were of course favorable to the promulgation of such views. The work of Euh-

merns accordingly obtained a wide circulation; and having been translated into Latin, went to nourish that crass form of religious scepticism which was one of the most notable symptoms of the decline of Roman genius at the time of the emperors. Historians, like Diodorus, gladly adopted an interpretation of the popular mythology which promised to swell their stores of reliable material; the myths accordingly were coolly emptied of the poetic soul which inspired them, and the early traditions of the heroic ages were set forth as plain history, with a grave sobriety equally opposed to sound criticism, natural piety, and good taste.

In modern times the Greek mythology has again formed the basis of much speculation on the character of myths and the general laws of mythical interpretation. The first tendency of modern Christian scholars, following the track long before taken by the fathers, was to refer all Greek mythology to a corruption of Old Testament doctrine and history. Of this system of interpreting myths, we have examples in Vossius, in the learned and fanciful works of Bryant and Faber, and very recently, though with more pious and poetic feeling, in Gladstone. But the Germans, who have taken the lead here, as in other regions of combined research and speculation, have long ago given up this ground as untenable, and have introduced the rational method of interpreting every system of myths, in the first place according to the peculiar laws traceable in its own genius and growth. Ground was broken in this department by Heyne, whose views have been tested, corrected, and enlarged by a great number of learned, ingenious, and philosophical writers among his own countrymen, especially by Buttstädt, Voss, Crenzer, Müller, Welcker, Gerhardt, and Preller. The general tendency of the Germans is to start—as Wordsworth does in his "Excursion," book iv.—from the position of a devout imaginative contemplation of nature, in which the myths originated, and to trace the working out of those ideas, in different places and at different times, with the most critical research, and the most vivid reconstruction. If in this work they have given birth to a large mass of ingenious nonsense and brilliant guess-work, there has not been wanting among them abundance of sober judgment and sound sense to counteract such extravagances. It may be noticed however, as characteristic of their over-speculative intellect, that they have a tendency to bring the sway of theological and physical symbols down into a region of what appears to be plain historical fact; so that Achilles becomes a water-god, Pelens, a mud-god, and the whole of the "Iliad," according to Forchhammer, a poetical geology of Thebes and the Troad! Going to the opposite extreme from Euhemerus, they have denied the existence even of deified heroes; all the heroes of Greek tradition, according to Uschold, are only degraded gods; and generally in German writers, a preference of transcendental to simple and obvious explanations of myths is noticeable. Crenzer, some of whose views had been anticipated by Blackwell, in Scotland, is especially remarkable for the high ground of religious and philosophical conception on which he has placed the interpretation of myths; and he was also the first who directed attention to the oriental element in Greek mythology—not, indeed, with sufficient discrimination in many cases, but to the great enrichment of mythological material, and the enlargement of philosophical survey. In the most recent times, by uniting the excursive method of Crenzer with the correction supplied by the more critical method of O. Müller and his successors, the science of comparative mythology has been launched into existence; and specially the comparison of the earliest Greek mythology with the sacred legends of the Hindus, has been ably advocated by Max Müller in the "Oxford Essays" (1856). In France, the views of Euhemerus were propounded by Bauler (1789). By the British scholars, mythology is a field that has been very scantily cultivated. Besides those already named, Payne Knight, Mackay, Grote in the first volumes of his history, and Keightley are the only names of any note, and their works can in nowise compete in originality, extent of research, in discriminating criticism, or in largeness of view, with the productions of the German school. The best for common purposes is Keightley; the most original, Payne Knight. Recently, G. W. Cox, in a work on Aryan mythology, has pushed the sanscritising tendencies of Max Müller to an extreme which to most minds seems absurd. On the special mythologies of India, Rome, Greece, &c., information will be found under the heads of the respective countries to which they belong. The more important mythological personages are noticed under their own names; see BACCHUS, JUPITER, HERCULES, &c.

## N

N, the fourteenth letter of the English alphabet, is one of the nasal liquids of the lingual class. See LETTERS. Its Hebrew (and Phœnician) name, *Nun*, signified a *fish*, which its original form was probably meant to represent. N is interchangeable with L. (q. v.) and M, as in *collect*, *commingle*, *confer*; and in Ger. *boden*, compared with Eng. *bottom*. In Latin this letter had a faint, uncertain sound at the end of words and in some other positions, especially before s. This accounts for words in *on* having lost the n in the nominative case, though retaining it in the oblique cases, as *homo*, *hominis*; and for Greek names like *Platon* being written without the final n in Latin. The dull, muffled pronunciation of n, which is indicated by such words as *censul*, *censor*, *testamento*, being frequently spelled *cousul*, *censor*, *testamento*, was the first stage of the modern French nasal n. Before a guttural letter, n naturally assumes the sound of ng, as *bank*.

NAAS, a market and a-size town of Kildare County, Ireland, 20½ miles southwest of Dublin, and, next to Athy, the largest town in the county. The population in 1871 was 3860. The principal street is about half a mile in length; the county court-house is in the main street. Having been anciently the seat of the kings of Leinster, N. was early occupied by the English. A parliament was held in it in 1419, and it obtained charters successively from Henry V., Elizabeth, and James I. At present, N. is a place of little trade, and is almost entirely without manufactures. It returned two members to the Irish parliament, but was disfranchised at the Union. It is the seat of a diocesan school, and of three national schools, one of which is attached to the Roman Catholic convent. A newspaper, printed at Maryborongh, is also published here.

NA'BOB, or Nabab, a corruption of the word *Nawâb* (deputy), was the title belonging to the administrators, under the Mogul empire, of the separate provinces into which the district of a *Subahdar* (q. v.) was divided. The title was continued under the British rule, but it gradually came to be applied generally to natives who were men of wealth and consideration. In Europe, and especially in Britain, it is applied derisively to those who, having made great fortunes in the Indies, return to their native country, where they live in oriental splendor.

NABONA'SSAR, Era of, was the starting-point of Babylonian chronology, and was adopted by the Greeks of Alexandria, Berosus and others. It began with the accession of Nabonassar to the throne—an event calculated (from certain astronomical phenomena recorded by Ptolemy) to have taken place 26th February 747 B.C.

NÂBULU'S, or Nâblu's (a corruption of the Gr. *Neapolis*, New City, the name given to it in the reign of Vespasian), anciently called SHECHEM or SICHEM, in the New Testament (John iv. 5), SYCHAR; is a town of Palestine, possessing, it is said, "the only beautiful site from Dan to Beersheba." It lies between Mount Ebal and Mount Gerizim, on the south side of the valley of Erd-Mukhna, and has a population variously estimated at from 8000 to 14,000, of whom about 500 are Christians, 150 Samaritans, and 50 Jews; the rest are Mohammedans, fierce, turbulent, and fanatical. The houses are pretty good, but the streets (as usual in the East) are narrow, gloomy, and filthy. The chief productions are soap, cotton, and oil—the soap-manufactories are large, and the oil is considered the best in Syria.—See Porter's "Hand-book for Syria and Palestine," and Stanley's "Palestine."

NACRE. See MOTHER OF PEARL.

**N'ADIR**, an Arabic word signifying that point in the heavens which is diametrically opposite to the zenith, so that the zenith, nadir, and centre of the earth are in one straight line. The zenith and nadir form the poles of the Horizon (q. v.). See ZENITH.

**NADIR SHAH**, of Persia, belonged to the Afshars, a Turkish tribe, and was born near Kelat, in the centre of Khorassan, Persia, in 1688. When 17 years old, he was taken prisoner by the Usbecks, but escaped after four years of captivity; entered the service of the governor of Khorassan, and soon obtained high promotion. Having, however, been degraded and punished for some real or supposed offence, he betook himself to a lawless life, and for several years was the darling leader of a band of 8000 robbers, who levied contributions from almost the whole of Khorassan. An opportunity having occurred, N. seized the town of Kelat, and gradually extended his territorial authority. Persia was at this time ruled by Melek Ashraf, an Afghan of the tribe of Ghilji, whose grinding tyranny and cruelty produced in the mind of every Persian a deadly hatred of the very name Afghan, which exists to the present day. N. having avowed his intention of expelling the hated race from the country and restoring the Sufavean dynasty, numbers flocked to his standard, and Meshed, Herat, and all Khorassan were speedily reduced. Ashraf, signalled defeated in several engagements, fled before the avenger, who, with a celerity only equalled by its thoroughness, purged the provinces of Irak, Fars, and Kerman of even the semblance of Afghan domination. The assassination of Ashraf, during his retreat, terminated the war. The rightful heir, Tamasp, then ascended the throne, and N. received for his services the government of the provinces of Khorassan, Mazanderan, Seistan, and Kerman, assuming at the same time the title of Tamasp-kâlî (the Slave of Tamasp), the title of khan being subsequently added. He was sent against the Turks in 1731, and defeated them at Hamadan, regaining the Armenian provinces which had been seized by the Turks in the preceding reign; but his sovereign having in his absence engaged unsuccessfully the same enemy, N. caused him to be put in prison, and elevated his infant son, Abbas III., to the throne in 1732. The death of this puppet, in 1736, opened the way for the elevation of N. himself, who was crowned as *Nadir Shah*, February 26 1736. He resumed the war with the Turks; and though totally defeated in the first two battles by the Grand Vizier Asman, turned the tide of fortune in the subsequent campaign, and granted peace to the Turks on condition of receiving Georgia. He also conquered Afghanistan, and drove back the invading Usbecks. His ambassador to the Great Mogul having been murdered along with all his suite at Jelalabad, and satisfaction having been refused, N. in revenge ravaged the North-west Provinces, and took Delhi, which he was, by the insane behavior of the inhabitants, reduced to the necessity of pillaging. With booty to the amount of £20,000,000, including the Koh-i-nâr (q. v.) diamond, he returned to the west bank of the Indus. He next reduced Bokhara and Khaurezin, restoring to Persia her limits under the golden reign of the Sasanides. From this period, his character underwent a sudden change: he was formerly open-hearted, liberal, and tolerant; he now became suspicious, avaricious, and tyrannical. The empire groaned under his extortions, and he was finally assassinated on the 20th June 1747. His only surviving son was carried to Constantinople, and thence to Vienna, where he was brought up as a Catholic, under the surveillance of the Empress Maria Theresa, and died a major in the Austrian service, under the title of Baron Semlin. N.'s tyranny has now been forgotten; and at the present day, he is regarded with pride and gratitude as the "Wallace" of Persia.

**NÆVIUS**. Cu., one of the earliest Latin poets, was born, probably in Campania, in the first half of the 3d c. B. C. In his youth, he served in the first Punic war; but about the year 235 B. C., he made his appearance at Rome as a dramatic writer. Of his life, we know little; but of his character, rather more. He was very decidedly attached to the plebeian party; and in his plays, satirised and lampooned the Roman nobles with all the virulence and indiscretion of a hot-blooded impetuous Campanian—that Gascon of ancient Italy! His roughness ultimately caused his banishment to Utica in Africa, where he died, 204 or 202 B. C. Besides his dramatic writings, comprising both tragedies and comedies, he wrote an epic poem, "De Bello Punico," in the old Saturnian metre. Of these, only a few very unimportant fragments are extant, which may be found in Boethius's "Poetarum Latinorum Scenæ."

corum Fragmenta" (Halberstadt, 1824) : or Kleinmann's collection of the same (Jena, 1843), enriched by a life of N., and an essay on his poetry. See also Sollars's "Poets of the Roman Republic" (Edin. 1853).

**NÆVUS** (known practically as *mother-spot* or mole) is a congenital mark or growth on a part of the skin. Sometimes it is merely a dark discoloration of the surface as described in the article **MACULE**, in which case it is termed a mole and is perfectly harmless; but often it consists of a dense network of dilated blood-vessels, forming a reddish or livid tumor, more or less elevated above the surface of the surrounding skin. The most frequent situations of these vascular nevi are the skin and subcutaneous cellular tissue of the head; but they may occur elsewhere. The popular belief is, that they are caused by the longing of the mother during her pregnancy for a lobster, or strawberry or raspberry, or some other red-colored article of food, and that the influence of her mind has impressed upon the fetus a more or less vivid image of the thing she longed for; and hence the name of *mother-spot*. Sometimes these tumors waste away spontaneously, and give no trouble; but frequently they increase rapidly, invade the adjacent tissues, and ulcerate or slough, and thus become dangerous to life by haemorrhage. When these tumors do not shew a tendency to increase, no treatment is necessary. When they are obviously increasing in size, the continual application of cold (by means of freezing mixture), with moderately firm pressure, is sometimes of service; but a more certain method is to employ means to produce such an amount of inflammation as to obliterate the vessels; for this purpose, the seton, the application of nitric acid, and vaccination of the tumor, have been successfully applied. The injection of strong astringents, with the view of coagulating the blood, has sometimes effected a cure. If all those means fail, extirpation, either with the ligature or knife, must be resorted to; the ligature being regarded as the safest and best method. For the various methods of applying the ligature, the reader is referred to any standard work on operative surgery. If the tumor is in an inaccessible spot, as in the orbit of the eye, and is increasing rapidly, the only course is to tie the large vascular trunk supplying it. The common carotid artery has in several instances been tied with success for vascular nevus in the orbit.

**NÄFELS**, a village of Switzerland, in the canton of Glarus, and five miles north of the town of that name, in a deep valley, is one of the most famous battle-fields in the country. Pop. (1870) 2490. Here, in 1888, 1500 men of Glarus, under Matthias am Bühl, overthrew an Austrian force of from 6000 to 8000 men. The event is still celebrated yearly.

**NA'FTIA**, Lago, a curious small lake in Sicily, about two miles from Mineo, in Catania. It is situated in a plain, amidst craggy hills, and is of a circular form, commonly sixty or seventy yards in diameter, and about fifteen feet deep, but in dry weather shrinking to a much smaller size, and being occasionally altogether dried up. In the midst of it are three small craters, two of which perpetually scud up water in jets to the height of two or three feet; the third is more intermittent. The water is greenish, or turbid, and has an odor of bitumen. The whole lake resembles a boiling cauldron, from the escape of carbonic acid gas, rushing upwards with great force. The atmosphere is consequently fatal to birds attempting to fly across the surface of the lake, and to small animals which approach it to satisfy their thirst; and an approach to it is attended with headache and other painful circumstances to man himself. The ancients regarded these phenomena with great dread. They supposed that Pluto, when carrying off Proserpine, drove his fiery steeds through this lake, ere his descent to the lower regions. A temple was erected here to the gods of the two craters, the *Dii Palici*, who were supposed to be twin sons of Jupiter, by the nymph Thalia. Pilgrims flocked to this shrine; and it afforded an inviolable asylum to slaves who had fled from their masters. An oath by the *Dii Palici* was never broken by the master, who found himself compelled here to come to terms with his runaway slave. No remains of the temple of the *Dii Palici* are left, although it is described as having been magnificent.

**NÄGA** is, in Hindu Mythology, the name of deified serpents, which are represented as the sons of the Muni Kas'yapa and his wife Kadru, whence they are also called Kädraveyas. Their king is S'esha, the sacred serpent of Vishn'u.

NĀGAPATA'M, a seaport of British India, on the Coromandel coast, in the province of Tanjur, 15 miles south of Karikkal. It was taken by the Dutch in 1660, but fell into the hands of the English in 1781. Its site is an open sandy plain, elevated only three or four feet above sea-level. The port is visited by small vessels, and carries on some trade with Ceylon. Pop. at the census of 1851, 48,525.

NĀGĀRJUNA, or Nāgāsena, is the name of one of the most celebrated Buddhist teachers or patriarchs—the thirteenth—who, according to some, lived about 400 years, according to others, about 500 years, after the death of the Buddha Śākyamuni (i. e. 143 or 48 B.C.). He was the founder of the Mādhyamika school, and his principal disciples were Aryadeva and Bodhisattva. According to the tradition of the Buddhas, he was born in the south of India, in a Brahmanical family. Even as a child, he studied all the four Vedas; later, he travelled through various countries, and became proficient in astronomy, geography, and magical arts. By means of the last, he had several amorous adventures, which ended in the death of three companions of his, but in his own repentance, and, with the assistance of a Buddhist mendicant, in his conversion to Buddhism. Many miracles are, of course, attributed to his career as propagator of this doctrine, especially in the south of India, and his life is said to have lasted 300 years.—See E. Burnouf, "Introduction à l'Historie du Bouddhisme Indien" (Paris, 1844); Spence Hardy, "A Manual of Buddhism" (Lond. 1838); W. Wassiljew, "Der Buddhismus, seine Dogmen, Geschichte und Literatur" (St Petersburg, 1860).

NAGASA'KI, or Nangasaki, a city and port of Japan, opened to foreign commerce by the treaty of 1858, on the first July 1859, is situated in  $32^{\circ} 44'$  n. lat., and  $139^{\circ} 51'$  e. long., on the western side of a peninsula in the northwest of the Island of Kinsin. Previously to 1859, it was the only port in Japan open to foreigners. The harbor, which is one of the most beautiful in the world, is about six miles in width, and three or four in length. To a person inside, it appears completely land-locked, and it is surrounded by hills of about 1500 feet in height. These are broken into long ridges and deep valleys; while the more fertile spots are terraced and under cultivation. The town of N., which is about a mile in length, and three quarters of a mile in width, lies on the north side of the bay; its population is estimated at 70,000. The streets in general are clean and well-paved, but the houses are not particularly good, except those possessed by courtesans, and known as "te-houses." On the hills behind the town are various temples, those dedicated to "Sinto," or the worship of the sun god, which is the old national religion of Japan, and those in which the Buddhist worship, imported from China, is followed. The foreign settlement lies to the south of the native town, the British, French, German, Prussian, and Portuguese, consulates occupying the hilly ground back from the bay. On the opposite side of the bay, the Japanese have a steam-factory, under the direction of Dutch officers, and close by is the Russian settlement. The climate of N. is genial but variable. The trade of N. is inferior to that of Kanagawa. Sea-weed, salt-fish, and other articles are exported to China. The exports to Europe are mainly tea, tobacco, coal, ginseng, vegetable wax, and copper. The chief imports are cotton piece-goods, woollen goods, sugar, oils. The total value of imports in 1875 amounted to £,617,000 dollars, and of the exports to close on 2,000,000 dollars. The import trade suffers (according to the consular report of 1872) from the very confined outlet of this market, the absence of wealthy native merchants, and of all the banking facilities, both foreign and native, existing at Hiogo, Osaca, and Yokohama.

NA'GEI.FLUE, the provincial name for a bed of conglomerate belonging to the Mollasse (q. v.), which forms a considerable portion of the strata in the central region of Switzerland, between the Alps and the Jura. It is said to attain the enormous thickness of 6000 and 8000 feet in the Rhigi near Lucerne, and in the Speer near Wesen.

NAGKESUR, the name under which the blossoms of the *Mesua ferrea* are sold in the bazaars of India. See GUTTIFERÆ.

NAGPU'R, a city of British India, capital of the province of the same name, and situated near its north-west extremity, in an unhealthy swampy hollow, 430 miles in a direct line east-north-east of Bombay. Inclusive of its extensive suburbs,

it is seven miles in circumference. It contains no important edifices. The great body of the inhabitants live in thatched mud-tents, interspersed with trees, which prevent the circulation of air, and secrete moisture, thus rendering the town unnecessarily unhealthy. The mean temperature of N. is estimated at about 80° F. Cotton cloths, coarse and fine chintzes, turbans, silks, brocades, blankets, woollens, tent-cloths, and articles in copper and brass, are manufactured. Here, on the 26th and 27th November 1817, a small British force of 1350 men, commanded by Colonel Scott, defeated a native army of 18,000 men. Pop. (1872) 84,441.

**NAGPUR**, an extensive inland province of British India, is under the chief commissioner of the Central Provinces. Its area is 22,343 square miles, and its population in 1872 was 2,280,081; but this designation has been used to include a much greater area. The north part of the province is mountainous in character, being traversed by spurs of the great Vindhya range; the general slope of the surface is from north-west to south-east, and the Bay of Bengal receives the drainage of the country chiefly through the rivers Mahanadī and Wāin Gāngā—the latter a tributary of the Godāvāri. The climate is not healthy, and is especially insalubrious in the extensive tracts of low marshy land which abound in the province. The Gonds (*s.e. INDIA*), supposed to be the aborigines, are the most remarkable class of the inhabitants. They rear fowls, swine, and buffaloes; but their country, forming the south-easterly tract—about one-third of the whole—is covered with a dense jungle, swarming with tigers. In the more favored districts, where the inhabitants are more industrious, rice, maize, oil, and other seeds, and vegetables are extensively cultivated. The rajahs of N., sometimes called the rajahs of Berar, ruled over a state formed out of at part of the great Mahratta kingdom. The dynasty, however, died out in 1853 and the territory came into the possession of the British. The province has five divisions—capital, Nagpur.

**NAG'S HEAD CONSECRATION.** This story, which was first circulated by the Roman Catholics forty years after the event, with respect to Archbishop Parker's consecration, was to the following effect. On the passing of the first Act of Uniformity in the first year of Queen Elizabeth, fourteen bishops vacated their sees, and all the other sees excepting that of Llandaff being vacant, there was a difficulty in maintaining the hitherto unbroken succession of bishops from apostolical times. Kitchin of Llandaff refused to officiate at Parker's consecration, and consequently the Protestant divines procured the help of Scory, a deprived bishop of the reign of Edward VI., and all having met at the Nag's Head Tavern in Cheapside, they knelt before Scory, who laid a Bible on their heads or shoulders, saying: "Take thou authority to preach the word of God sincerely;" and they rose up bishops of the New Church of England! The story is discredited by the Roman Catholic historian Lingard, and is carefully refuted by Strype in his life of Parker. The facts of the case are, that the election took place in the chapter-house at Canterbury, the confirmation at St Mary le Bow's Church in Cheapside, and the consecration in the chapel of Lambeth Palace. Scory, then elected to the see of Hereford; Barlow, formerly Bishop of Wells, then elected to Chichester; Coverdale, formerly of Exeter, and never reappointed to any see; and Hodgkin, suffragan of Hereford, officiated at the consecration. The Nag's Head story probably arose from the company having possibly gone from Bow Church, after the confirmation, to take a dinner together—the tavern hard by, according to the prevailing custom. The due succession of bishops in the English Church has never been broken.

**NAGY**, a Hungarian word, meaning "great." It is prefixed to the names of many towns in Hungary and Transylvania. In the present work, many of the towns that take this prefix are given under the name that comes after it.

**NAGY BA'NYA.** See BANYA.

**NAGY ENYE'D** a small town of Transylvania, on the Maros, 17 miles north-north-east of Karlsburg. It contains a famous Calvinistic college. Pop. (1869) 6719.

**NA'GY KARÓLY** (i. e., Great Karóly), a town of Hungary, capital of the county Szathmár, 37 miles east-north-east from Debreczin, on a small feeder of the Theiss. It has several important annual fairs, and a trade in corn and cattle. Pop. (1869) 12,754.

**NA'HUM**, one of the twelve minor prophets, was a native either of Elkosh, in Galilee, or the son of a man named Elkosh. The identification of his birthplace with Capernaum (Nahum's Village) or a place called Elkosh, on the east side of the Tigris, not far from Nineveh, is the result of vague speculation. He was probably a contemporary of Isaiah, and flourished about 718-711 B.C. The burden of his "vision" (in 8d chap.) is the destruction of Nineveh and the downfall of the Assyrian kingdom. His style is full of animation, fancy, and originality, and at the same time clear and rounded. His language throughout is classical, and in the purest Hebrew, belonging to the second half of Hezekiah's reign, or to the time immediately following the defeat of Sennacherib before Jerusalem (2 Kings xix. 35, &c.). A commentary on N., with special reference to the Assyrian monuments lately discovered, has been written by O. Strauss (Berlin, 1853).

**NA'IA.** See **ASP** and **COBRA**.

**NA'IADES**, *Naiada'ce*, or *Potamoea*, a natural order of endogenous plants divided by some botanists into several orders (*Juncaginace*, *Zosteracea*, &c.), containing in all not quite 100 known species, all aquatic plants, some of them inhabiting the ocean, some found in lakes and ponds, some in streams. They are all of very cellular structure; the leaves have parallel veins, and the flowers are inconspicuous. To this order belongs the Pondweed (*Potamogeton*), of which a number of species abound in the still waters of Britain, and of which some are found as far north as Iceland. To this order also belongs the **GRASSWRACK** (q. v.) of our shores, used for stuffing mattresses. The Lattice-leaf (q. v.) of Madagascar is one of the most interesting species, and one of the few which attract notice as in any way beautiful.

**NA'IADS**, in Grecian Mythology, the nymphs of fresh-water lakes, rivers, and fountains. They were believed to possess the power of inspiration; hence, sooth-sayers and others are sometimes called *nympholeptoi* (seized by the nymph). They were represented as half-clothed maidens, and not unfrequently as companions of Pan, of Hercules, the patron of warm springs, or of the **Silens** and the **Satyrs**, in whose jovial dances they join.

**NA'IANT**, or **Na'tant** (Lat. *natare*, to swim), a heraldic term applied to a fish when borne horizontally across the shield in a swimming position.

**NAIGUE**, or **Naik**, a native subaltern officer among Indian and Anglo-Asiatic troops, whose functions are somewhat analogous to those performed among European troops by the drill-sergeant.

**NAILS** are flattened, elastic, horny plates, which are placed as protective coverings on the dorsal surface of the terminal phalanges of the fingers and toes. Each nail consists of a root, or part concealed within a fold of the skin; a body, or exposed part attached to the surface of the skin; and a free anterior extremity called the *edge*. The skin below the root and body of the nail is termed the *matrix*, from its being the part from which the nail is produced. This is thick, and covered with highly vascular papillæ, and its color is seen through the transparent horny tissue. Near the root, the papillæ are smaller and less vascular; hence the portion of nail corresponding to this part is of a whiter color; from its form, this portion is termed the *lunula*. It is by the successive growth of new cells at the root and under the body of the nail that it advances forwards, and maintains a due thickness, whilst at the same time its growth in a proper direction is insured. The chemical composition of the nails is given in the article **HORNY TISSUES**, to which class of structures they belong. According to the observations of Bean, the finger-nails grow at the rate of about two-fifths of a line in a week, while the toe-nails only grow with about one-fourth of that rapidity. When a nail has been removed by violence, or has been thrown off in consequence of the formation of matter (pus) beneath it, a new nail is speedily formed, provided the matrix has not been seriously injured.

There is a very common and troublesome affection popularly known as *ingrowing nail*. Its most usual seat is by the side of the great toe. It does not in reality arise from any alteration of the nail, but from the adjacent soft parts being constantly pressed by the use of tight shoes against its edge. These parts become swollen and inflamed; suppuration ensues, and an intensely sensitive ulcer is formed, in which the nail is embedded. Surgical advice should at once be resorted to in these cases.

as there is no probability that the nicer will heal spontaneously, especially if the patient continue to move about, and thus keep up irritation. In obstinate cases, it is not unfrequently necessary to remove a portion of the nail, an operation attended with much pain, although quickly performed.

NAILS, pointed pieces of metal, usually with flattened or rounded heads, used for driving into wood-work, for the purpose of holding the pieces together. A variety, in which the head is very large, and the spike portion small, used by shoemakers for protecting the soles of boots and shoes from wear is called the *hob-nail*; another, which is made by cutting thin plate-iron into thin pointed pieces of various lengths, is called *brads*; these sometimes are without heads, but are usually made with a slight projection by way of a head. When made small, with flat heads, for attaching cloth or hangings in upholstery-work, they are called *tacks*; and when very large for heavy carpentry, *spikes*.

*Nail-making.*—Formerly, all nails were hand-made, by forging on an anvil; and in Britain and the north of Europe, vast quantities are still made in this manner, being preferable, for many kinds of carpenters' work, to those made by machinery. In France, the greater part of the nails used for light carpentry-work are made of soft iron wire, pointed with the hammer; and in order to head them, they are pinched in a toothed vice, which leaves the portion for the head projecting, and makes be'ow it three or four grooves in the nail, which increase its hold on the wood when driven home. The head is beaten into a counter-sinking on the vice, which regulates the size.

The iron used for hand nail-making in Britain is sold in bundles, and is called *nail-rods*; it is either prepared by rolling the malleable iron into rods or small bars of the required thickness—which process is only employed for very fine qualities—or by cutting plate-iron into strips by means of rolling-shears; these shears consist of two powerful revolving shafts, upon which are fixed discs of hard steel with squared edges. The discs of one shaft alternate with those of the other; they are of the thickness of the plate to be cut, and the shafts are so placed, that a small portion of one set of the discs are inserted between those of the other set. When the shafts are revolving, a plate of iron is pressed between the discs, and it is forcibly drawn through, the steel discs cutting the plates into strips with great rapidity. The quantity produced in this way is enormous, some mills turning out at the rate of ten miles per hour of nail-rods.

Several inventions, in which America took the lead, have been introduced, and are successfully worked, for making nails direct from plate-iron, either by cutting them out cold or hot; and a very large proportion of the nails in use are made in this way. Nail-making by machinery was originated in Massachusetts in 1810.

#### NAIN DE TILLEMONT. See TILLEMONT.

NAIRN, in the county of the same name, is a royal, parliamentary, and municipal burgh, and is 15 miles north-east by rail from Inverness. It is situated at the mouth of the river Nairn, on the west side, and for that reason was anciently called Inver-Nairn. Lying on the southern shore of the Moray Firth, which is here about eight miles across, it commands a grand and extensive view of the coast of Ross-shire, including Cromarty Bay, nearly opposite. N. was regalised by William the Lion. It has little historical interest, and few objects worthy of antiquarian attention. It is principally remarkable for the excellency of its sea-bathing and artificial baths, in which respect it is equal, if not superior, to any town in the north of Scotland, as a resort in summer. The temperature is mild and equable. The inhabitants enjoy a remarkable immunity from epidemic diseases. There is a considerable harbor. The town has a literary society, a museum, a newspaper, three branch banks, and a savings bank. It is conspicuous for good and cheap education. Pop. in 1871, 3751. N. unites with Inverness, Forres, and Fortrose in sending a member to parliament.

NAIRNSHIRE is bounded on the n. by the Moray Firth, and on its other sides by the counties of Inverness and Moray, of the latter of which it anciently formed a part. It extends north and south 22 miles, and 15 miles from east to west. Its area is 915 square miles, or 187,500 acres, of which about 26,000 are under cultivation. Pop. in 1871, 10,225, including the burgh of Nairn. Along with Elginshire, it returns one member to parliament. Constituency (1876—1877), 268; rental, £34,941. Nairn is

the only royal burgh in the county, but there are the villages of Cawdor and Auldearn. The soil is for the most part light and sandy. There is, however, considerable agricultural activity, though the county is perhaps better known for its cattle-breeding. An important cattle "tryst" is held at Cawdor once a month during the greater part of the year. The climate of this country is distinguished for its salubrity, and the temperature is remarkably equable. The thermometer in the shade has not risen above  $78^{\circ} 3'$ , or fallen below  $11^{\circ} 2'$ , during the last twenty years. According to the latest observations, the yearly rainfall did not amount to more than 26 inches, the greatest fall being in October, and the least in April. At Brackla Distillery, which belongs to Robert Fraser, Esq., from 40,000 to 50,000 gallons of spirits are manufactured annually. The river Nairn runs through the county in a beautiful valley, which presents particularly attractive and romantic scenery in the neighborhood of Cawdor Castle, one of the residences of the Earl of Cawdor. This castle is of uncertain antiquity, and is in an excellent state of preservation. It was the residence of the ancient Thanes of Cawdor, one of whom is mentioned in "Macbeth." About the year 1510, the estates belonging to the earldom passed by marriage from the old family of Calder into the hands of a son of the Duke of Argyle, and are still in the possession of his descendants. Not a few other objects of antiquarian interest are to be found in the county of Nairn.

**NAISSANT**, a term applied in heraldic blazon to an animal depicted as coming forth out of the middle—not like *Issueant* or *Jessant* (q. v.), out of the boundary line—of an ordinary.

**NAKHICHEV'A'N**, on the Don, a thriving town of South Russia, in the government of Ekaterinoslav, on the right bank of the Don, and near the mouth of that river, two miles east of Rostov. It was founded in 1779 by Armenian settlers from the Crimea, and has (1867) 16,584 inhabitants, mostly Armenians, belonging to the Greek-Armenian Church. The inhabitants are engaged in the manufacture of silver ornaments and woollen goods, and an extensive trade is carried on.

**NAKSHATRA** (a Sanscrit word of doubtful etymology, but probably a compound of an obsolete base *naksha*, night, and *tra*, protecting, i. e., literally night-protecting) means properly star, and is used in this sense in the Vedas. At a later period, it was applied to the asterisms lying in the moon's path, or to the mansions in which the moon is supposed to rest in her, or rather, according to Hindu notions, *his* path. The number of these asterisms was reckoned originally at 27, later at 28; and mythology transformed them into as many daughters of the patriarch Daksha, who became the wives of the moon. See **Moon**. Biot, the distinguished French astronomer, endeavored to shew that the Hindu system of the Nakshatras was derived from the Chinese *stien*; but his theory, though supported by very learned arguments, has been refuted by Professor Whitney, in his notes to Burgess's translation of the "*Surya-Siddhānta*" (New Haven, United States, 1860), and by Professor Müller in his preface to the 4th volume of the "*Rig-Veda*" (Lond. 1862); for their arguments leave little doubt that the system of the Nakshatras originated from the Hindu mind.

**NALA** is a legendary king of ancient India—a king of Nishadha—whose love for Damayanti, the daughter of Bhima, king of Vidarbha, and the adventures arising from, or connected with, it—the loss of his kingdom, the abandonment of his wife and children, and their ultimate restoration—have supplied several Hindu poets with the subject of their muse. The oldest poem relating to Nala and Damayanti is a celebrated episode of the "*Mahābhārata*" (q. v.), edited both in India and Europe, and translated in Latin by Bopp; in German by Kosegarten, Bopp, Rückert, and Meier; and in English by Dean Milman. The two other renowned poems treating of the same legend, but with far less completeness, are the "*Nalodaya*" (q. v.) and the "*Nishadacharita*" of Sūti-Harsha.

**NALODAYA** is the name of a Sanscrit poem which is highly prized by the modern Hindus. Its subject is the story of Nala (q. v.), but more concisely narrated than in the episode of the "*Mahābhārata*," whence its contents are borrowed; and its reputed author is Kālidāsa (q. v.). Great doubts, however, must attach to the attribution of this authorship, if by Kālidāsa the author of "*Sākuntala*" is meant, and not some other poet bearing the same name; for the merits of this poem consists neither in elevation of thought nor in richness of fiction: they are sought for by the

citizen had three. The *praenomen*, like our Christian name, was personal to the individual—Caius, Marcus, Cneius; in writing generally abbreviated to an initial or two letters, C., M., or Cu. It was given in early times on the attainment of puberty, and afterwards on the ninth day after birth. There were about thirty recognised *praenomina*. Women had no praenomen till marriage, when they took the feminine form of that borne by their husband. Every Roman citizen belonged both to a *gens* and to a *familia* included in that gens. The second name was the *nomen gentilicium*, generally ending in -*tus*, -*ius*, or -*atis*. The third name was the hereditary *cognomen* belonging to the *familia*. *Cognomina* were often derived from some bodily peculiarity, or event in the life of the founder of the family. A second cognomen, or *agnomen*, as it was called, was sometimes added by way of honorary distinction. In common intercourse, the praenomina and cognomina were used without the *nomen gentilicium*, as C. Caesar for C. Julius Caesar, M. Cicero for M. Tullius Cicero. The Roman names were in their origin less dignified and aspiring than the Greek; some were derived from ordinary employments, as *Porcini* (swineherd), Cicero (vetch grower); some from personal peculiarities, *Crassus* (fat), *Naso* (long-nosed); a few from numerals, *Sextus*, *Septimus*.

The Celtic and Teutonic names, like the Jewish and Greek, had been originally very significant; but at an early period their exuberance became checked; people contented themselves with repeating the old stock. While the speech of Europe was undergoing a transformation, the names in use remained the same; belonging to an obsolete tongue, their signification by and by became unintelligible to the people using them. Many are derived from "God," as Gottfried, Godwin; some from an inferior class of gods known by the title *as* or *ans*, whence Anselm, Oscar, Edmund; others from elves or genii, Alfred, Alboin, Elfric (Elf King). Bertha is the name of a favorite feminine goddess and source of light, from the same root as the word "bright;" the same word occurs as a compound in Albrecht, Bertram. To a large class of names indicating such qualities as personal prowess, wisdom, and nobility of birth, belong Hildebrand (war brand), Konrad (bold in counsel), Hlodwig (glorious warrior), called by us Clovis, and the original of Ludwig and Louis. The wolf, the bear, the eagle, the boar, and the lion entered into the composition of many proper names of men, as Adolf (noble wolf), Arnold (valiant eagle), Osborn (God bear). Respect for feminine prowess also appeared in such names as Mathilde (mighty amazon), Wolfhilde (wolf heroine). The spread of Christianity threw a number of the old names into comparative oblivion, and introduced new ones. The name selected at baptism was more frequently taken from the history of the Bible or the church than from the old traditional repertory, which, however, was never altogether disused. Many names, supposed to be local and very ancient, particularly in the Scottish Highlands, Wales, and Cornwall, are in reality but corruptions of names of Christian origin which are in use elsewhere. Owen, Evan, and Eoghan (the latter often Anglicised into Hector) seem all to be forms of Johann or John. A change of name was sometimes made at confirmation.

Periods of religious and political excitement have had a very powerful influence in modifying the fashion in names. The Puritans would only admit of two classes of names, those directly expressive of religious sentiment—Praise-God, Live-well—and names which occur in Scripture; these latter indiscriminately made use of, however obscure their meaning, or however indifferent the character of the original bearer of them. Old Testament names were used in preference to New, probably because they did not convey the notion of a patron saint. Old Testament names still prevail largely in America, where exists a medley of Christian names from all possible sources. At the French Revolution, names supposed to favor of either loyalty or religion were abandoned, and those of Greek and Roman heroes came into vogue instead. The Augustan period of English literature gave a temporary popularity to such feminine names as Narcissa, Celia, Sabina. In Germany, the names in use are particularly free from foreign admixture; they are almost all either of Teutonic origin, or connected with the early history of Christianity. In Britain, the number of names has, particularly since the Reformation, been more limited than in most other countries. In some families of distinction, unusual names have been handed down from father to son for centuries—e. g., Pergrine among the Berties, and Sholto in the Douglas family. The accumulation of two or more Christian names only became common in the present century, and another

practice which has gained ground in Britain is the use of surnames as Christian names. More recently, various old names, particularly feminine names, as Mand, Florence, Ethel, have been withdrawn from their obscurity, and resuscitated.

The use of fixed family surnames cannot be traced much further back than the latter part of the 10th century. They first came into use in France, and particularly in Normandy. At the Conquest, they were introduced into England by the Norman adventurers, and were general at the Domesday Valuation. Many of the followers of William had taken names from their paternal chateaux or villages on the other side of the Channel, names which were used with the French preposition *de* before them. Their younger sons and others applied the "de" to estates awarded to them as their portion of the conquered country, and called themselves De Hastings, De Winton, &c., a prefix probably never in vernacular use in England, and completely discarded with the disappearance of Norman-French, unless in a few cases where it was retained for the sake of euphony, or from coalescing with the initial vowel, as in De la Böche, Danvers (d'Anvers), Dangerfield (d'Angerville). When English was used in place of Norman-French, the "de" was always rendered into "of." The affectation of resuming it in recent times is as unwarrantable in theory as in fact. Such a designation as Lord De Tabley of Tabley House is an unmeaning tautology. The Scotch have a more expressive designation when they say Colloquhoun of that Ilk. In France and Germany, a territorial surname (denoted by "de" or "von") came, when surnames spread to all classes, to be the mark of nobility, so much so that in later times, when any one was ennobled by the sovereign, the "de" was prefixed to his previously plebian and not territorial name. In Britain the "de" was never considered the test of nobility; the names of some of the most distinguished families were not territorial—e. g., Stewart, Butler, Spencer. In Scotland, surnames were hardly in use till the 12th c., and were for a long time very variable. The assumption of surnames by the common people is everywhere of much later date than their use by noble (gentle) families. As yet they can hardly be said to be adopted by the people of the wilder districts of Wales.

There are many existing local surnames in Britain besides those derived from the names of the manors of the gentry or landholders. Farms, homesteads, the natural features of the country, all gave their names to those who resided at or near them; hence such names as Wood, Marsh, Dale. The pre-position "at" is in a few cases retained, as in Atwood, A'Court, Nash (atten-ash, i. e., at the ash). The travelling habits of the Scots account for such names as Inglis, Fleming, Welsh (the original of Wallace), applied to those who had visited foreign parts; and sometimes a Scot-man, wandering into England, returned with the acquired name of Scott.

A large class of surnames are patronymics, often formed by "son," or its equivalent in the language of the country, added to the Christian name of the father. Names of this sort often fluctuate from generation to generation. Alan Walterson had a son, Walter, who called himself Walter Alanson. The genitive case of the father's name sometimes served the same purpose, as Adams, Jones; and similarly in Italian, Dosso, Dossi. A fashion of using "Fitz," the equivalent of "son," before the ancestral name, as in Fitzherbert, prevailed temporarily in Normandy, whence it was imported into England. In the Highlands of Scotland, the prefix "Mac" (Macdonald) served the same purpose, which, however, fluctuated far longer than the patronymic surnames of England and the Lowlands; so also the "O" (grandson) of the Irish (O'Neil), and "Ap" of the Welsh (Ap Rhys, otherwise Aprece). The "de" of France had sometimes a similar origin, as in d'André, d'Hngues; and still more frequently the "de," "di," or "degli" of Italy—di Cola, di Giacomo.

Office, occupation, or condition, gives rise to surnames—e. g., Knight, Marshall, Page, Smith, Brewster, Shepherd; in Germany and Holland, Rauber and de Rogver (robber); and from such appellatives, patronymics may be again derived; thus, we have Smithson, de Maistre (master's son), M'Nab (son of the abbot), McPherson (son of the parson), del Sarto (son of the tailor), &c. So also personal qualities—Black, White, Strong, Stark, Lang (long), Littlejohn, Cruikshanks; and nicknames have not unfrequently been perpetuated as surnames. We have also surnames derived from the signs and cognizances which were borne in the middle ages, not only by inns and shops, but by private houses. John at the Bell became John Bell; at Middleberg, in Holland, Simon, apothecary in the "Drake," or Dragon, became Simon Drack; hence, probably, the frequency of family names derived from animals, and

also of those beginning with "Saint;" though this last class may, perhaps, sometimes have had its origin in the first owner of the name dedicating himself to the service of the saint in question. In Scotland and Ireland, "Th." is a distinctive title borne by the heads of some old families—as "Th. Chisholm," "Th. O'Connor Don." In the Highlands of Scotland, the chief of a clan is usually addressed by the name alone in a marked manner; thus, "Mackintosh" implies specially Macleod of Dunvegan, in Syke, head of the clan Mackintosh; "Makintosh," in like manner, applies solely to Mackintosh of Moy, in Inverness-shire.

In England, the number of existing surnames approaches to 40,000, or about one to every five hundred individuals; in Scotland, there are far fewer surnames in proportion to the population. The remarkable predominance of certain surnames in certain localities—as Campbell, Cameron, Maclean in Argyleshire, Macdonald in Inverness, Mackay in Sutherland, Gordon and Forbes in Aberdeenshire, and Scott, Kerr, Elliot, Maxwell, and Johnstone on the borders—arises from the clansmen having made a practice of taking the name of their chiefs, considering themselves members of their family by adoption, if not otherwise. Elsewhere than in Scotland, vassals often adopted the names of their lords, and servants those of their masters. Two or more surnames are often borne by one individual, in which case the paternal surname is sometimes placed first, sometimes last; and, in recent times, it is by the name which occurs last that the bearer of the two surnames is most frequently known.

The wife, with us at least, changes her surname to that of her husband on marriage. In the continent, it is not unusual for the husband to append his wife's name to his own; and in Spain, the wife retains her own name, while the son is at liberty to use either paternal or maternal name as he pleases, the choice generally falling on the best family.

*Change of name.*—Prior to the Reformation, surnames were less fixed than they have since become. Occasionally, younger sons, instead of retaining their patronymic, adopted the name of their estate or place of residence. A great matrimonial alliance was a frequent cause for adopting the patronymic of the wife. With the clergy, ordination was a common occasion of a change of name, the personal surname being exchanged for the name of the place of birth—thus, William Longe became William of Wykeham. In time of political troubles, a new name was often assumed for concealment; and in Scotland, the name of M'Gregor was proscribed in 1664 by an act of the privy council. In modern times, injunctions in settlements of land, and deeds of entail, are frequent grounds for a change of name, it being made a condition that the devisee or donee shall assume a certain surname under penalty of forfeiture, a stipulation which the law recognises as valid. Such an obligation is often combined with one relative to arms. In a Scotch entail, it is a very frequent condition that each succeeding heir of entail, or husband of an heiress of entail, shall assume the entaller's name and arms, or his name and arms *exclusively*; in the former case, he may, if he pleases, continue to use his own surname along with the assumed one. The heir of entail is not held legally to take up any arms not otherwise his own, unless he have applied to the heraldic authorities for leave so to do. Where a Scotch entail contained an injunction to bear arms which had no existence in the official record of arms, the condition has not been held to be null; the heir of entail must apply to the Lord Lyon for a grant of arms bearing the designation of those dispensed. In England, it used to be common to obtain a private act of parliament to authorise one to change his surname; and authority for such a proceeding has generally been given in later times by royal licence, which is granted only on a reasonable ground being established for the alteration, to the satisfaction of the king-at-arms, to whom a remit is made. It has sometimes been supposed that this royal licence is necessary to legalise such a change, but the highest legal authorities have laid it down that there is nothing in the law of England to prevent any one, who may consider it for his interest so to do, to change his surname, or even his Christian name. The idea, lately prevalent to some extent, is equally erroneous, that an advertisement in a gazette or newspaper, or the execution of some deed, is a necessary form in order to effect a change of name. There are always great inconveniences in changing one's name, which sufficiently account for the general indisposition to do so, except from a questionable motive. As there is no law to prevent a person from changing his

name, so there is, on the other hand, no law to compel third parties to use the new name, and disputes and annoyances arising from such a state of things are matters of course. The change tends to a certain extent to destroy the means of identification after the lapse of years, which may or may not be the object desired. Notwithstanding these difficulties and inconveniences, there are many examples of persons who have succeeded after a few years in being generally known under a new name, and of the public as well as his friends recognising it. The change of name, in general, produces no change whatever on the legal status. A party is equally punishable for swindling, larceny, and other cognate offences, whatever name he uses; and, on the other hand, if he is legit., he is not prevented from establishing and receiving his legacy, whatever name he has adopted. It follows from what precedes that no person is punishable for using a new name, though it is sometimes an ingredient for a jury to take into consideration when they are required to infer a particular motive of conduct. The royal licence is practically required to be obtained by Englishmen (not Scotchmen) holding commissions in the army, as also when the change of name is to be accompanied by a change of arms, it being the practice of the English Herald's College to refuse to grant arms corresponding to such change, unless the royal licence have been obtained. In Scotland, a *bona fide* change of name requires neither royal, judicial, nor parliamentary authority, the sole exception being the case of members of the College of Justice, who require the permission of the Court of Session. A royal licence is not generally applied for by natives of Scotland, as it is not required to be produced to the Lord Lyon on applying for a corresponding change of arms. The arms will generally be granted when the Lord Lyon is satisfied that the change has been made on some reasonable ground, and not from a purely capricious motive; and the fact of the change of name, with the reason why it has been made, are narrated in the new patent of arms. When such change of surname and corresponding change of arms has been made by a Scotsman who is an officer in the army, the authorities of the War Office are in the habit of requiring a certificate from the Lyon Office to the effect that the change is recognised there.

*Names of places.*—These, like names of persons, belong, in a great measure, to the language of past races. All over Great Britain, a very large proportion are derived from the Celtic names for natural features of the country. From *Gwyng*, *afon*, *tam*, *tan*, *clwyd*—in the Celtic speech (equivalent to water or river)—we have Esk, Avon, Wye, Thames, Tavy, Clyde. *Pen* or *Ben*, hill, gives rise to the names of hills in England and Wales (Penrhys, Penzance), and still more in Scotland (Ben Nevis). So, also, *cwm*, *comb*, valley—as in Cumberland, land of valleys. The memory of the Roman invasion has been preserved in the termination *-chester* (derived from *castra*) in the names of towns, as Manchester. Though surnames often originated in local names, the reverse process also occurred; as where *ville*, *ton* or *ington*, *ham* or *dunriga*, has been appended to the name of the owner of the land, e. g., Charleville, Johnston, Wymondham, Edinburgh (i. e., Edwin's burgh).

See Pott's "Die Personennamen und ihre Entstehungsarten" (2 vols., 1858; 2d ed. 1860); Miss Yonge "History of Christian Names" (Lond. 1863); Lower, "On English Surnames" (Lond. 1849); Professor Innes, "Concerning Some Scotch Surnames" (Edin. 1860).

NAMUR, a province of Belgium, bounded on the n. by Brabant and Liége, e. by Luxembourg, w. by Hainault, and s. by France. Area about 1400 square miles. Pop. (December 1874) 319,886. The principal rivers are the Meuse—which entirely intersects the province—the Sambre, and the L'esse. N. presents generally an alternation of fruitful valleys and low hilly tracts; but in some parts, where the heights constitute offshoots of the Ardennes, and are densely wooded, they attain a considerable elevation. With the exception of the land in the south-west, where there are large tracts of bog and heath, the soil is extremely rich, yielding abundant crops and fine pasture. The chief products of N. are wheat, oats, hops, oil yielding plants, and flax. Besides iron, copper, lead, and coal mines, N. has marble and slate quarries, and yields sulphur, alum, cadmium, alumina, flints, &c. It has good steel, iron, and smelting works, breweries, paper-mills, &c. N. is divided into the three arrondissements of Namur, Dinant, and Philippeville. At the close of the 13th c., N. was united to Luxembourg, after having existed as an independent countship for upwards of 150 years. Towards the middle of the 13th c., it passed by purchase to the

House of Flanders, which retained possession of it till 1420; when, on the death of Count John III., without direct heirs, the countship, which was in a state of extreme financial embarrassment, was purchased for 132,000 gold ducats, by Philip the Good, Duke of Burgundy, and subsequently shared the fate of the other Burgundian states.

NAMUR (Flem. *Namen*), the chief town of the province of the same name, is situated at the confluence of the Sambre with the Meuse, and is a strongly fortified town and the seat of a bishop. Pop. in 1876, 25,068. Among its seventeen churches, the cathedral, or St. Aubin's, which was consecrated in 1772, is one of the most beautiful churches of Belgium. M. has an academy of painting, a conservatoire for music, two public libraries, a museum, and hospital for aged paupers, a theological seminary, and two colleges, one conducted by Jesuits. The present citadel was constructed in 1684, but the city has been fortified from the earliest period of its history; and in 1692, its defensive works were repaired and strengthened by Cochoorn, only, however, to be taken in the following year by Louis XIV. and Vauban, the latter of whom added considerably to its original strength. The reputation of its citadel made N. a prized stronghold in every war of later times; and after having been gallantly defended by its French conquerors, in 1815, against the Prussians under Pirch, it was finally restored to the Netherlands after the battle of Waterloo, and at once put into thorough repair. N. is noted for its cutlery, its leather-works, and its iron and brass foundries.

NA'NAS, a town of Hungary, in the midst of extensive morasses, about 110 miles east-north-east from Pesth. The population, partly Protestant and partly Roman Catholic, is employed in cattle-husbandry and agricultural pursuits. Pop. 11,300.

NANA SAHIB, a Hindu, one of the leaders of the sepoy revolt of 1857. He was said to be the son of a Brahman from the Deccan, and his real name was Dhundu Punt. He was born about 1820, and was adopted as a son in 1827 by Bajee Rao, the childless ex-prishwa of Poona, thereby, according to Hindu law and custom, acquiring most of the rights of a legitimate son. He was educated as a Hindu nobleman—taught English, and brought much in contact with the European officers, in whose amusements he seemed fond of participating. A decision was, however, come to by the government of Calcutta, that they should not recognise rights to pensions or indemnities acquired by adoption; and in consequence, N. S. was refused the continuance of a pension of eight lacs of rupees, paid to his adopted father under a treaty made in 1818. This is believed to have rankled in his mind, along with slights he received from the supercilious English youth with whom he came in contact. He was allowed to retain some of the state of a native prince—a revenue of 200 soldiers, with 8 field-pieces, and a fortified residence at Bithoor, 10 miles west of Cawnpore. When the mutiny broke out in May 1857, he offered to assist the English, but instead, he treacherously placed himself at the head of the mutineers. The European troops were induced, on the 26th of June, to capitulate to N. S., who promised them they should be sent down the Ganges in safety. They got on board boats provided for them, but had no sooner done so, than two guns were unmasked, and a murderous fire was opened upon them. The sepoys were ordered to shoot the men, but to spare the women and children, who, when their hands and parents had been shot, were removed to a house in Cawnpore. On the 16th July, Sir H. Havelock, who had advanced to their assistance from Allahabad, defeated the sepoys in two engagements, one within 8 miles of Cawnpore; and N. S. next day directed that the women and children should be put to death, an order carried out with unparalleled atrocity. A long series of engagements against N. S. followed, in which he was always the loser, and he was ultimately driven beyond the English frontier into Nepal. In 1860, his death was announced, but two years later, new movements were discovered, which were attributed to him, and it is not certainly known whether he is dead or alive. Several persons have been arrested on suspicion of being N. S., but in all cases a mistake has been made. A column has been erected at Cawnpore in memory of those who perished in the massacre.

NANCY, a beautiful town of France, capital of the department of Meurthe-et-Moselle, is situated on the left bank of the river Meurthe, at the foot of wooded

and vine-clad hills, 220 miles east of Paris, on the Paris and Strasburg Railway. Pop. (1876) 66,008. It is divided into the old and new towns (the former irregular and with narrow streets, the latter open and handsome), and comprises also two suburbs. It contains many handsome squares and imposing edifices, and owes much of its architectural ornamentation to Stanislaus Leszinsky, who, after abdicating the crown of Poland in 1766, continued to reside here as Duke of Lorraine till his death, in 1766. His statue stands in the Place Royale, a fine square, surrounded by important public buildings, as the Hôtel de Ville, theatre, &c. The gates of N. look more like triumphal arches than the ordinary entrances of a town. Among the institutions are the university-academy, the normal school, the school of medicine, the lyceum, the public library, and numerous art and scientific societies. Cotton, woollen, and linen manufactures are carried on; but the principal branch of industry is the embroidering of cambric, muslin, and jeton goods. N. is known to have existed in the 11th c. Two centuries later, it became the capital of the Duchy of Lorraine (q. v.). Charles the Bold was killed while besieging N. in 1477.

**NA'NDU**, or American Ostrich (*Rhea*), a genus of South American birds allied to the ostrich, cassowary, and emu, and most nearly to the ostrich, from which it differs in having the feet three-toed, and each toe armed with a claw; also, in being more completely feathered on the head and neck; in having no tail; and in having the wings better developed and plumed, and terminated by a hooked spur. The wings are indeed better developed than in any other of the *Struthionidae*, although still unfit for flight. The neck has sixteen vertebrae. There are at least three species. The best known species (*R. Americana*) is considerably smaller than the ostrich, standing about five feet high. It is of uniform gray color, except on the back, which has a brown tint. The male is larger and darker colored than the female. The back and rump are furnished with long feathers, but of a more ordinary kind than those of the ostrich. This bird inhabits the great grassy plains of South America, southward of the equator, abounding on the banks of the La Plata and its more southern tributaries, and as far south as lat. 42° or 43°. Its range does not extend across the Cordilleras. It is generally seen in small troops. It runs with great celerity, using its wings in aid. It is polygamous, one male securing possession of two or more females, which lay their eggs in a common nest, or drop them on the ground near the nest, to which the male rolls them. Contrary to the usual habit of birds, incubation is performed by the male. The N. is shy and wary, but is successfully hunted by the Indians, generally on horseback. The flesh of the young is not unpleasant. The N. is capable of being domesticated.—A smaller and more recently-discovered species (*R. Darwinii*) has light-brown plumage, each feather tipped with white. It inhabits Patagonia. A third species (*R. macrorhyncha*) is distinguished by its large bill.

**NANKEE'N CLOTH.** Calico of the kind called "nankeen," or nankin, was formerly imported extensively from China to Europe, and said to be the manufacture of Nanking; the color, a yellowish-buff, being a favorite one. It was supposed that the Chinese held a secret for dyeing this color, which was found to be remarkably durable; but it became known that it was not an artificial color at all, the cloth being made of a colored variety of cotton, which was produced occasionally in China and India. Artificially dyed nankeen cloths now form a considerable export from England to China.

The color of artificial nankeen cloth is produced by an elaborate process, in which the yarn or cloth is first dipped in a saturated solution of alum; then in a decoction of oak-bark; then in a bath of lime-water; and next in a bath of nitro-muriate of tin. Another, but less permanent, nankeen dye is produced by boiling annatto in a strong solution of pearl ashes, and diluting with water to the required tint.

**NANKI'NG**, capital of the province of Kiangsu, formerly the capital of China, on the Yangtse River, 90 miles from the beginning of its estuary, n. lat. 32° 40' 40" e. long. 118° 47'. Its name signifies the Southern Capital. Since the removal of the seat of government to Peking (Northern Capital), it has been called by the Chinese Kiangning-fu. The walls enclose an area of nearly 20 miles in circumference, the greater part of which, however, is entirely waste. They reach in many places an elevation of 70 feet, and are fully thirty feet in thickness at the

base. According to Chinese accounts, the population of N. was once 4,000,000, but a more recent estimate made it 300,000. As the city, however, has of late passed through so many vicissitudes, it is impossible to ascertain its present number of inhabitants. The inhabited portion of the walled area lies toward the west, and several miles from the bank of the river. It is no longer possible to speak of N. in the language which former travellers used. The barbaric desolations to which it was subjected during the Taiping rebellion left it a sort of wreck, and one can only describe it as it was, before the victorious assault of the rebels, on the 19th March 1858. N. is the seat of the vice-regal government for the provinces grouped together under the name of Kiangnan. Here, as elsewhere in China, there was, and again is, a Manchu garrison, or military colony, separated by a wall from that portion of the city which is occupied by the Chinese. Some of the finest streets of N. were in the Tatar city; several being nearly 40 feet wide, having a space in the middle of about 8 feet in width, flagged with well-hewn blocks of blue and white marble, and on each side of this a brick pavement 14 feet or more wide. A deep canal or ditch runs from the river directly under the walls on the west, serving to strengthen the defences of the city on that side. The ancient palaces have all disappeared. The offices of the public functionaries were numerous, but, like the shops, presented the general features common to all Chinese towns. The objects most worthy the inspection of the traveller are found, in ruins, outside the precincts of the modern city. Among these is the summer palace of the Emperor Kienlung. It consisted of a number of one-story buildings, with spacious courts between, and flanked by smaller buildings on the sides. Enough still remains to shew that the workmanship was of the most elaborate and unique character. When under cultivation, the spot must have been exceedingly beautiful. The tombs of the khungs are remarkable for their sepulchral statuary, which form an avenue leading up to the graves; they consist of gigantic figures, like warriors cased in a kind of armor, standing on either side of the road, across which, at intervals, large stone tablets are extended, supported by huge blocks of stone instead of pillars. Among the buildings totally destroyed by the rebels was the fair-famed Porcelain Tower. It was erected by the emperor Yunglo, to reward the kindness of his mother; the work was commenced in the 10th year of his reign (1423), at noon, on the 15th day of the moon, in the six h month of the year, and was completed in nineteen years. The board of works was ordered, according to the plan of the emperor, to build a tower nine stories high, the bricks and tiles to be glazed, and of "fine colors;" and it was to be superior to all others, in order to make widely known the virtues of his mother. Its height was to be 322 feet. The ball on its spire was to be of brass, overlaid with gold, so that it might last forever and never grow dim. From its eight hooks as many iron chains extended to the eight corners of its highest roof; and from each chain nine bells, suspended at equal distances apart; these, together with eight from the corners of each projecting roof, amounted to 144 bells. On the outer face of each story were 16 lanterns, 128 in all; which, with 12 in the inside, made 140. It required 64 catties of oil to fill them. On the top of the highest roof were two brazen vessels, weighing together 1200 pounds, and a brazen bowl besides, weighing 600 pounds. Encircling the spire were nine iron rings, the largest being 63 feet in circumference, and the smallest 24 feet, altogether weighing nearly 5000 pounds. In the bowl on the top were deposited one white shining pearl, one fire-averting pearl, one wind-averting pearl, one water-averting pearl, one dust-averting pearl, a lump of gold weighing 50 ounces, a box of tea-leaves, 1000 taels of silver, one lump of orpiment, altogether weighing 4000 pounds; one precious stone-gem, 1000 strings of copper coin, two pieces of yellow satin, and four copies of Buddhist classics. N. continued in possession of the Taiping rebels till the successes of the troops under Major Gordon had crushed one after another all their outlaying forces, when at length, on the 19th of July 1864, the city was stormed by the imperialist soldiers under the viceroy Teeng Kwo-fan. The last blow was thus dealt to the Taiping rebellion, whose principal leader perished by his own hand amid the blazing ruins of the palace he had occupied for eleven years. Since its recapture, N. has resumed its former position as the seat of the vice-regal government, but shews few signs of revival from its desolation. It has, however, been made the headquarters of a large military force, and also of an arsenal for the manufacture of cannon and other warlike stores on the European model. Although specified in the Treaty of

Tientsin (1868) as a river-port to be opened, no steps have been taken to proclaim it one.—Dr Macgowan, "North China Herald," and "Treaty Ports of China and Japan" (1867).

NANTES, (anc. *Nannetes*, or *Nannetea*), an important seaport town of France, capital of the department of Loire-Inférieure, is situated on the right bank of the Loire, 30 miles from its mouth, and at the point of confluence with it of the Erdre and the Sèvre-Nantaise, both navigable streams. Besides railways, there is communication with the interior by steamers on the Loire. The natural beauties of the site have been much improved by art, and now, the noble river on which the town is placed, covered with craft of every size and description, the islands that stud its channel, the meadows that skirt its banks, and the bridges (upwards of 16 in number) that cross it and its tributaries here, combine to make the scene a highly picturesque one. N. contains numerous squares and churches. Several districts of the town are nearly as fine as the best districts of Paris, the old town having been pulled down between 1865 and 1870. This town possesses numerous striking and beautiful buildings; among which the cathedral of St Pierre, containing the splendid monument of Francis II., the last Duke of Bretagne, and of Marguerite, his wife; and the old castle, the temporary residence of most of the kings of France since Charles VIII., and built in 988, are the chief. There is a public library containing 50,000 vols.; a museum of paintings; and a museum of natural history. The quays, lined on one side with houses, and in some cases planted with trees, afford an agreeable and interesting promenade of about two miles in length. The most beautiful promenade, however, formed by the Quais St Pierre and the Quais St André, extends from the Erdre to the Loire. It is planted with four rows of trees, bordered with lines of palatial houses, and ornamented with statues. The harbor, 1968 yards in length, is capable of accommodating upwards of 200 vessels. Formerly, vessels of no more than 200 tons could reach the port, all vessels of greater burden unloading at Paimbœuf, at the mouth of the river; but within recent years, much has been done by dredging for the improvement of the river-bed, and large vessels can now reach the harbor. The chief manufactures of N. are varieties of linen and cotton fabrics, calicoes, flannels; musical, mathematical, and optical instruments; refined sugar and salt, chemical products, cordage, &c. It contains tan-yards, copper foundries, brandy distilleries, &c., and numerous establishments engaged in the various manufactures to which a port gives rise, as ship-building, the preparation of preserved meats, &c. In 1872, the imports of N. were valued at 70,000,000 of francs, the exports at 55,000,000. Population in 1876, 116,098.

NANTES, Edict of, the name given to the famous decree published in that city by Henry IV. of France, 13th April 1598, which secured to the Protestant portion of his subjects freedom of religion. Among its more important provisions were—liberty to celebrate worship wherever Protestant communities already existed; to establish new churches, except in Paris and the surrounding district, and in the royal residences; and to maintain universities, or theological colleges, of which they had four, those at Montauban, Saumur, Montpellier, and Sedan; adherents of the Reformed faith were also to be eligible to all civil offices and dignities; but, on the other hand, they were not allowed to print books on the tenets of their religion, except in those places where it existed; and they were obliged to outwardly celebrate the festivals of the Catholic Church, and to pay tithes to the Catholic priesthood. From this period the Re-formers or Huguenots (who then counted 760 churches) had a legal existence in France, but gradually their political strength was crushed by the mighty genius of Richelieu—who, however, never dreamed of interfering with their liberty of worship. Neither did his successors, Mazarin and Colbert; but under the influence of a "penitence," as corrupt and sensual as the sins which occasioned it, Louis XIV., after a series of detestable *Dragonnades* (q. v.), signed a decree for the revocation of the edict, 18th October, 1685.—The result of this despotic act was that, rather than conform to the established religion, 400,000 Protestants—among the most industrious, the most intelligent, and the most religious of the nation—quitted France, and took refuge in Great Britain, Holland, Prussia, Switzerland, and America. The loss to France was immense; the gain to other countries, no less. Composed largely of merchants, manufacturers, and skilled artisans, they carried with them their knowledge, taste, and aptitude for business.

From them England, in particular, learned the art of manufacturing silk, crystal glasses, and the more delicate kinds of jewellery.

NANTUCKET, an island and town upon it, on the south-east coast of Massachusetts. The Island is 15 miles long and an average of 4 wide, with an area of 50 square miles. It was bought from the Indians by Thomas Macy, in 1659, for £30 and two beaver-hats. N. was at one time a great seat of the whale fishery, having in 1775 had as many as 150 whaling vessels; but this branch of industry has declined since 1846, and since the civil war has become extinct. The harbor is commodious and safe. N. has 2 newspapers; pop. (1870) 4128.

NA'NTWICH, a small market-town of Cheshire, England, on the Weaver, 20 miles south-east of Chester. Many of its houses are interesting from their age and construction, being built in many cases of timber and plaster, and with overhanging upper stories. The parish church, one of the finest country churches in England, was thoroughly restored in 1864 at great cost. N. was famous in former times for its brine-springs and salt-works. Shoes, gloves, and cotton goods are manufactured, and malting is carried on. Pop. (1871) 6678.

NA'OS (Gr. a dwelling), the cell or enclosed chamber of a Greek temple.

NA'PHTHA is derived from the Persian word *nafata*, to exude, and was originally applied to an inflammable liquid hydrocarbon (or rather a mixture of several hydrocarbons) which exudes from the oil in certain parts of Persia. (According to Peltier and Walter, it consists of three hydrocarbons—viz.,  $C_{16}H_{18}$ , which boils at  $190^{\circ}$ ;  $C_{16}H_{16}$ , which boils at  $239^{\circ}$ ; and  $C_{24}H_{32}$ , which boils at  $374^{\circ}$ .) The term is, however, now used not only to designate a similar and almost identical fluid, that issues from the ground in many parts of the world, and is known as petroleum, rock-oil, &c., but is also applied to other liquids which resemble true naphtha in little else than in their volatility and inflammability. Thus, wood-spirit or methyl alcohol is often spoken of as *wood-naphtha*, and acetone is sometimes described as naphtha. Coal-tar yields by distillation a liquid which has a heavier specific gravity and a lower boiling-point than Persian naphtha, but resembles it in general properties, and can generally be substituted for it. See GAS-TAR.

Crude Naphtha, whether occurring as a natural product, or as obtained from coal-tar, is purified by agitation with strong sulphuric acid; after which it must be well washed with water (in which it is quite insoluble), and finally distilled from quicklime. Pure naphtha is colorless, and of a peculiar taste and odor; it is soluble in about eight times its bulk of alcohol, and dissolves in all proportions in ether and in the essential oils. Hot naphtha dissolves phosphorus and sulphur, but deposits them on cooling. It is an excellent solvent for guttapercha, caoutchouc, camphor, and fatty and resinous bodies generally; and hence it is extensively used in the arts for these purposes, and its employment as a source of artificial light is now becoming universal. In consequence of its containing no oxygen, it is employed by chemists for the preservation of potassium and other metals, which have a powerful affinity for oxygen. Owing to its volatility and inflammability, it must be handled with great caution, many fatal cases having arisen from its vapor catching fire on the approach of a candle.

The principal kinds of naphtha known in commerce are native naphtha, coal-naphtha, Boghead naphtha (also called paraffin oil and photogen), shale naphtha, and naphtha from caoutchouc or caoutchouc.

Native naphtha, petroleum, or rock-oil, is found in many parts of the world, as in Japan, Burmah, Persia, the shores of the Caspian Sea, Siberia, Italy, France, and North America. It is of various degrees of consistency, from a thin, light, colorless fluid found in Persia, with a specific gravity of about 0·760, to a substance as thick as butter, and nearly as heavy as water. But all the kinds when rectified have nearly the same constitution. They contain no oxygen, and consist of carbon and hydrogen compounds only. Bitumen and asphaltum are closely allied substances in a solid or semi-solid form. From a very early period in Persia and Japan, and at least since last century in Italy, native naphtha has been used to burn in lamps.

Coal-tar naphtha (see GAS-TAR), as stated above, is of a higher specific gravity than native naphtha—viz., from 0·860 to 0·900, and has a more disagreeable and penetrating odor.

Paraffin oil, for some time known also as Boghead naphtha, has become, of late years, so important a manufacture, that a brief history of its origin cannot be uninteresting. In the year 1847, Mr. James Young, now of the Bathgate Chemical Works, had his attention called to a petroleum spring at Alfreton, in Derbyshire, from which he distilled a light thin oil for burning in lamps, obtaining at the same time a thicker oil, which was used for lubricating machinery. After a year or two the supply began to fail, but Mr. Young, noticing that petroleum was dropping from the sandstone roof of a coal-mine, conjectured that it originated by the action of heat on the coal-seam, the vapor from which had condensed in the sand-stone, and supposed from this that it might be produced artificially. Following up this idea, he tried a great many experiments, and ultimately succeeded, by distilling coal at a low red-heat, in obtaining a substance resembling petroleum, which, when treated in the same way as the natural petroleum, yielded similar products. The obtaining of these oils and the solid substance paraffin from coal formed the subject of his now celebrated patent, dated October 17, 1850.

In the years 1860 and 1864, long and costly litigations as to the validity of Mr. Young's patent took place in Edinburgh and London, resulting in the main in his favor. Many years ago, Reichenbach had, by distilling 100 lbs. of pit-coal, obtained nearly two ounces of an oily liquid exactly resembling natural naphtha; and various other chemical writers were appealed to, as proving that methods substantially the same as Mr. Young's were previously known and practised. One thing seems to have been admitted, that previous to his patent, no one had succeeded in producing the oil on a commercial scale.

The processes by which the oil and paraffin are obtained are simple. The material best adapted for the purpose was for years believed to be Bog-head coal, a very rich gas-coal, occurring in a field of limited extent near Bathgate in Linlithgowshire. All cannel coals, however, give the same products, and some of them in nearly as large quantity; but, as stated below, shale is now generally used and treated in the same way. The coal is broken into fragments like road-metal, and gradually heated to reduce in cast-iron retorts, which are similar to those used for coal-gas (see GAS). The retorts are most usually upright, about 10 feet long and 14 inches in diameter at the bottom, tapering to 12 inches at the top, and built in sets of 3, 4, or 6, so that one fire may heat each set. The coal is fed by means of a hopper on the top of the retort, and after passing through it at a low red-heat, is drawn out as coke at the bottom, where there is a water-lute to prevent the escape of oil or gas. There is a spherical valve in the hopper, counterpoised with a weight, which closes the retort at the top. The volatile matters distilled from the coal are conducted by a pipe to the condensers (similar to those used for coal-gas), where they are condensed into a thick black oil, of a specific gravity of about 0.900, along with a little water. Great care is necessary to prevent the heat from becoming too high, because gas and gas-tar, and not paraffin oil, are obtained when coal or shale is distilled at a high temperature. A ton of Boghead coal gave about 120 gallons of crude oil.

The crude oil from the first distillation is then distilled again in long cylindrical malleable-iron stills. From this second distillation a "green oil" is obtained, and the residue is removed as coke from the bottom of the still. This oil is then mixed with from 5 to 10 per cent. of sulphuric acid, and afterwards with about the same quantity of soda, the mixture being made in circular tanks with revolving stirrers. Both the acid and the soda mix with impurities, which fall to the bottom as heavy tarry matters, and are run off by a stop-cock, till only the clear supernatant oil remains. After being so far purified, the oil undergoes three further distillations, being at the same time treated with strong acid (1 per cent.) and soda. The final result is, that a small quantity of light naphtha is obtained in the later distillations, three-fourths of what is left being a light and nearly colorless oil used for burning in lamps, and the remainder a thicker oil containing paraffin. This latter portion is pressed in a hydraulic press, which squeezes out the greater portion of the paraffin, leaving an oil which is sold for lubricating machinery.

The crude paraffin, after being subjected to hydraulic pressure three or four times is chiefly purified, by repeated crystallisations, from naphtha. Steam is afterwards blown through it in a melted state, and when finally treated with 3 per cent. of animal charcoal, it is an exquisitely beautiful substance, resembling the purest white wax. It is largely manufactured into candles, which equal, or even excel, in

appearance those made from wax, and are only about half as costly. Paraffin has now a number of curious minor applications.

Shale naphtha, or " shale-oil," is a substance which has been manufactured, for many years, from bituminous shales both in England and on the continent. Partly because the Boghead coal has become practically exhausted, but chiefly because the volatile products from it are more easily purified than from any coal, beds of bituminous shale found in the carboniferous formation are now almost entirely used in Scotland as the raw material from which paraffin oil and paraffin are obtained. Previous to 1856, these shales were turned to no account. See SHALE.

Naphtha from caoutchouc, or caoutchouc, is obtained from caoutchouc by destructive distillation. In composition it consists mainly of hydrocarbons, having the same proportion of carbon to hydrogen as India-rubber. Caoutchouc has the reputation of being one of the best known solvents for India-rubber.

Until the discovery of the Pennsylvanian, the Burmese (Rangoon) petroleum or rock-oil was one of the best known. It is obtained in a treacle state, by sinking wells about sixty feet in the soil, and consists of several fluid hydrocarbons, with about ten or eleven per cent. of the solid hydrocarbon paraffin. The different naphthas it contains are highly prized as burning and lubricating oils, and for removing greasy stains, on account of their agreeable smell. The naphtha which is found abundantly at Baku, on the shores of the Caspian Sea, closely resembles the Rangoon in its qualities. The Persian naphtha is frequently pure enough for burning without rectification.

Prominent among the wonders of our time, however, as regards new fields of industry and wealth, stand the discoveries of the naphtha, or, as they are called, the petroleum regions of the United States. Some of these sources of native naphtha were known to the Indians, by whom it was at one time collected for sale; but it is little more than twenty years since, by sinking deep wells, the great extent of the oil-bearing strata became known. The principal supplies are obtained in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio, a considerable quantity being also obtained in West Canada. Other regions in North America produce it, but the Pennsylvanian yield is six or seven times greater than all the rest put together. Consul Kortright, in his report on the states of Pennsylvania, Ohio, &c., for 1870 and 1871, says: "The oil regions are 100 miles in length by 80 to 50 in breadth, and the number of wells to be tapped so great, that the supply is considered to be sufficient for a century to come at least."

Much curiosity exists respecting the origin of these great natural sources of petroleum. It seems to be the general opinion of geologists that it has in most cases been produced by the decomposition of both vegetable and animal matters. In this respect it differs from coal, which has arisen from the decay of vegetable matter alone. It would appear that the Pennsylvanian oil proceeds from shales of carboniferous age; the Canadian, from those of Devonian age. In both countries the oil is found in cavities in sandstone, and has therefore been derived from subjacent rocks. It is now known that petroleum has formed in rocks of nearly all geological ages. Professor Dana, the American mineralogist, says that the conditions favorable to the formation of native naphtha, as shewn by the characteristics of the deposits in which it is found, are: (1) the diffusion of organic material through a fine mud or clay; (2) the material in a very finely divided state; and (3), as a consequence of the preceding, the atmosphere excluded as far as possible from the material undergoing decomposition.

In Pennsylvania the first borings for petroleum took place in 1859, and in that year 82,000 barrels (reckoned at 43 gallons each) were obtained; in 1861, the produce had reached 2 million barrels; and since then, as a rule, it has increased from year to year. In 1872, the total produce of North America was 7,894,000 barrels; Canada furnishing 580,000 barrels. In the same year the total exports from the United States of refined petroleum amounted to 2,951,510 barrels, an enormous quantity, considering the first exports took place so recently as 1861. Of late years, the petroleum trade is said to have employed in North America as many hands as coal-mining and the working of iron.

In 1862 and 1871, acts of parliament were passed limiting the amount of petroleum to be kept in store, and regulating the sale of such kinds as give off an inflamm-

mable vapor below 100° F. There are special warehouses for the reception of petroleum at the London and Liverpool docks.

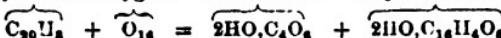
Terrible accidents have now and then happened with some of the more inflammable American oils, by reason of their vapors exploding in the reservoirs of lamps. Most of these have, no doubt, taken place with oils whose vapors form an explosive mixture with air at a temperature below 100° F., but they can hardly be considered safe if their vapors will take fire on the approach of a light at less than 120° F. The vapor of the paraffin oil prepared for illuminating purposes by Young's Mineral Oil Company, and no doubt by other firms, from Scotch shale, will not form an explosive mixture below 120° F., and it is therefore quite safe. Since this oil has to compete with petroleum, such a standard can only be kept up at a loss, and there is therefore a great temptation to keep down the firing-point of these burning oils as low as possible, with a view to greater profit; and although accidents have happened with paraffin oil, as well as with American petroleum, there is little doubt that the latter cannot be so thoroughly relied upon for safety. It could easily be made so, however, if the lighter hydro-carbons which it contains were carefully removed.

**NAPHTHALE GROUP OR SERIES.** The starting-point of the group is *Naphthalin* ( $C_{10}H_8$ ), a substance of great interest in the history of organic chemistry, from its being that upon which Laurent chiefly founded his Theory of Substitution. It may be obtained in various ways, but is most easily and abundantly produced from the last portions of the distillate of coal-tar, which become semi-solid on cooling. The liquid part of this mass is got rid of by pressure, and the naphthalin is then taken up by hot alcohol, from which it is obtained in a pure state by crystallization and sublimation.

Naphthalin crystallizes in large, thin, rhombic plates, which are inodorous to the touch, and have a pearly lustre. Exposed to light under a glass covering, it gradually sublimes at an ordinary temperature in splendid crystals. It has a somewhat tar-like odor, and a pungent and somewhat aromatic taste. It fuses at 174°, and boils at 428°. Its specific gravity, in the solid state, is 1.15, and as a vapor, 4.52. It is not very inflammable, and when ignited, burns with a white smoky flame. It is insoluble in water, but dissolves readily in alcohol, ether, and the fixed and essential oils.

By acting on naphthalin with an excess of sulphuric acid, we obtain *sulphonaphthalic acid* ( $C_{10}H_8S_2O_4 + 2H_2O$ ), from which, by substitution processes, a large number of compounds are produced. With nitric acid, naphthalin yields nitro-naphthalin [ $C_{10}H_7(NO_2)$ ] binitro-naphthalin [ $C_{10}H_6(NO_2)_2$ ], and trinitro-naphthalin [ $C_{10}H_5(NO_2)_3$ ], the group ( $NO_2$ ), or its multiples, being substituted for one, two, and three equivalents of the hydrogen of the naphthalin. The final product of the prolonged action of boiling nitric acid on naphthalin is a mixture of *oxalic* and *naphthalic* or *phthalic acid*; the reaction being shewn by the equation:

Naphthalin. Oxygen. Oxalic Acid. Naphthalic Acid.



This acid is also obtained by the continued action of nitric acid upon alizarin, which is an important fact, since it indicates a connection between naphthalin and the coloring matter of madder.

Laurent has discovered a very numerous series of substitution compounds formed upon the type of naphthalin, into the composition of which chlorine enters. They are of little practical importance although their investigation has exerted a remarkable influence upon the progress of organic chemistry.

**NAPIER**, John, Laird of Merchiston, was born at Merchiston Castle, near Edinburgh, in 1550, and died there on the 4th of April 1617. After attending the regular course in Arts at the university of St Andrews, he travelled for some time on the continent, and returned to his native country highly informed and cultivated for the age. Declining all civil employments, for which his many accomplishments eminently fitted him, he preferred the seclusion of a life devoted to literary and scientific study. From this time his history is a blank till 1593, when he published his "Plaine Discovery (or 'Interpretation') of the whole Reuelation of St John" (Edin. 6th ed. 1645), a work displaying great acuteness and ingenuity, but, it is scarcely neces-

sary to add, not in any sense a "plaine discouery" of the apocalypse. In the dedication to King James VI., he gave his majesty some very plain advice regarding the propriety of reforming his "hous", family, and court;" and on republishing the work, he add'd a supplement, resolving "certaine doubts mov'd by some well-naff'd brethren." About this time he seems to have devoted much of his time to the invention of warlike machines, but these inventions were never perfected, probably from motives of humanity. Like other eminent men of the time, N., though a strict Presbyterian, seems to have been a believer in astrology and divination, but there is no satisfactory proof that he ever practiced these arts. In 1596, he proposed the use of salt as a fertiliser of land, an idea which, though scouted at the time, is now generally received. Another large blank in his history here occurs, and terminates in 1614, at which date he first gave to the world his famous invention of Logarithms (q. v.), in a treatise entitled "Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonis Descriptio" (4to. Edin.). This was followed by another work, "Rabdologia, seu numerationis per Virgulas libri dus" (Edin. 1617), detailing an invention for simplifying and shortening the processes of multiplication and division. See NAPIER'S BONES. He also prepared a second work on Logarithms, shewing their mode of construction and application, with an appendix containing several propositions of spherical trigonometry, and those formulae which are now known by his name. This work was published after his death by his son Robert, under the title of "Mirifici Logarithmorum Canonica Constructio, &c., quibus accessere Propositiones ad Triangula sphaerica faciliori calculo resolvenda, &c." (Edin. 1619), and occurs along with the "Cauonis Descriptio." The latter work is included in Baron Maser's extensive collection, the "Scriptores Logarithmici" (Lond. 1808). N.'s eldest son, Archibald, was raised to the peerage as the first Lord Napier by Charles I. in 1627, and his descendants still bear the title. Two lives of N. have been published, the one by the Earl of Buchan (1781), and the other by Mr. Mark Napier (1884).

NAPIER, Sir Charles James, G.C.B., English general, one of several brothers distinguished for their bravery, three of whom—Charles, William, and George—were known in the Peninsular War as "Wellington's Colonels." They were sons, by a second marriage, of Hon. Colonel George Napier, grandson of Francis, fifth Lord Napier, who was fifth in descent, but through two females in succession, from the inventor of Logarithms. Charles, the eldest, was born at Whitehall, Westminster, August 10 1782. Before he had finished his twelfth year, young N. received a commission in the 22d Foot. His first service was in Ireland, where he assisted in putting down the rebellion. He commanded the 50th Foot during the retreat on Corunna; and at the fatal battle in which Sir J. Moore fell, he was wounded in five places and made prisoner. Marshal Ney dismissed him, with permission to go to England on parole. On his return, he engaged in literary works, and even wrote an historical romance. In 1811, he returned to the Peninsula. At Coruña, where he fought as a volunteer, he had two horses shot under him. At Busaco, he was shot in the face, having his jaw broken and his eye injured. He recovered in time to be present at the battle of Fuentes d'Onoro and the second siege of Badajoz. After distinguishing himself in innumerable skirmishes, the daring soldier returned to England. He next took part in a fighting cruise off the Chesapeake, capturing American vessels, and making frequent descents upon the coasts. He did not return to Europe soon enough for Waterloo, but was engaged in the storming of Cambrai, and accompanied the army to Paris. After the peace he was, in 1818, made governor of the island of Cephalonia, the affairs of which he administered with great energy and intelligence. Being, however, of an excessively combative disposition, he became embroiled with the authorities at home. In 1841, he was ordered to India to assume the command of the army at Bombay. This was the most splendid period of his career, resulting in the conquest of Scinde against terrible odds. His destruction of a fortification called Emann Ghur in 1843, was described by the Duke of Wellington as one of the most remarkable military feats he had ever heard of. The fearful battle of Meanees followed, where N., with 160 English and sepoys, defeated near 80,000 Bhoomees, strongly posted, with the loss of 6000 men. The Ameers surrendered, except Shere Mahomed, who brought 25,000 men into line of battle at Hydrabad. N. had only 5000 men, but in three hours his little army gained a decisive victory. A few days afterwards, N. was in the palace of the Ameers, and

master of Scinde. He was fortunate in possessing the entire confidence of Lord Ellesborough, who made him governor of Scinde. His civil administration was scarcely less remarkable or less successful than his military operations. He gained the respect and reverence of the inhabitants, but soon became engaged in an acrimonious war of despatches with the directors. In 1847, he returned to England. After attending a series of festivals in his honor, he lived in retirement until the disasters of the last Sikh war caused the eyes of his countrymen to be turned to the hero of Scinde as the deliverer of our Indian empire. He went to India, but found on his arrival that the Sikhs had been routed. He now turned his attention, as commander-in-chief of the army in India, to the subject of military reform. He made a final adieu to the East in 1851, and returned to his native country, where he resided until his death, which took place at his seat, at Oaklands, near Portsmouth, August 29, 1858. He had then attained the rank of Lieutenant-general, was G.C.B., and colonel of the 22d Foot. It must be remembered to his honor that he was the first English general who ever recorded in his despatches the names of private soldiers who had distinguished themselves, side by side, with those of officers. Brave to rashness, ready alike with tongue, pen, and sword, quarrelsome with his superiors, but beloved by his soldiers, and, to crown all, of a strangely wild yet noble and striking appearance, N. was one of the most remarkable men of his time, and in losing him the country lost one of its brightest military ornaments. His statue was, after his death, erected in Trafalgar Square. The story of his "Conquest of Scinde" has been written by his brother, Lieutenant-General SIR WILLIAM FRANCIS PATRICK NAPIER, K.C.B., born 17th December 1788, who served in the Peninsular campaign, and was engaged from 1824 to 1840 in preparing his "History of the Peninsular War," the greatest military history in the English language. He died February 12, 1860, at Scinde House, Clapham, and was followed in a few weeks to the tomb by his wife, Lady Napier, niece of the great C. J. Fox. Her extraordinary skill in translating French documents written in cypher, and her indefatigable labors as her husband's amanuensis, are touchingly commemorated in the preface to the edition of the "History of the Peninsular War," published in 1851.

NAPIER, Sir Charles, K. C. B., English admiral, was cousin to the hero of Scinde and the historian of the Peninsular War. His father was the Hon. Captain Charles Napier, R. N., second son of Francis, fifth Lord Napier. He was born March 6, 1786, at the family seat, Merchiston Hall, in the county of Stirling. At 18, he went to sea as a naval volunteer. In 1808, he received the command of the *Recruit*, 18 guns, and had his thigh broken by a bullet. He kept up a running fight, in his 18-gun brig, with the rearmost of three French line-of-battle ships, the *D'Hautpoul*, which escaped from Guadeloupe, and was thus instrumental in her capture. This obtained him a post-captaincy; but being thrown out of active service, he served ashore as a volunteer in the Peninsular army, and was wounded at Busaco. Commanding the *Thames* in 1811, he inflicted an incredible amount of damage upon the enemy in the Mediterranean, and also conducted several desperate land operations with marked success. In 1814, he was ordered to America, and led the way in the hazardous ascent and descent of the Potomac. He afterwards took an active part in the operations against Baltimore. In 1829, he received the command of the *Galatea*, a 48-gun frigate, and was employed on "particular service" on the coast of Portugal. Becoming acquainted with the leaders of the Constitutional party, he accepted the command of the fleet of the young queen; and by defeating the Miguelite fleet, he concluded the war, and placed Dona Maria on the throne. He was made admiral-in-chief of the Portuguese navy, and attempted to remodel it; but official and corrupt influence was too strong for him, and he returned to England. In the war between the Porte and Mehemet Ali, he organised a land force, with which he stormed Sidon, and defeated Ibrahim Pasha among the heights of Mount Lebanon. He took part in the naval attack on Acre, and did not hesitate to disregard the orders of his chief, Admiral Stopford, when he saw the way to bring the battle to a speedy termination. He next blockaded Alexandria, and concluded a convention with Mehemet Ali. In 1847, he received the command of the Channel fleet. When the Russian war broke out, he was sent out to command the Baltic fleet; but the capture of Bomarsund failed to realise the high expectations formed of N.'s exploits. He twice sat in parliament, and, until his death, November 6, 1860, he labored with

success to reform our naval administration. He was at the time of his death a vice-admiral and a knight of several foreign orders.

**NAPIER.** The Right Hon. Sir Robert Cornells, Baron Napier of Magdala, was born in Ceylon, 6th December 1810, and was educated at the Military College at Addiscombe. He entered the Bengal Engineers in 1826, served in the Sutlej campaign, was wounded while acting as chief engineer at the siege of Moultan, and had a prominent share in the battle of Gujerat. As chief engineer of the Punjab, with the rank of colonel, he greatly developed the resources of the country. During the Indian mutiny, he was chief engineer in Sir Colin Campbell's army, and especially distinguished himself at the siege of Lucknow. For his services in the Chinese war of 1858, he was made major-general and K.C.B. As commander of the expedition in Abyssinia in 1868 he achieved a brilliant success, both by his whole management of the short campaign and in the storming of Magdala, which ended it. On his return he received the thanks of parliament, an annuity of £2000 and a peerage. In 1870, he was appointed Commander-in-chief of the forces in India, and nominated a member of the Indian Council. In 1877 he was made governor of Gibraltar.

**NAPIER'S BONES**, an invention of the celebrated Napier (q. v.) of Merchiston, for the purpose of performing mechanically the operations of multiplication and division. The "bones" were narrow slips of bone, wood, ivory, or metal, about 3 inches long by 3 10/16ths of an inch in breadth, and divided by transverse lines into nine compartments; each of these compartments being divided into two portions by a diagonal line running from the upper right hand to the lower left hand corners. The "bones" were divided into sets, all those of one set having the same digit occupying the top compartment, and the several multiples of that digit occupying in order the eight lower compartments; when the multiple consisted of two figures, these were placed one on each side of the diagonal line. There was necessarily a set of bones for each digit. There was also another rod similarly divided into compartments, in which were placed the nine digits; this was called the *index-rod*. Multiplication was performed as follows; e. g., if 6795 is to be multiplied by 9784, four rods whose top digits were 6, 7, 9, 5 are selected and arranged in the order of the figures in the multiplicand, and the index-rod placed alongside them, as in the figure; the several figures of the multiplier are then sought for on the index-rod, the two lines of figures opposite each figure on the index are then added together diagonally, and the five sums thus obtained are arranged as follows:

|   |       |
|---|-------|
| 9 | 61155 |
| 7 | 47565 |
| 8 | 51360 |
| 3 | 20385 |
| 4 | 27180 |

664782030 = the product required.

Division is performed in an analogous manner. The contemporaneous invention of logarithms for the same purpose of converting multiplication and division into addition and subtraction, caused Napier's bones to be overlooked, and they are now scarcely ever used.

**NA'PLES** (Ital. *Napoli*, anc. *Neapolis*), a city of Southern Italy, capital of the province of Naples, is built partly at the base, partly on the slopes of two crescent-shaped acclivities on the famous bay of the same name. Pop. (1872) 448,335. Lat. 40° 51' 8" n., long. 14° 15' 5" e. The wonderful beauty of the site and of the surrounding prospect, the delicious softness of the climate, and the clear atmosphere, make N. famed among the cities of the world. It is one of the chief centres of commerce and industry of Italy, possesses a very extensive mercantile shipping, and is one of the principal stations of Mediterranean steam-navigation.

The public buildings of Naples are numerous and grand, but are devoid of architectural symmetry in consequence of the antiquity of their origin and the irregularity of their site. Many of the old streets are paved with lava, and inconveniently narrow, with houses of great height. The modern streets, however, are spacious and splendid. The city is divided into the Old and the New Town, or the East and

**West Crescents**, by a lesser range of heights—viz., the Capodimonte, the St Elmo, and the Pizzofalcone, terminating in the rocky promontory called the Castel dell' Ovo. In 1868, a land-slip destroyed a number of houses at the foot of Pizzofalcone. The eastern division of N. is the most ancient and the most densely peopled; it contains the principal public structures, and is intersected by the splendid Via or Street di Toledo. The western, or modern section, containing the famous Riviera di Chiaia, or the Quay, a fine road running along the bay in a curved course of three miles, flanked on the right by a row of palaces, and bordered on the left by the beautiful pleasure-grounds of the Villa Reale, which lie between it and the sea, and of which the natural beauty is heightened by the interspersions of temples, fountains, and statuary groups amidst the acacia, myrtle, and orange groves. The public squares, or *larghi*, of N. are adorned with fountains and obelisks; and within the precincts of the city, there are several highly-prized springs both of fresh and mineral waters. The fortified castles are numerous. Amongst the principal are the Castel Nuovo, called the Basilie of Naples, somewhat similar to the Tower of London, and adorned with a fine triumphal arch, erected in honor of Alfonso of Aragon; the Castel dell' Ovo, so called from its oval or egg shape, standing on a promontory, and connected by a bridge with the mainland; the Castel Sant' Elmo, commanding a magnificent view from its ramparts, and formerly of immense strength; and the dismantled Castle del Carmine. The churches are upwards of 800, and many are rich in architectural and archaeological interest. The cathedral dedicated to St Gennaro (Januarius; q. v.) contains the celebrated phials in which the liquefaction of St Gennaro's blood is alleged to take place on two annual festivals; it also contains the tombs of Charles of Anjou and of Pope Innocent IV., besides numerous fine paintings and statues. The educational institutions of N. embrace famous schools of surgery, law, and general science. A magnificent aquarium has been opened since 1871, with a zoological laboratory in which many distinguished foreign naturalists are at work. The philanthropical establishments are on an immense scale, and are richly endowed. There are also several theatres in the city, of which that of *San Carlo* (devoted to the Opera) is one of the largest and most celebrated in Italy; but the characteristic theatre of N. is the *Teatro di San Carlo*, the headquarters of *Pulcinella* ("the Italian Punch"). There are four grand public libraries; and in the Museo Borbonico, N. contains an unrivalled collection of art, comprising frescoes, paintings, mosaics, sculptures, bronzes, antiquities, coins, medals, inscriptions, and the renowned collection of precious objects excavated from Herculaneum and Pompeii.

The environs of N., apart from their extreme beauty of scenery, are highly interesting. The locality which contains the tomb of Virgil, the disinterred towns of Herculaneum and Pompeii, Vesuvius (from an eruption of which N. suffered in 1872), and the Roman remains, must possess an inexhaustible source of interest for scientific, antiquarian, and classical investigators. The modern villas of N. are splendid and luxurious. One of the most striking features of N. is its unique population and the universal publicity in which life is passed. The inhabitants forever swarm in the thoroughfares, where an incessant throng of vendors, purchasers, and idlers intermingle with asses, mules, hand-carts, and conveyances, dazzling the eye with their brilliant variety of costume, and the pantomimic expressiveness of their frantic gestures and attitudes; while the ear is stunned by the shrill conflicting cries of the ambulatory vendors of every conceivable commodity, by the piercing notes of the improvisatore's song, and the uproarious hilarity and high-pitched patois of the countless masses, whose sole abode appears to strangers to be the thronged public squares and streets. The popular language of N., which is a corrupt dialect of Italian and Spanish, is in prevalent use among all classes of society; it lends itself especially to the satirical and facetious squibs and compositions in which the Neapolitans excel. The popular Neapolitan songs in the native patois are exquisitely naive and expressive in sentiment, and are set to popular melodies which exert a maddening charm over this southern populace. The physical condition of the lower classes of N., and especially of the *lazzaroni* (q. v.), has of late years sensibly improved both as regards raiment and lodging.

The name Naples (Gr. *Neapolis*, new city) had reference to an older town in the neighborhood, called originally Parthenope, and, after the foundation of the new town, Palæopolis (old town), which was situated most probably on the ridge called Posillipo, that separates the Bay of Pozzuoli or Baiae from that of Naples. Both

towns were Greek settlements, apparently colonies from the neighboring Cumæ, joined by immigrants direct from Greece. In 287 B.C., Paleopolis was besieged and taken by the Romans, and thenceforth disappears from history; Neapolis submitted without resistance, and became a favored and faithful ally, or rather provincial city of Rome. It long, however, retained its purely Greek character and institutions; and there is evidence that the Greek language continued to be used, even in public documents, as late as the 2d c. of the Christian era. N. was a flourishing and populous city during the Roman empire; and notwithstanding the vicissitudes of the Gothic conquest of Italy, and the reconquests by the Byzantine emperors, it continued to be one of the most important and opulent places in Italy. About the 8th c., it threw off allegiance to the Byzantine emperors, remained independent till it fell into the hands of the Normans in 1140 A.D., and became the capital of the kingdom of Naples.

**NAPLES.** Bay of, an indentation of the Mediterranean Sea on the south-west coast of Italy, opposite the city of Naples, is 20 miles wide from Cape Miseno on the north-west to Cape Campanella on the south-east, and from this line extends inland for about ten miles. The scene is very-beautiful. On the shores are many towns and villages; the prospect is bounded on the east by Mount Vesuvius, and on the outskirts of the bay are the islands of Ischia and Capri.

**NAPLES.** The Italian provinces (formerly kingdom) of N. and Sicily, or the Two Sicilies, occupy the south end of the Italian peninsula, and consist of the continental territory of N. and the insular dependency of Sicily. The distinctive physical features of N. and Sicily are noted under the names of the different provinces of Italy and in the article **SICILY**. They are favored by nature with a salubrious and almost tropical climate, unbounded fertility, and teeming population; and they present natural features of rare attractiveness. The rural population are an acute, frugal, and laborious race, and form a strong contrast to their idle and debased brethren of the towns. For statistics of products, exports, and population, see **ITALY** and **SICILY**. N. in ancient times, was divided into numerous petty states independent of each other, and its inhabitants were of various races. Many of these states arose from Greek colonies, which had been founded in the country previous to the 7th c. B.C. The ancient historical importance of N. is attested by the splendor of its cities, and the warlike renown of its population. On its conquest by the Romans, the great Neapolitan cities severally adopted the municipal, federative, or colonist form of government, and gradually assimilated their laws and customs to those of their conquerors. After the downfall of the Western Empire, N. was seized by Odonor, but soon afterwards, (490 A.D.) it was subjected by the Goths, and in the following century by the Lombards, who established in it various independent duchies, as Benevento, Spoleto, Salerno, Capua, &c. Most of these were overthrown by invading bands of Arabs, Saracens, and Byzantines, who were in turn expelled, and the whole country subdued by the Normans in the 11th century. The Normans subsequently erected N. and Sicily into a kingdom, and established a new political, ecclesiastical, and military system. To the Norman dynasty succeeded that of the Hohenstaufen, whose rule was marked by an immense intellectual and social advancement of the people; but the vindictive enmity with which the papal see regarded this dynasty, led to the invasion of N. by Charles of Anjou, who, notwithstanding the heroic resistance of King Manfred (q. v.), by the battle of Benevento (1266) annihilated the power of the Hohenstaufen. The ascendancy of Charles of Anjou was further effectually secured by the treacherous defeat and decapitation (1285) of Konradin (q. v.), the last male heir to the throne. By the *Sicilian Vespers* (q. v.) the island of Sicily was, however, wrested in 1282 from his grasp, and became an appanage of the Spanish crown. The predominance of the Neapolitan Guelph or papal party during the glorious reign of Robert I., who was the patron of Dante and Boccaccio, the depraved libertinism of his heiress and granddaughter Joanna, the fearful ravages committed by predatory bands of German mercenaries and by the plague, the futile attempts of the Anjou sovereigns to recover Sicily, and the envenomed feuds of rival claimants to the throne, are the leading features of the history of N. during the rule of this dynasty, which expired with the profligate Joanna II. in 1485; and was followed by that of Aragon, which had ruled Sicily from the time of the Sicilian Vespers. During the tenure of the

**Aragon race, various unsuccessful attempts were made by the House of Anjou to recover their lost sovereignty; and the country, especially near the coast, was repeatedly ravaged by the Turks (1480).** In fact, after the death of Alfonso, the first ruler of the Aragon dynasty, the country groaned under a load of misery. Wars, defensive and offensive, were incessant, the country was impoverished, and a conspiracy of the nobles to remedy the condition of affairs was productive of the most lamentable results, both to the conspirators themselves, and to the other influential Neapolitan families. In 1495, Charles VIII. invaded N., and though he was compelled to withdraw in the same year, his successor, Louis XII., with the treacherous assistance of Ferdinand (the Catholic) of Spain, succeeded in conquering the country in 1501. Two years afterwards, the Spaniards under Gonzalo di Cordova (q. v.) drove out the French, and the country from this time became a province of Spain. Sicily had previously (1479) been annexed to the same kingdom. During the two centuries of Spanish rule in N., the parlements which had existed from the time of the Normans fell into desuetude, the exercise of supreme authority devolved on viceroys, and to their ignorance, rapacity, and oppressive administration may be solely ascribed the unexampled misery and abasement of this period. In the words of Sismondi, "no tax was imposed save with the apparent object of crushing commerce or destroying agriculture, and the viceregal palace and the tribunals of justice became public offices in which the highest dignities and most sacred interests of the state were openly bartered to the wealthiest bidder." During the Spanish rule, a formidable rebellion took place in 1647, headed first by Masaniello (q. v.), and afterwards by Henry V., Duke of Guise; the whole population of the province renounced their allegiance to their Spanish sovereigns, but the arrival of a new viceroy, who was equal to the occasion, resulted in the capture of the Duke of Guise and the re-subjugation of the country. At length, during the war of the Spanish Succession (q. v.), N. was wrested from Spain by Austria in 1707, and Sicily in the following year; but while N. was secured to Austria by the treaties of Utrecht (1713) and Rastadt (1714), Sicily was handed over to Savoy by the former treaty. In 1720, however, both Sicilies were re-united under the Austrian rule, and in 1736 were given to Don Carlos, third son of Philip V. of Spain, who ascended the throne as Charles I., and founded the Bourbon dynasty. His reign was marked by equity and moderation; great reforms were effected in the administration of public affairs, science and literature were encouraged, and splendid works of public utility were erected throughout the kingdom. It was during his reign that Pompeii and Herculanum were discovered. His successor, Ferdinand IV., followed in the course of legislative reform; but on the proclamation of the French Republic (1789), his states were invaded by a French army, and the kingdom of N. was erected into the Parthenopean Republic (1799). Ferdinand retired with his court to Sicily, and for a brief period enjoyed the restoration of his sovereign rights in N.; but a second invasion by Napoleon (1806) ended in a proclamation of his brother, Joseph Bonaparte, as king of N.; and on this latter assuming the Spanish crown in 1808, that of N. was awarded to Joachim Murat, brother-in-law of Napoleon. On the defeat and execution of Murat in 1815, the Bourbon monarch, Ferdinand IV., was restored. The liberal insurrectionary movements in N. in 1821 and 1830 were the forerunners of the revolution of 1848; and in each case the party of progress was combated by the retrospective kings with ruthless severity, and perfidious concessions, to be cancelled and avenged with sanguinary fury when the disarmed and credulous patriots were at the mercy of the sovereigns. See article GARIBALDI for the ultimate overthrow of the Bourbon dynasty in the kingdom of N., and its subsequent annexation to the kingdom of Italy under King Victor Emmanuel; also articles FERDINAND II. and ITALY. For the history of Sicily previous to its annexation to and during its various separations from N., see SICILY.

**NAPLES-YELLOW** is a pigment used by artists. It consists of antimoniate of lead, and is obtained by the direct combination of antimony acid and oxide of lead under the influence of heat.

**NAPOLEON BONAPARTE**, Emperor of the French, was born at Ajaccio, in the island of Corsica, 15th August 1769. (For an account of the family to which he belonged, see BONAPARTE, FAMILY OF). At the age of 10 he entered the Military

School at Brienne, as a king's pensioner. Here he remained five years and a half. During that period he displayed a great aptitude and predilection for mathematics, history, and geography, and an indifference to merely verbal and literary studies. His manner was sombre and taciturn, but as Bourrienne (who was his school-fellow) says, this arose chiefly from the circumstance that he was a foreigner, poor and unaccustomed to the use of French, which he first learned at Brienne. In October 1784, he proceeded to the Military School to complete his studies for the army, and in rather less than a year obtained his commission as sub-lieutenant in the artillery regiment *de la Fere*. When the Revolution broke out, N. was in garrison at Valence. He took the popular side, but in a quiet and undemonstrative way, for he did not love the boisterous enthusiasm of unmanageable mobs. When the armed rabble of Paris poured out to the Tuilleries on the famous 20th of June 1792, N., who was then in the city, followed the "despicable wretches" (as he called them), along with his friend Bonrienne; he saw them force the poor king to stick the red cap on his head, and smile fatuously from the windows of his palace. "It is all over henceforth with that man," said the young officer, and returned to Paris graver and more thoughtful than Bourrienne had ever seen him. After the scenes of the 10th August, he left for Corsica, where General Paoli held the chief command. The excesses of the Septembrists and Terrorists, however, induced Paoli to throw off his allegiance to the Convention, and to seek the assistance of England. N. was active but unsuccessful in his opposition to the designs of the general, and was obliged, along with his relatives, to flee from the island.

He now petitioned the Convention for employment, and was sent to assist in the reduction of Toulon, with the rank of lieutenant-colonel of artillery. The city was captured (19th December 1793) entirely through the strategic genius of N.; and in the following February he was raised to the rank of brigadier-general, and placed at the head of the artillery in the army of the south. Later in the year, he was sent to Genoa, to examine the state of the fortifications of the city, and to discover the political disposition of the inhabitants. In the beginning of 1795, he was again in Paris seeking active employment and thinking, from sheer ennui, of transferring his services to the Sultan of Turkey. The Convention was now in great peril, on account of the mutinous spirit of the arrondissements of the capital, and, on the suggestion of Barras, Carnot, Tallien, and others, N. was made commander of the troops provided for its defence. On the 18th Vendémiaire (4th October 1795), the national guard, 50,000 strong, attempted to force its way into the Tuilleries, where the Convention was sitting, but was routed and dispersed by a terrible cannonade directed by the young artillery officer. N. was immediately appointed to the command of the army of the interior. About this time, he made the acquaintance of Josephine Beauharnais, whom he frequently met at the house of Madame Tallien. Captivated by her elegant manners and amiable disposition, he proposed marriage to the graceful widow, and was accepted. The ceremony took place 9th March 1796. A few days before, he had been appointed to the supreme command of the army of Italy, and he was obliged to leave his bride almost at the altar. On his arrival, he found the troops in a wretched condition. He had only 36,000 available men, and even these were half-starved, and only half-clothed, to oppose to an Austrian and Piedmontese force of 75,000. Yet he was not afraid to undertake the conquest of Upper Italy. Leaving Nice at the close of March, he won his first victory over the Austrians at Montenotte (11th April), which opened the Apennines for him; three days later, a second success at Millesimo separated the allied armies; and, finally, his victory at Mondovi (on the 22d) compelled Sardinia to implore peace. He now hoped to utterly crush the Austrian army under Lodi, and at the battle of Lodi (on the 10th May) nearly accomplished it. His opponent did not venture to defend the line of the Mincio, but hastily throwing a garrison into the city of Mantua, retreated into the Tyrol. N. immediately entered Milan and took possession besides of all the principal cities of Lombardy. Now began that system of enormous and unscrupulous plunder in Northern and Central Italy which gives something of a barbaric character to the conquests of the French. The Directory gave orders that N. should levy contributions from all the states which he had gratuitously freed, and according to his own account, he sent to France not less than 59,000,000 francs. His officers and commissioners actually seized whatever they wished, provisions, horses, and all manner of stores; and because Pavia ventured to make some slight resist-

ance to the shameful extortions of the Republicans, N. gave it up to havoc for 24 hours! A body of savans (including Monge, Berthollet, and others) were despatched to Italy to superintend the spoliation of its artistic treasures; and both now and in the subsequent Italian campaigns, pictures, statues, vases, and MSS. were carried off in great numbers, to gratify the vanity of the Parisian sight-seers. In this way Lombardy, Parma, Modena, Bologna, and the States of the Church were savagely harried before the end of June—Pope Pius VI., in particular, being forced to submit to conditions of extreme rigor.

Meanwhile, Austria had resolved to make another effort for the recovery of Lombardy. About the close of July, Marshal Wurmser descended from Trent at the head of 60,000 men, forced Napoleon to raise the siege of Mantua, but was himself defeated, with the loss of all his cannon, near Castiglione (5th August), and again at Bassano (8th September), in consequence of which he was driven to take refuge within the fortress of Mantua with some 16,000 troops—the shattered remains of his 60,000. Austria, however, was not disheartened. A third army was dispatched in two divisions: 30,000 from Carinthia, under Marshal Alvinczi; and 20,000 from the Tyrol, under General Davidovich. This was a terrible campaign for N.; his veterans were exhausted, his new supports had not arrived; he himself was despondent, while the Austrians were fresh and hopeful. At first, the latter were completely successful; but the great victory of Arcola, won by N. (17th November), after three days' fierce fighting, in which he lost nearly all his general officers, decided the fate of the campaign. His dispatches to the Directory, penned about this period, shew how thoroughly he apprehended the state of parties in Italy, and also how utterly indifferent he was to any considerations beyond those that advanced the interests of France. In January 1797, a fourth campaign was commenced by Austria. At the head of 50,000 fresh troops, Alvinczi descended from the Tyrol, but was completely routed by N. at Rivoli, on the 14th of the month; while not long after, Wurmser was starved into surrender at Mantua. A fifth army was assembled on the Tagliamento, under the command of the Archduke Charles: but his troops were mainly raw recruits, while those of N. were inured to war, and flushed with innumerable triumphs. In consequence, he was forced to retreat, which, however, he did slowly and in good order, hoping to surround his opponent in the interior of the country. N.'s design was to march on Vienna, and he actually penetrated as far as Judenburg, in Upper Styria, only eight days' march from the capital. The Austrian government at length was seized with alarm, made overtures of peace; and finally, on the 17th October 1797, the famous treaty of Campo-formio was signed, by which Austria ceded the Netherlands, Lombardy, and some other smaller territories to France; while she herself obtained in return, through disgraceful treachery on the part of the victor, possession of the province of Venice. It is generally said that N.'s military genius was never more brilliantly displayed than in these early Italian campaigns. In ingenuity of plan, celerity of movement, audacity of assault, he far outshines all his adversaries; it is, moreover, but just to him to state further, that he made desperate efforts to stop the excesses of the most scoundrelly commissariat in Europe; and that while in the main he shewed no hesitation in carrying out the brigand-like orders of the Directory, he does not appear to have appropriated a single penny to himself. It was power, not gold, that he cared for.

In December 1797, N. returned to Paris, where he was received with the utmost enthusiasm. At this time, there was much talk, and probably some vague design, on the part of the Directory, of invading England, and N. was appointed commander-in-chief of the invading army. It has been thought, however, that this was merely a feint to mask the real design of the Directory, viz., the invasion of Egypt, as perhaps a preliminary step to the conquest of British India. Be that as it may, an expedition against Egypt was resolved on by the Directory; and on the 19th of May, 1798, N. sailed from Toulon, with a fleet containing 80,000 soldiers, and a body of savans to investigate the antiquities of the country. He reached Alexandria on the 29th of June. At this moment, France was at peace with Turkey; the invasion of Egypt, a Turkish dependency, was therefore an act utterly unjustifiable, and reminds us not of European warfare, but rather of the irruption of a horde of barbaric Tartars. N. having landed his troops, captured Alexandria, and marched on Cairo. The Mamelukes prepared resistance; but on the 21st July, at the battle

of the Pyramids, they were completely defeated, and the French became, in a surface-way, masters of Egypt. N. now entered the capital, and immediately commenced to reorganise the civil and military administration of the country—for he took a great, but also an ostentatious pleasure in this sort of work. Meanwhile, on the 2d of August, Nelson had utterly destroyed the French fleet in Aboukir Bay, and so cut off N. from communication with Europe. A month later, the sultan declared war against him. This was followed by disturbances in Cairo, which were only suppressed by horrible massacres. It was obviously necessary that N. should go somewhere else. He resolved to meet the Turkish forces assembling in Syria; and in February 1799, crossed the desert at the head of 10,000 men, stormed Jaffa on the 7th March, after a heroic resistance on the part of the Turks; marched northwards by the coast, and reached Acre on the 17th. Here his career of victory was stopped. All his efforts to capture Acre were foiled through the desperate and obstinate valor of old Djezzar Pasha (q. v.), assisted by Sir Sidney Smith, with a small body of English sailors and marines. On the 21st of May, he commenced his retreat to Egypt, leaving the whole country on fire behind him, and re-entered Cairo on the 14th of June. It was during his absence that the savans made their valuable researches among the monuments of Upper Egypt. About the middle of July, the Sultan landed a force of 18,000 men at Aboukir, who were attacked by N. on the 25th, and routed with immense slaughter. But the position of the victor was far from comfortable, and he therefore resolved to return to France—especially as news had come to him of disasters in Italy and confusions in Paris. On the 23d of August, he sailed from Alexandria, leaving his army behind him, under the command of Kleber; and after narrowly escaping capture by the English fleet, landed near Frejus on the 9th October. He hastened to Paris, soon mastered the state of affairs, threw himself into the party of Sieyès, and overthrew the Directory (q. v.) on the famous 18<sup>th</sup> Brumaire. A new constitution was drawn up, chiefly by Sieyès, under which N. became First Consul, with the power of appointing to all public offices, of proposing all public measures in peace or war, and the entire command of all administrative affairs civil and military. In a word, he was ruler of France; and though far from satisfied with the clumsy machinery of Sieyès's plan, he could afford to wait the future. About the end of January 1800 he took up his residence in the Tuilleries. The country was tired of revolutions, discords, and confusions; it was proud of its young leader, who seemed inspired but not enslaved by the id as of his age, and who knew how to enforce obedience, as well as to panegyrize principles. It therefore regarded his assumption of sovereign power with positive satisfaction. N. displayed extraordinary vigor as an administrator, recruited the national treasury, by various sagacious expedients, repealed the more violent laws passed during the Revolution, such as punishment for matters of opinion, reopened the churches, and terminated by policy the Vendean struggle. But he knew well that his genius was essentially military, and that his most dazzling and influential triumphs were those won on the battle-field. France was still at war with Austria, and he resolved to renew the glories of his first Italian campaigns. Leaving Moreau in command of the army of the Rhine, he assembled, with wonderful rapidity and secrecy, an army of 80,000 men on the shores of the Lake of Geneva, and on the 18<sup>th</sup> May (1800), began his magnificent and daring march across the Alps. Almost before the Austrian general, Melas, was aware, N. had entered Milan (2d June). Twelve days afterwards, was fought the fiercely contested yet decisive battle of Marengo, which compelled the Austrians to resign Piedmont with all its fortresses, and (for the second time) Lombardy to the French. Later in the year, hostilities were recommenced; but the Austrians, beaten by Moreau in Germany (at Hohenlinden, &c.), and by N. in Italy, were at last forced to make peace; and on the 9th February 1801, signed the treaty of Lunéville, which was mainly based on that Campo-formio. In the course of the same year, France and England also made peace, but the treaty (known as that of Amiens) was not definitively signed till the 27th of March 1802. Not less important for the consolidation of affairs in France was the famous "Concordat" (q. v.) between N. and Pope Pius VII., also concluded in 1801. In January 1802, N. became President of the Cisalpine Republic; and on the 2d August following, was declared Consul for life by a decree of the French senate.

Meanwhile N. was busy superintending the drawing up of a code of civil laws for

**France.** He assembled the first lawyers in the nation, under the presidency of Cambacérès, and frequently took part in their deliberations; the results of their labors were the "Code Civil des Français," "Code de Procédure," "Code Pénal," and "Code d'Instruction Criminelle," besides commercial and military codes, all of which often go loosely under the name of the "Code Napoléon." The first of these is an admirable production, and is in force to the present day. Considerable attention was besides paid to such branches of education as were likely to promote efficiency in the public service. Mathematics, physical science in all its departments, engineering, &c., were as vigorously encouraged as philosophy, ethics, and political speculation were discouraged. But the best proof that N. wanted not an educated people, but only active and expert tools and agents, was the indifference that he manifested to primary and elementary education. In a population of 32,000,000, the number of pupils under ten years is given by Fourcroy at only 15,000! The internal government was the acme of despotic centralisation. N. appointed all prefects of departments, and all mayors of cities, so that not a vestige of provincial or municipal freedom remained. He ruled France as he ruled the army of France, and was already an emperor in almost everything but the name.

Peace between France and England did not last long. N.'s policy in Italy irritated the British government, and as remontrances were ineffectual, war was declared against France, 18th May 1803. The English fleet scoured the seas, paralysing the commerce of France; while N. threatened to invade England, and assembled a large army at Boulogne. So utterly did he misconceive the character and condition of Englishmen, that he felt sure (by his own statement) he should be welcomed as a liberator by the people! While these warlike preparations were going on, occurred the dangerous conspiracy of the Chouan chief, George Cadoudal (q. v.), Pichereau (q. v.), Moreau (q. v.), and others. Its discovery (February 1804) alarmed N. excessively, and led to what has been considered one of the blackest deeds in his career—the murder of the Duke d'Enghien (q. v.) on the 20th of March following. He now appears to have felt it necessary to assume the title of emperor. France, he alleged, wanted an empire as a symbol of permanent security. An appeal was made to the nation. Upwards of 3,000,000 votes were given in favor of the proposed change in the form of government; only 300 or 400 against it. But where there is no municipal freedom, one does not know what value to put on votes. On the 18th M.y., N. assumed the title of Emperor at St Cloud, and was crowned by, or rather in the presence of, the pope (for N. rudely crowned himself), on the 2d December. In the following summer (May 26) he was also crowned king of Italy, in the great cathedral of Milan; and Eugène Beauharnais, his step-son, was appointed to the office of Viceroy.

This policy of aggrandisement, which set at naught the conditions of the treaty of Lunéville, alarmed the other nations of Europe, especially Austria, who saw her Italian possessions seriously threatened. In 1805, a coalition was formed between England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden, mainly through the persevering policy of the first of these countries; and war again broke out in the month of September. N. acted with amazing celerity. Concentrating his widely-scattered forces at Mainz, he marched at once across Bavaria, compelled General Mack to capitulate at Ulm with 20,000 men (17th October); and on the 18th of November entered the capital of Austria. France was electrified; the rest of Europe was thunder-struck. But a more glorious triumph was yet to come. The Russian army was already in Moravia, under the immediate command of the Emperor Alexander I., and was there being joined by the scattered Austrian troops. N. did not lose a moment. Hurrying north, he gave battle to the allies at Austerlitz, on the 2d of December. The contest was tremendous; but the victory was complete. N.'s opponents were utterly crushed; and next day the Austrian emperor sought an interview, and sued for peace. A treaty was signed at Presburg on the 26th December, by which Austria ceded to France all her Italian and Adriatic provinces; other changes effected by it were, the dissolution of the old German empire, and the formation of the *Confederation of the Rhine* (q. v.).

In February 1806 a French army conquered Naples, and the crown was conferred by N. on his brother Joseph; in the following June, another brother, Louis, was made king of Holland. Prussia now, when it was too late, assumed a hostile attitude. She had hung off partly through fear and partly through selfishness, from the

great anti-French coalition of the previous year, and now, when circumstances were almost hopelessly adverse, she madly rushed against her colossal enemy. Austria, with more magnanimity than prudence, lent her help, but the star of N. was still in the ascendant. The battle of Jena (October 14) absolutely annihilated the power of Prussia; five days later N. entered Berlin, whence he issued (November 21) his celebrated "Decrees" against British commerce, hoping to ruin her by shutting out her ships from every harbor in Europe. His expectations, it need hardly be said, were disappointed. His policy well-nigh ruined the commerce of his own and other countries, but it only increased the prosperity of England. Her fleets and cruisers swept the seas; nothing could be got from the colonies save through her, and the merchants of the continent were obliged—in order to supply their customers as before—to let her carry on a vast contraband traffic. See ORDERS IN COUNCIL.

After the capture of Berlin, N. proceeded northwards to encounter the Russians, who were advancing to the help of Prussia. On his way, he summoned Poland to rise, but only with partial success. At Pultusk (December 28, 1806), and at Eylau (February 8, 1807), the French were beaten and driven back on the line of the Vistula; but after some months, he received heavy reinforcements, and on the 18th of June fought and won the great battle of Friedland, which led to the treaty of Tilsit, signed on the 7th of July. By a secret article of this treaty, Russia promised to close her ports to British vessels. It is important to observe here, that, as the military triumphs of N. increased, the civil and political liberties of his subjects diminished. Consequent on the treaty of Tilsit, a decree of the imperial senate abolished the tribunate—the only political body in France that preserved the semblance of national self-government. In August, N. created his brother Jerome sovereign of Westphalia—having patched up a kingdom for him in his usual unscrupulous way—and soon after, entered on a war with Portugal—the beginning of the great Peninsular War. The occasion of the war was the refusal of the Prince-regent of Portugal to carry out the Berlin decree in regard to British shipping. In March 1808, occurred that extraordinary instance of trepanning at Bayonne, by which the whole royal family of Spain fell into the hands of N.; and in the following July, his "dearly beloved brother" Joseph was ordered to exchange the throne of Naples for the "crowns of Spain and the Indies." His successor was the "handsome swordsman" (*beau sabreur*), Joachim Murat. Spain rose in insurrection, and an English force, under Sir John Moore, was despatched to its assistance. N. invaded the country about the close of October, defeated the Spanish forces, and captured Madrid (4th December). But his presence was urgently needed elsewhere, and he was forced to let Soult and other generals conduct the war in the peninsula. Austria, again irritated and alarmed at his aggressive policy, especially in Italy (where he had seized Tuscany and the States of the Church), once more prepared for war, which broke out in the spring of 1809. Her army of Germany, commanded by the Archduke Charles, was in splendid condition; but still fortune was adverse. N. hurried into Bavaria, routed the Archduke at Eckmühl (22d April), compelled him to retreat into Bohemia; and on the 12th of May, entered Vienna for the second time. But the struggle was not over. The Archduke rallied his scattered forces, worsted N. in the terrible conflicts of Aspern and Essling (21st and 22d May), and drove him to take refuge for a time on an island of the Danube. The battle of Wagram (6th July), however, once more prostrated, or at least intimidated Austria; and on the 14th of October, she signed the peace of Schönbrunn.

N. appears to have now come to the conclusion, that he could only put a stop to the hostile machinations of the old legitimate dynasties by intermarrying with some one of them. Besides, his wife Josephine had no children—and he was ambitious of perpetuating his power in his family. With that callousness to everything except his own interests, which is a prominent feature of his character, he immediately proceeded to divorce her. The act of divorce was solemnly registered on the 16th December. Less than three months afterwards, he married Maria Louisa, Archduchess of Austria. He was now at the zenith of his power, and so, according to the old Greek belief, Nemesis was on his track. What caused his ruin was really that outrage on civilisation—the Berlin Decrees. Russia found it impossible to carry it out, without permanent injury to her great landowners; Sweden and other countries were in a similar predicament. This led to evasions of the decree, and these, again, involved Russia particularly in further complications, until finally, in May

1812, N. declared war against her; and in spite of the advice of his most prudent counsellors, resolved to invade the country. Every one knows the dreadful history of the Russian campaign. N., wringing contingents from all his allies—Germans, Austrians, Italians, Poles, and Swiss—concentrated between the Vistula and the Niemen an army of half a million of men. The vast horde crossed the latter river (24th and 25th June) in three divisions, captured Wilna (28th June), and ravaged Lithuania. The Russian generals retreated before the invading host, deliberately wasting the country, and carrying off the supplies, but avoiding as far as possible, all engagements—their design being to surround N. in the heart of the country, and by the help of famine and the rigors of a northern winter, to annihilate him in his hour of weakness. N. followed up the retreating foe with reckless resolution. He risked everything upon the chance of striking some overwhelming blow. The horrors of his march—in Lithuania alone, 100,000 dropped off (dead, sick, or captured by the swarms of Cossacks that hung upon his flanks)—are too familiar to require description. When he reached Smolensk (16th August), the Russians had just left it—on fire! Three weeks or so later, he made up on the enemy at Borodino, where an obstinate and bloody battle was fought (7th September). The French remained in possession of the field, but of nothing else. A week after, N. entered Moscow, hoping to find rest for a time in the ancient metropolis of the country. But the city was deserted by its inhabitants; and on the 16th a fire broke out, which raged till the 19th, and left Moscow a heap of ruins. After five weeks' stay, N. was obliged to commence his retreat (19th October). His army was reduced to 120,000 men. The winter set in much earlier than usual, and he had to return through the very districts which had been wasted on his advance. When he left Smolensk (14th November), he had only 40,000 fighting-men; when he crossed the Beresina (26th and 27th November), he had not more than 25,000. With the excuse—which was in itself no doubt true—that his presence was urgently needed in France, he now abandoned the miserable remains of his army; and, on the 5th of December, leaving Murat in command, set out in a sledge for Paris, where he arrived on the 18th of the same month. He instantly set about a fresh conscription; and in the spring of 1813 marched into Germany at the head of 350,000 men; but the Russian campaign had broken the spell of terror which his name had till then exercised. The spirit of all Europe was thoroughly roused. A conviction was—somewhat unconsciously—seizing every mind (at the close of the campaign of 1814, even France shared it), that the world had had “enough of Bonaparte” (*assez de Bonaparte*). Prussia, in particular, was burning to wipe out the disgrace of Jena, and all the bitter humiliations to which she had been subsequently subjected. The victories of the British in Spain, the fame of which was spreading all over the continent, also proved to her that French soldiers could be beaten, not once or twice only, but through whole campaigns. An alliance was formed between the king of Prussia and the Emperor Alexander. At first, Austria remained neutral, but afterwards she joined the coalition. N.'s military genius, it has been often remarked, never shewed to greater advantage than in this and the next campaign, which cost him his crown and his liberty. He was for some months successful in winning battles—at Lützen (2d May), Bautzen (21st M'y), and Dresden (24th, 25th, and 27th August); but the invincible temper of the allies who knew that he was playing his last card, made these victories almost fruitless. They were convinced that one grand defeat would neutralise all his triumphs. This was inflicted, after several minor defeats, at Leipzig—the great *Battle of Nations*, as it has been called (16th, 18th, and 19th October). The result justified their expectations—N. was hopelessly ruined! He commenced his retreat towards France, followed by the allies. When he recrossed the Rhine, he had only 70,000 or 80,000 men left out of his 350,000. All the French garrisons in the Prussian towns were compelled to surrender. N. appeared at Paris 9th November; and though great discontent prevailed in the country, and a spirit of opposition shewed itself even in the legislative body, the senate decreed, at his bidding, another conscription of 300,000 men, with which N. began, in January 1814, to attempt to drive the allies out of France. The skill and energy which he displayed were extraordinary; but they only marked the intensity of his despair. On the 30th of March, the allied forces captured, after a severe engagement, the fortifications of Paris; next day, the Emperor Alexander and the king of

Prussia entered the city *amid the shouts of the populace*; on the 4th of April, N. abdicated at Fontainebleau. He was allowed to retain the title of emperor, with the sovereignty of the island of Elba, and an income of 6,000,000 francs, to be paid by the French government. A British ship conveyed him to Elba, where he arrived on the 4th of May.

After a lapse of ten months, most of which was spent in intrigues, N. made his escape from the island, landed near Frejus on the 1st of March, 1815, and appealed again to France. The army went over to him in a body, and several of his marshals, but the majority remained faithful to Louis XVIII. On the 20th of March, he reached Paris, reassumed the supreme power, promised a liberal constitution, and prepared once more to try the fortune of battle with the allies. At the head of 125,000 men, he marched (15th June) towards Charleroi, on the Flemish frontier, where the English and Prussian forces were assembling. The Duke of Wellington, who, the year before, had completed the deliverance of Spain, was appointed by the Congress of Vienna commander-in-chief of the armies of the Netherlands. The campaign lasted only a few days. On the 16th, N. defeated the Prussians, under Marshal Blücher, at Ligny, which compelled Wellington to fall back on Waterloo, where, on the 18th, was fought the most memorable and decisive battle of modern times. It resulted in the utter and irretrievable ruin of Napoleon. The despot, who knew what awaited him—for France had not recalled him from Elba; he came at the desire of a faction, whose interests were identical with his—returned to Paris. The House of Representatives fiercely insisted on his abdication. He did so (22d June) in favor of his son, Napoléon II.; they further demanded that he should leave the country for ever, and he retired to Rochefort, with the design of embarking for the United States. On the 7th July, the allies again entered Paris, and refused to acknowledge the acts of the French provisional government. N., who saw that he could not escape either by sea or land, voluntarily surrendered (15th July) to Captain Maillard of the *Bellerophon*, claiming the protection of British laws! It was, however, resolved by the British government to confine him for life on the islet of St Helena, a lonely rock in the Southern Atlantic, 1000 miles from the coast of Africa. He was conveyed thither by Admiral Cockburn, and landed at St Helena, 16th October, 1815. The remainder of his life was politically insignificant. His chronic quarrels with his governor—or jailer, as the French prefer it—Sir Hudson Lowe; his conversations with friends and visitors about his past career; his deliberate attempts to falsify history in his writings, are familiar to every one. After more than a year of bad health, he expired, 5th May, 1821. He was buried with military honors. In 1840, his remains were removed to France, and deposited in the *Hôtel des Invalides*.

NAPOLÉON II., son of Napoléon Bonaparte. See REICHSTADT, DUKE OF.

NAPOLÉON III., nephew of Napoléon Bonaparte. See LOUIS NAPOLÉON.

NAPOLÉON, or in full, Napoléon Joseph Charles Paul Bonaparte, is the son of Jerome, King of Westphalia, and was born at Trieste, in 1822. When the insurrection broke out in the Romagna in 1831, he was staying in Rome with his grandmother, Madame Letitia Bonaparte, but was forced to leave the city for Florence on account of his cousins (see LOUIS NAPOLÉON) being implicated in the revolutionary disturbances. He was educated at a boarding-school in Geneva, and at the Military School of Ludwigsburg, in Württemberg, completing his studies in 1840, after which he travelled for five years in Germany, England, and Spain. In 1845, he obtained permission to visit Paris under the name of the Comte de Monfort; but his relations with the democratic party, and his advanced political opinions, rendered him suspected by the government, who ordered him to quit the country. He, however, again made his appearance on the eve of the revolution of February 1848. After the fall of Louis-Philippe, he offered his services to the provisional government, and was elected by the Corsicans a member of the Constituent Assembly, where he voted with the moderate republicans. He held for a short time, in 1849, the office of minister-plenipotentiary at Madrid. After the *corps d'état*, he withdrew into private life; but on the restoration of the Empire he reappeared to share in the honors that now fell thickly on his family. By a decree of the senate, 28d December 1853, he was pronounced a French prince, with the right to a place in the Senate and the Council of State; at the same time, he received the insignia of the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor, and

—though he had not served—the rank of General of Division. In the Crimean war, he commanded a division of infantry-reserves at the battles of Alma and Inkermann, but soon after returned to France, on the plea of ill-health. N. was President of the Imperial Commission of the Paris Exhibition in 1855. In 1865, he was appointed head of the ministry for Algiers and the colonies, but held the office only for a short time. During the same year he married the Princess Clotilde, daughter of Victor Emmanuel, and in the Italian war of 1859, commanded the French army of reserve in the south of Italy, but was not engaged in actual hostility. In 1861, he made a speech in the senate, reflecting on the Orleans family, for which he was challenged by the Due d'Aunale. The challenge was not accepted, much to the disgust of the French army. N. was President of the French Commission at the London Exhibition of 1862. In 1865, he was appointed president of the commissioners for the Paris Exhibition of 1867, but resigned this post and the vice-presidency of the privy council owing to a reprimand from the emperor about a speech. Afterwards, however, he was intrusted with many delicate missions, and urged the emperor to a liberal policy. He had no command in the late war. In 1876, he was returned to the French Assembly for Corsica; but in the election of 1877 was rejected.

**NAPOLEON-VENDÉE**, Bourbon-Vendée, or **La Roche Sur Yon**, a town of France, the capital of the dep. of Vendée, pleasantly situated on a hill on the right bank of the Yon, 37 miles south from Nantes. The town has no manufactures, and little trade, but derives its importance chiefly from its being the seat of departmental administration. The town contained only 800 inhabitants when Napoleon I. selected it for the capital of the department, granted great sums for its improvement, and called it *Napoleon-Vendée*, changed to *Bourbon-Vendée* at the restoration of the Bourbons, the former name coming again into use under Napoleon III. It is now known as *La Roche sur Yon*. Pop. (1872) 710.

**NARAKA** is the hell of the Hindus. Manu (q. v.) enumerates twenty-one hells or divisions of N., and gives a general description of the tortures which await the impious there. The Purāṇas, however, are more systematic. The Vishnū-Purāṇa, for instance, not only names twenty-eight such hells, but distinctly assigns each of them to a particular class of sinners. Thus, a man who bears false witness is condemned to the hell *Raurava* (i. e., Fearful); the murderer of a Brahman, stealer of gold, or drinker of wine, goes to the hell *S'ukara* (i. e., Swine), &c. Besides these twenty-eight which the Purāṇa knows by name, we are told of "hundreds and thousands of others in which sinners pay the penalty of their crimes."

**NARBONNE**, a town in the south of France, in the department of Aude, 55 miles south-west of Montpellier, on a branch (La Robine) of the Canal du Midi. It is the *Narbo Martius* of the Romans; but there is reason to believe that it was well known to the Greeks 500 years before the Christian era. It was colonised by the Romans 118 B.C., and probably got the designation *Martius* from Q. Marcus R. x, one of the consuls at the time. Situated only about 8 miles from the sea, on the direct road into Spain and into the basin of the Garonne, N. was in early times a place of great commercial prosperity. It was the second settlement founded in South Gallia by the Romans, and was considered by them an important acquisition, both for its strength and as the key to the road into Spain. Under Tiberius, it flourished greatly; the arts and sciences being cultivated with success, and its schools rivalling for a long time those of Rome. About 309 A.D., it became the capital of Gallia Narbonensis, and contained among other buildings a capitol, theatre, forum, aqueducts, triumphal arches, &c. It was taken in 719 by the Saracens, who planted here a Moslem colony, and destroyed the churches. In 859, it fell to the arms of the Northmen. During the 11th and 12th centuries, it was a flourishing manufacturing city, but subsequently it fell into comparative decay, and is now entirely destitute of any monument of its former splendor. A considerable number of architectural fragments—as capitals, marble slabs with inscriptions, friezes, &c.—have been found, and have been grouped into a collection of antiquities.

The present very dirty town contains one imposing building, the Cathedral of St Just, founded in 1271, but still unfinished. The honey of N. is the best in France, both for color and flavor. Manufactures are carried on to some extent. Pop. (1876) 18,326.

NARCISSUS, according to a Greek fable, was the son of the river god Cepheus and of the nymph Liriope or Liricessa of Thespiae, in Boeotia. He was a youth of extraordinary beauty, of which he was excessively vain; and for this he was punished by Nemesis, by being made to fall in love with himself on seeing the reflection of his own face in a fountain. He died of this love-sickness; and on the place where he died, sprung up the flower which bears his name. The story of N., finely narrated by Ovid, is of comparatively late origin.

NARCISSUS, a genus of plants of the natural order *Amaryllideæ*, having a perianth of six equal petal-like segments, and a bell shaped corona of various magnitude. The species are natives of the south of Europe, the north of Africa, and the temperate parts of Asia. The Common Daffodil (q. v.) is the only one which can be regarded as truly a native of Britain. Many are cultivated in gardens, for the sake of their beautiful and often fragrant flowers, which in general appear early in the season. Some of them are known by the names of Daffodil (q. v.) and Jonquil (q. v.). The name N. is popularly restricted to those which have flat—not rush-like—leaves, and a short not bell-shaped corona. Of these, one of the best known is the Poet's N. (*N. poetica*), with generally one-flowered scape, the flower white and fragrant, the corona with a deeply-colored border; others, with one or two flowers on the scape, are in common cultivation.—The POLYANTHUS NARCISSUS (*N. Tazetta*) has a number of flowers on the scape. It grows wild in stony places near the Mediterranean and eastwards to China. Many varieties of it are in cultivation. It is not only grown in gardens and green-houses, but in water-glasses, like the hyacinth. It is very common in gardens in India, where it is highly esteemed as a flower. The narcissi in general are propagated either by seed, or by offset bulbs. They succeed best in a rich light soil.

NARCOTICS (Gr. *narkē*, stupor) are remedies which, in moderate doses, lessen the action of the nervous system. Their full operation is sleep or coma. Opium is the type from which most descriptions of this class of medicines have been drawn; but although most narcotics more or less resemble opium in their action, almost every one presents some peculiarity in the way in which it affects the system. These medicines are primarily stimulating, especially when given in small or moderate doses; but this stage of their action is comparatively short; and when the dose is large, the excitement is scarcely perceptible. Their power of inducing sleep has procured for them the names of Hypnotics and Soporifics; while many of them are termed Anodynes, from their possessing the property of alleviating pain. Next to opium, Henbane, Indian Hemp, and Acouite may be regarded as the most important narcotics. It has been already mentioned that there are differences in the mode of operation of the different members of this class. "Some dilate, while others contract the pupil; some appear to concentrate their sedative action more particularly upon the functions of the encephalon, others upon the contractile power of the alimentary and bronchial tubes, while a strict distinction is to be drawn between those which occasion constipation and those which do not; all these things being of great practical importance. Ballard and Garrod's "Elements of Materia Medica," p. 18.

Narcotics are usually administered either with the view of inducing sleep or of alleviating pain or spasm. As, however, their action is much modified by a variety of circumstances—such as age, idiosyncrasy, and prolonged use—they should be administered with extreme caution; and as a general rule, only under competent advice. The various quack medicines for children which are known as *Carminalatives*, *Soothing Syrups*, &c., contain some form of opium, and are a fertile cause of the great mortality that occurs in early life, especially among the poorer classes.

It is almost unnecessary to add, that all the narcotics when taken in excess are poisonous.

NA'RCOTINE ( $C_{46}H_{36}NO_{14}+2Aq$ ) is one of the organic bases or alkaloids occurring in opium, in which it usually exists in the proportion of 6 or 8 per cent. It is nearly insoluble in water, but dissolves readily in alcohol, ether, and chloroform. Its ethereal solution, when submitted to spontaneous evaporation, yields it crystallised in colorless acicular groups or in rhombic prisms. A mixture of concentrated sulphuric and nitric acids produces a blood-red color with narcotine and its compounds. Narcotine possesses very slight alkaline properties; its salts do not readily crystallise, and are even more bitter than those of morphia, although the substance

itself is almost tasteless. When first discovered (in 1803), it was supposed to be the stimulant principle of opium; but in reality it possesses very little activity. It has been prescribed in gradually increased doses up to a scruple, without the least injury. Its sulphate has been used in India as a substitute for quinine; and nearly 200 cases of intermittent and remittent fevers, treated by it with success, have been published by Dr O'Shaughnessy.

**NARD AND NARDO'STACHYS.** See SPIKENARD.

NA'RDO (anc. *Neretum*), a town of South Italy, in the province of Lecce, 8 miles north-west-east from Gallipoli. N. has manufactures of cotton goods and snuff, from cotton and tobacco grown in the neighborhood. The surrounding country abounds in olive plantations. Pop. about 8500.

NARDOO (*Marsilea quadrifida*), a plant of the acotyledonous natural order *Juncaceæ* (q. v.), the only plant of that order which is used in any way by man. It has but recently become known to botanists. It is found in Australia, and affords important supplies of food to the natives of some regions; it has also been of great use to some recent exploring-parties. It grows in places occasionally covered with water; vegetating whilst moisture abounds, and then exhibiting abundance of green clover-like foliage, the leaves consisting of three leaflets at the top of a stalk some inches in length. When the water dries up, the remains of the plants are often covered with dried mud. It is then that the spore-cases are gathered for food. They are oval, flattened, about an eighth of an inch in length, hard and horny, and requiring considerable force to pound them when dry, but becoming soft and mucilaginous when moistened. The spore-cases, pounded with their contents, are made into cakes like flour.

NA'RDS, a genus of grasses, having a simple spike, spikelets all on one side, no glumes; each spikelet consisting of one floret, which has two paleæ, the outer ending in a long point. *N. stricta* is one of the most common of British grasses, growing in dry elevated situations, and very characteristic of them. It grows in tufts, and is often called MAT-GRASS. It is perennial, purplish, short, rigid, and very worthless, as almost no animal but the goat will eat it.

NA'REW, a river of West Russia, an affluent of the Bug, rises in the government of Grodno, and flows west-south-west to the main stream, which it joins at Sicrock, after a course of 294 miles. The waters of the N. are about as great in volume as those of the Bug. It is navigable to Tykoczin, 150 miles from its mouth.

NA'RO, a town of Sicily, in the province of Girgenti, and 14 miles east of the town of that name. It has 10,253 inhabitants, who trade in oil, wine, and sulphur. Numerous tombs, medals, and other antiquities have been found here.

NA'RSES, a celebrated statesman and general, and almost the last stay of the old Roman empire in Italy, was born towards the last quarter of the 5th century. The place of his birth is uncertain. His parentage was obscure, and he was probably sold as a slave in childhood, having, according to the barbarous usage of the period, been previously emasculated. From some menial office in the imperial household at Constantinople, he rose by successive steps to the post of *cubicularius*, or private chamberlain of the Emperor Justinian, and ultimately to that of keeper of the privy purse. In the difficult art of courtiership, N. long maintained a pre-eminence. More remarkable, however, considering his condition, was the distinction which he attained in military affairs. In 583 he was sent to Italy in command of a body of troops, professedly to act in concert with Belisarius (q. v.), but in reality, it is conjectured, with a secret commission to observe and to control that general. After some successes, N. having disputed with Belisarius, assumed an independent authority; but his separate command was unfortunate, and he was recalled to Constantinople in 589. After some years, however, Belisarius was recalled, and N. was appointed to the chief command in Italy. His conduct of that expedition extorted the admiration even of his enemies. Not having the command of a sufficient number of transports, he marched his army along the whole circuit of the shore of the Adriatic, and while the enemy's fleet were still in possession of the sea, was enabled to encounter them in the plain of Sentaglio, near Tagina, where, after a desperate engagement, the Goths were totally defeated, and their king, Totila, slain. N. took possession of Rome, and after

series of successes both in Southern and Northern Italy, completely extinguished the Gothic power in that peninsula. Justinian appointed N. exarch of Italy in 553. He fixed his court at Ravenna, and continued, till the death of Justinian, to administer the affairs of Italy with a vigor and ability which did much to stay the progress of that decay which had long infected all its social, political, and military institutions. The only blot on the character of his administration is the avarice with which he is charged by his contemporaries. His exactions pressed heavily on the exhausted resources of the population; though their severity may be in some degree palliated by the splendor and utility of the public works on which he partly expended the public resources. On the death of Justinian, his ascendancy came to an end. The Romans, on the accession of Justin, complained to him of the exactions of N., and that emperor deprived him, in 565, of his office; a proceeding to which a special indignity was imparted by an insulting message from the empress, that it was time for him to "leave arms to men, and to spin wool among the women of the palace." To this bitter taunt (according to Paulus Diaconus, "De Gest. Long." ii. 6), N. replied that he would "spin for her a thread which she would find it hard to unravel;" and he is accused of secretly intriguing with Alboin, king of the Lombards, to incite a new invasion of Italy, at the same time submissively offering his services to the emperor for the purpose of repelling the invasion. This account, however, seems uncertain, and perhaps improbable; and as N. died at Rome in 568, just on the eve of the Lombard invasion, no light is thrown upon this story by the actual events of the war. His age at the time of his death is a subject of much curious controversy. According to the popular account, it was no less than 95 years; but this is doubted by most of the historians.

NA'RTHEX, a part of the early Christian churches separate from the rest by a railing or screen, and to which the catechumens and penitents were admitted.

NA'RVA, a Russian town in the gov., and 95 m. w. s. w. of St Petersburg, is situated on the Narova, 10 m. from its mouth in the Gulf of Finland. It was founded in 1233 by Waldemar II., king of Denmark, and came into the possession of Russia in 1704. The navigation of the Narova is impeded by a waterfall near N., 14 feet high. In 1873, 168 ships, of 18,175 lasts (1 last = 1 11-14 ton), entered the port; the exports, chiefly flax and timber, were £150,698; the imports, £462,340. At the waterfall above the town there are sawmills, and an extensive cotton-mill, which employs 1700 workmen. Though belonging to the government of St Petersburg, N. is ruled by the laws of the Baltic provinces. Here, in November 1700, Charles XII., with 8000 men, defeated a Russian army of 60,000 men, under Peter the Great and the Duke of Croy. Pop. (1867) 6175.

NARVAEZ, Don Ramon Maria, Duke of Valencia, a Spanish general and statesman, was born at Loja, in Andalusia, 4th August 1805, and when very young, served in the war of Liberation against the French. He was an officer in 1820, when constitutional government was re-established in Spain, and in 1832, when a reactionary party of the royal guard took up arms to destroy the work of the revolution, N. ranged himself on the side of the liberals, and contributed by his courage to the repression of the mutiny. Shortly after, under the command of Mina, he made the campaign of Catalonia against the guerillas, who were assisted by the monks. The invasion of Spain by a French army in 1833 forced him to retire from active life. He withdrew to Loja, and lived there in obscurity until the death of Ferdinand VII. in 1832. In 1834, as captain of chasseurs, he maintained a hot struggle against the Carlists of the Basque provinces, and signalled himself in various engagements. In 1836, he commanded a division under the orders of Espartero, and in November of that year, completely routed the Carlist leader, Gomez, near Arcos. This was a decisive moment in his career. He now became immensely popular, aspired to the highest offices of the state, and was regarded as the rival of Espartero. In 1838, by acts of terrible severity, he cleared the district of La Mancha of brigands, and was appointed in 1840 captain-general of Old Castile, and general-in-chief of the army of reserve. When Espartero gave General Alarix a place in the ministry, N. resigned his command. He took part in the insurrection against Espartero that broke out at Seville in 1840, but that having failed, he was compelled to flee to France, where he was shortly after joined by Queen Christina (see MARIA CHRISTINA), and commenced those plots against the government of Espartero which, in 1848, effected its

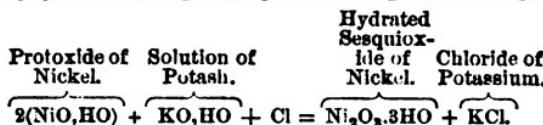
overthrow. In 1844, he was appointed president of council, and created Duke of Valencia. His ministry was thoroughly reactionary. He recalled Maria Christina, and revised the liberal constitution of 1837. The progressista party was dissatisfied, and petty insurrections broke out, which the rigorous soldier-statesman repressed with an iron hand. But his dictatorial manners finally alienated even his personal friends, and his ministry was overthrown (10th February 1846). After a brief exile as special ambassador at the French court, he returned to power in 1847, but soon afterwards quarrelled with Queen Christina, and found it necessary again to retire from office in 1851. In 1866, on the overthrow of O'Donnell's ministry, he again became president of council, and immediately commenced to strengthen the royal authority, and to restrict the liberty of the press. The intrigues of the court compelled his resignation in 1857. He returned to power in 1864, and (1865) was succeeded by O'Donnell, with whom he suppressed, in 1866, a military revolt in Madrid. He replaced O'Donnell in the same year, and, despite the efforts of O'Donnell and Prim, retained power till his death in 1868.

**NA'IT WHAL** (*Monodon* or *Narwhalus*), a genus of *Cetacea*, of the family *Delphinidae*, resembling *Betuga* (q. v.) in form and in the want of a dorsal fin, but remarkably characterised by having no teeth at all, except two in the upper jaw, supposed to be canines, which sometimes remain quite rudimentary, even in the mature animal, as they are in the young, and are sometimes developed into great spirally twisted straight tusks, passing through the upper lip, and projecting like horns in front. Only one species is ascertained, *M. monoceros* or *N. vulgaris*; the other species which have been described by naturalists having been founded on exaggerations and untrustworthy observations. It inhabits the Arctic seas, and is very rarely found so far south as the Shetland Isles, although an accidental wanderer has reached the coast of England. Narwhals are often seen in great numbers among the ice-fields, and in the creeks and bays of the most northern coasts. They commonly associate in small herds. The tusks are much more frequently developed in the male than in the female, but in the female also they sometimes attain a large size. It is but rarely that both tusks are largely developed, although they sometimes are so, and then diverge a little; one of them generally continues rudimentary, or attains a length only of a few inches, whilst the other becomes a great horn, projecting straight in front, from which the animal has received the name of **SEA UNICORN**. A mature N. is generally about fifteen or sixteen feet in length, without reckoning the tusk, which is from 6 to 10 feet long. The body is less thick than that of the Beluga; the head is small, the forehead rises abruptly, the muzzle is very obtuse, the upper jaw projects a little; the first half of the body is nearly cylindrical, the remainder to the tail fin is conical. The tusk is hollow nearly to the point. Its use is rather conjectured than known. It is probably a weapon of defence, but Scoresby has suggested that it may be also used for breaking thin ice in order to obtain opportunity for respiration; and for killing fish, as he found remains of skates and other flat-fish in the stomach of a N., which it is not easy to imagine how a toothless animal, with rather small mouth and lips, could capture and swallow, unless the formidable tusk were first employed. Cephalopodous molluscs, however, are believed to constitute a principal part of the food of narwhals. The N. is a very active animal, swimming with great rapidity, lively, and playful. A group of narwhals playing together, projecting their great horns from the sea, and crossing them in their sport, is a very interesting sight. The N. is pursued by the Greenlanders and other inhabitants of the north, for the sake of its blubber, with which its whole body is invested to the thickness of about three inches, amounting to nearly half a ton in weight, and yielding a large proportion of excellent oil. The tusks are also valuable, being of an extremely compact white substance—denser, harder, and whiter than ivory—which is used as a substitute for ivory. The kings of Denmark have long possessed a magnificent throne of this material, which is preserved in the Castle of Rosenberg. The flesh of the N. is used by the Greenlanders as food. Great medicinal virtues were formerly ascribed to the tusks; but were merely imaginary.

**NASA'LIS**, or Proboscis Monkey (*Nasalis larvatus*), a monkey allied to the *Doucs* or *Semnopithecæ*, but distinguished from all other monkeys by an extreme elongation of nose, that organ being nearly four inches in length in the mature animal. In the

young, the nose is comparatively undeveloped. The nostrils are placed quite at the extremity of the nose, and are separated merely by a thin cartilage. Of what use the magnitude of its nose is to the animal, is unknown. The N. inhabits Borneo and neighboring islands. It is gregarious. It is an animal of about three feet in height, if placed erect, a position it does not often assume. It can leap fifteen feet or more. Its fur is thick, not long, nor woolly; chestnut red, and in some parts golden yellow.

**NA'SCENT STATE**, in Chemistry. When an element or compound is liberated from some chemical combination in which it had previously existed, the element or compound so liberated is at the moment when it escapes said to be in a nascent state; and it is then often capable of exerting far more powerful combining action with other bodies than it can exhibit when brought in contact with them *after* it has been liberated. Arsenic and hydrogen will not directly combine if brought in contact with one another under ordinary circumstances, but the application of Marsh's test (see **ARSENIC**) depends upon the direct union of the nascent hydrogen (liberated by the decomposition of the water) with the arsenic, giving rise to arseniureted hydrogen gas. Again, if hydrated protoxide of nickel ( $\text{NiO}_2\text{HO}$ ) be suspended in a solution of caustic potash ( $\text{KO}_2\text{HO}$ ), it will undergo no change if a current of oxygen gas be passed through the solution; but if a current of chlorine be substituted for the oxygen, the whole of the metallic protoxide will be converted into the brown sesquioxide ( $\text{Ni}_2\text{O}_3$ ), the resulting decomposition being shewn in equation:



This change arises from the action of the chlorine upon the potash, during which chloride of potassium ( $\text{KCl}$ ) is formed, while the nascent oxygen which is liberated from the potash combines with the oxide of nickel. Again, cyanogen ( $\text{C}_2\text{N}$ ) and chlorine do not enter directly into combination, but if cyanogen at the instant that it is liberated from one of its compounds (as, for example, cyanide of mercury) comes in contact with chlorine, the two combine; and many other examples of similar action might be adduced.

**NA'SEBY**, a parish and village of England, in the county of Northampton, 12 miles north of the town of that name. *Pop.* (1871) 693. The battle of N., between Charles I. and the parliamentary army under Fairfax and Cromwell, took place here, June 14, 1645. It resulted in the total defeat of the royalists, the king being compelled to flee, after losing his cannon and baggage, and nearly 5000 of his army as prisoners.

**NASH**, Richard, better known by the name of *Beau Nash*, a fashionable character of the last century, who attained to a very remarkable notoriety, was the son of a Welsh gentleman, and was born at Swansea, in Glamorganshire, October 18, 1674. After studying at Oxford, he held for some time a commission in the army, and subsequently took rooms in the Temple, but the dissipations of society had more attractions for him than the pursuits of law. He became a dicer-out, a frequenter of good society, and contrived to support himself by gambling. But the grand turning-point in his fortunes was his visit, in 1704, to Bath—then a favorite haunt of elegant invalids, and the scene of the gayest intrigues. N. undertook the management of the public balls, which he conducted with a splendor and decency never before witnessed. In this way he came to acquire an imperial influence in the fashionable society of the place. It appears that he was also distinguished by a species of sentimental benevolence. He played hard and successfully; yet if he heard an individual sighing behind his chair: "Good Heavens! how happy would that money make me," N. would thrust his own winnings into his hands, with theatrical generosity, and exclaim: "Go, and be happy." His own equipage at this period of his career was sumptuous. He used, we are told, to travel to Tunbridge in a post-chariot and six grays, with outriders, footmen, French-horns, and every other appendage of expensive parade. He is praised for the great care which he took of the morals of the young ladies who attended the Bath balls, always putting them

on their guard against needy adventurers—like himself. In his old age, Beau N. sank into poverty, and often felt the want of that charity which he himself had never refused. He died at Bath, February 3, 1761, at the age of 87.

NASH, John, an architect, was born in London in 1752. He underwent the usual course of training for his profession, but soon entered into some building speculations which enabled him to buy a small property in Caermarthen. Here in fresh speculations he lost much money; therefore, in 1792, returned to London and architecture, in which he speedily rose to eminence. On the strength of having obtained a patent in 1797 for improvements in the construction of the arches and piers of bridges, he was in the habit of claiming a great part of the credit of introducing the use of cast-iron girders. A large part of his time was occupied in designing and constructing mansion-houses for the nobility and gentry in England and Ireland, but he is chiefly celebrated in connection with the great street improvements in London. From February 1815, when he was appointed "architect, valuer, and agent to the Board of Woods and Forests," down till near the end of his professional career, he was busily engaged in the planning of routes, grouping of buildings, and fixing of sites. Regent Street, Haymarket Theatre, Langham Place Church, and the terraces in Regent's Park, are specimens of his designs. The Pavilion at Brighton was another of his works. He retired from his profession in 1834, and died May 18, 1836. N., notwithstanding his many defects, possessed great power of effective grouping, as is well shewn in his works. In the architecture of mansion-houses, the designing of "interiors" was his *forte*.

NA'SHUA, a manufacturing city of New Hampshire, U. S., at the junction of the Merrimac and Nashua Rivers. The falls of the latter afford water-power to six large manufacturing companies, which have extensive cotton-mills, machine-shops, &c. It has ten churches, 8 banks, 2 newspapers. Pop. (1870) 10,548.

NA'SHVILLE, a city, port of entry, and capital of Tennessee, U. S., on the Cumberland River, 200 miles above the Ohio, and a little north of the centre of the state. The river is navigable by steam-boats of 1500 tons fifty miles above Nashville. Five railways connect it with a vast and fertile country. It is a handsome, well-built city, with a state-house, which cost a million of dollars; court-house, 3 universities, hospital, custom-house, theatre, penitentiary, free academy, Protestant and Catholic orphan asylums, 34 churches, with numerous daily, weekly, and monthly publications. It has a large commerce, flour, saw, and planing mills, a large cotton factory (with 400 looms and 18,840 spindles in 1875), manufactories of engines and machinery, &c. The value of the wholesale trade in 1873 was \$1,261,670 dollars. Near the city are the State Lunatic Asylum, and the "Hermitage," once the residence of President Jackson. N. was occupied by the Federal troops in 1862, and here the Federal General Thomas gained a victory over General Hood. Pop. in 1870, 25,865.

NA'SSAU, formerly a German duchy, now Wiesbaden, a district of the Prussian province of Hesse-Nassau, in  $49^{\circ} 50' - 50^{\circ} 60'$  n. lat. and  $7^{\circ} 30' - 8^{\circ} 45'$  e. long., is bounded w. and s. by the Main and the Rhine, the Prussian-Rhenish provinces, and the grand-duchy of Hesse; e. by the Hesse and Frankfurt territories; and n. by Westphalia. Area, 1802 square miles. Pop. (1875) 680,215. Wiesbaden possesses very great physical advantages. In its southern districts, nearly the whole of its area is occupied by the Taunus Mountains, whose highest point, the Great Feldberg, attains an elevation of about 2750 feet. This range includes within its boundaries the fertile valleys known as the Rheingau. The northern part of the district includes the barren highlands of the Westerwald, whose most considerable peak, the Salzburger Head, is nearly 2000 feet high. Besides the Rhine and the Main, which are the boundary-rivers, Wiesbaden is traversed from east to west by the Lahn, which becomes navigable at Wiesburg, and is augmented by the confluence of numerous other streams, as the Wohl, Embs, Aar, Dill, and Elbe. The productiveness of the soil is proved by the excellent quality of the numerous vegetable products, which include corn, hemp, flax, tobacco, vegetables, and fruits, including grapes, which yield some of the most highly esteemed Rhenish wines. The hills are well wooded, and abound with game of various kinds, and the rivers yield an abundance of fish and crustaceans. In the more mountainous districts, iron, lead, copper, and some silver are obtained, together with good building-stone, marble, and coal; the chief mineral wealth is, however, derived from the numerous springs, which, directly and indirect-

ly, bring the government a clear annual gain of more than 100,000 gulden. The most noted of these springs, of which there are more than 100, are Wiesbaden, Weilbach, Langen-Schwalbach, Schlangenbad, Ems, Selters, and Geilman, the majority of which were the property of the duke.

Wiesbaden, which is divided into 12 circles, has few towns of any commercial importance, but it boasts of many fashionable watering-places, which are annually crowded with visitors from every part of the world. Of these, the most considerable are Wiesbaden (q. v.), the capital of the district—pop. (1875) 43,674—Schwalbach, Schlangenbad, Fachingen, Selters, and Geilman. Höchst, an active little place on the Main, is the only manufacturing town of the duchy, but a brisk trade is carried on at many small ports on the Rhine, Main, and Lahn, from whence the mineral waters, wines, and other natural products of the country are exported. The exports are wine—including some of the choicest kinds, as Hochheimer, Johanniskirberger, Rüdesheimer, Markobrunner, Asmannshäuser—mineral waters, corn, iron, manganese, cattle, &c.; while the imports embrace colonial products, manufactured goods, salt, jewellery, &c.

N. had a representative form of government, based on the constitution of 1814; and the duke, who was also a Count-Palatine of the Rhine, Count of Sayn, Königstein, Katzenellenbogen, and Dietz, &c., was assisted in the government by a council of state, presided over by a prime-minister. The legislative assembly consisted of an upper chamber, composed of 24 representatives, chosen for six years, and a second chamber, chosen annually. More than one-third of the population belonged to the Catholic Church, which was under the ecclesiastical jurisdiction of the bishop of Limburg, who was assisted by a board of commissioners, located at Eltville, on the Rhine; and excepting about 19,000 persons who belonged to the Jewish and other persuasions, the remainder of the people, including the then reigning house, professed the "evangelical" form of German Protestantism, and were comprehended in one episcopal see under the bishop of Wiesbaden. Ample provisions were made in the district for popular education, in furtherance of which there were upwards of 700 elementary schools, with about 1000 teachers, 10 normal schools, a gymnasium, various training, theological, polytechnic, military, and other educational institutions. In accordance with a treaty with Hanover, Göttingen constitutes the university for arts for Wiesbaden, which has also a Roman Catholic theological faculty in conjunction with Hesse-Cassel at the university of Marburg. Wiesbaden, which is the principal seat for all national institutions of literature, science, and benevolence, has a good public library, containing 60,000 volumes, a museum, &c.

N. occupied, in conjunction with Brunswick, the thirteenth place in the limited council of the diet, but it had two votes in the plenum, or full council. It furnished a contingent of 4279, with a reserve of 1833 men, to the army of the old confederation.

The receipts, according to the budget of 1866, were 4,461,410 florins derived from the crown domains and indirect taxes, and 317,935 florins from direct taxation, while the expenditure was estimated at 5,804,975 florins. The national debt at the close of 1864, represented a capital of 6,088,800 florins. The duke, who was in possession of very extensive domains, ranked as one of the richest princes of Germany.

In tracing the history of N. to its earliest origin, we find that the districts now known by that name were anciently occupied by the Alemanni, and on the subjugation of the latter people by the Franks, became incorporated first with the Frankish, and next with the German empire. Among the various chiefs who raised themselves to independent power in this portion of the Frankish territories, one of the most influential was Otto of Laurenburg, brother of King Conrad I, who became the founder of two distinct lines of princes. The heads of these lines were Walram and Otto, the sons of Count Henry I, who, in 1255, divided the land between them. Walram II., the elder, was the progenitor of the house of Laurenburg, which, towards the close of the 12th c., assumed its present name of N. from the name of its chief stronghold; while Otto, the younger, by his marriage with the heiress of Gelmers, founded the line of Nassau-Gelders, whose last male representative died in 1423, but which still survives through a female branch, in the family now occupying the throne of the Netherlands. This junior branch of the house of Nassau, by

Inheritance from a collateral representative, acquired possession, in 1544, of the principality of Orange; and since that period, the representatives of the Otto line have been known as Princes of Orange (q. v.). The Walram line, which in 1293 gave an emperor to Germany, in the person of Adolf of N., was subdivided by the descendants of that prince into several branches, until, by the successive extinction of the other lines, the Nassau-Weilburg family, which at present reigns over the duchy, was left, in 1816, the sole heir and representative of the Walram dynasty in Germany. N. had been declared a duchy in 1806, and in 1817 the reigning Duke William granted new constitution; but during the first sittings of the assembly, dissensions arose between the ducal government and the representatives, the former having attempted to establish the proposition that the ducal domains were the unconditional property of the royal house, and that all the expenses of the state would consequently have to be met by taxation.

This proved a fruitful source of dissension between the duke and his people, and the opposition and discontent to which it gave rise, were not finally allayed till 1884, when a more liberal ministry, under Count Walderdorff, succeeded the unpopular cabinet which had hitherto directed public affairs. Concessions were made by the ducal government, which met the requirements of the chambers, and a satisfactory compromise was effected in regard to the crown revenues. In 1886, N. joined the German Zoll-Verein, and subsequently to that period, it has continued to advance in material prosperity. The reigning Duke Adolphus William, who succeeded his father, Duke William, in 1889, shewed the same conservative tendencies as his predecessor. The revolutionary crisis of 1848 found the people, who had been harassed by over-government and by a jealous dread of liberal sentiments, ripe for insurrection. The peasantry rose *en masse* in the rural districts, and revenged themselves for the severity of the game-laws, and other obnoxious restrictions, by perpetrating the most wanton destruction of game and wood in the forests belonging to the crown and nobility. These disorders were speedily put down by the aid of federal troops, but notwithstanding the concessions made by the government, the relations between the people and their ruler continued for many years to be unsatisfactory. For the events which led to the incorporation of Nassau with Prussia, see GERMANY.

NASSAU, the capital of New Providence, is the centre of the trade of the Bahamas (q. v.). It is pleasantly situated on the face of a hill, in lat.  $25^{\circ} 5' \text{ N.}$ , long.  $71^{\circ} 21' \text{ W.}$  Pop. 9,00. The town is well laid out, has several handsome public buildings, and an excellent and well-sheltered harbor. The climate is very salubrious, and N. is a great resort of invalids from the north. It has extensive hotel accommodation, a lunatic asylum, and a leper-house, and is defended by two forts. N. exports cotton, pimento and salt. During the civil war in the United States, it became notorious in connection with the blockade runners.

NASSI'CK, or Nashik, a town of British India in the district of the same name, in the presidency of Bombay, 95 miles north-east of Bombay, on the river Godavery, not far from its source. It is a town of great sacredness in the estimation of the Hindus—more revered than even Benares—is a great place of pilgrimage, the chief seat of Brahmanism in the Deccan, and the residence of many families of Brahmins, some of them living in great affluence. It contains many temples, which are built along both banks of the Godavery, and on rocks in the river. They are all of black basalt, and dedicated to Siva. Of far greater interest, however, are the Buddhist caves, about 5 miles from the town, which are situated in a conical hill at a height of about 100 yards from its base. They are rudely executed. The figures which they contain are in a state of good preservation, and the leading figures are those of Buddha; but the whole character of the remains is thought to indicate Buddhism in a state of transition or compromise with Brahmanism. One cave is 45 feet square, and its flat roof is wholly unsupported. Notwithstanding the Buddhist origin and character of these caves, the Brahmins of N., for the sake of gain, encourage the popular reverence for them. N. contains a resident pop. of (1872) 22,486.

NASTU'RTIUM. See CRESS AND TROPEOLUM.

NATA'L. The region now forming the colony of Natal derives its name from its being discovered by the Portuguese on Christmas-day 1497. It was visited about

1822 by several white traders from the Cape, who found the country in possession of the Zulu chief Chaka, who ruled in a most sanguinary manner over all the tribes, from the Umzinculu to the St Lucia River. He was killed and succeeded by his brother Dingaan in 1838, but the latter having treacherously murdered a party of emigrant Dutch Boers, who had paid him a friendly visit by invitation to buy land, he was attacked and finally destroyed by the Boers, who at that time had emigrated from the Cape Colony in large numbers, and who made his brother Panda paramount chief in his stead, and then settled themselves down in the country as his lords and masters. The British government, however, now interfered, and after a severe struggle on the part of the Boers, the country was formally proclaimed a British colony on the 12th May 1843, since which time it has progressed very satisfactorily. In 1856, it was erected into a distinct and separate colony, free from the control of the governor of the Cape. The attention of our colonial office has recently been called to the relations between the European and native population of N., by the case of Langalibalele, a Zulu chieftain, who, on slight grounds of suspicion, was treated very summarily by the colonial government, some of his people slain, and himself banished. The colonial secretary informed the government of the colony that their proceedings were illegal, and in 1875 Sir Garnet Wolseley was despatched to N. as temporary governor, and passed a Reform Bill likely to secure a more satisfactory state of affairs in regard to the position of the two races.

The colony of N. looks out on the Indian Ocean, being situated on the s.e. coast of Africa, about 804 m. e.n.e. of the Cape of Good Hope, between the 29th and 31st parallels of south latitude. Its n.e. boundary is the Tugela or Buffalo River, which divides it from Zululand, and its s.w. boundary is the Umzinculu and Umtamvuna Rivers, separating it from Kaffraria proper. A lofty and rugged range of mountains called the Quathlamba, or Drachenberg, divides it from the Free State and Basutoland, and it contains a well defined area of 20,212 square miles.

These mountains are composed of a confused mass of granite, gneiss, sandstone, basaltic veins, and shale, and present both the flat top and serrated summits of the chain, of which they are a continuation, so well known in the Cape Colony as the Sneeuberg and Stormbergen. About lat.  $29^{\circ} 30'$ , these mountains seem to reach their culminating point, and probably attain a height of 10,000 feet, forming a summit line of watershed, from which flow to all points of the compass the waters of the Orange, Umzimvubu, Vaal, Tugela, and other large South African streams. Towards the coast, these mountains present a scarped and almost inaccessible face; towards the interior, however, they gradually die away into the immense rolling plains of the Free State. Many offshoots from these mountains traverse the colony, dividing it into a series of steps or plateaux, gradually rising from the coast region to the foot of the mountains, and forming so many zones of natural productions.

The coast region, extending about 25 miles inland, is highly fertile, and has a climate almost tropical, though perfectly healthy. Sugar, coffee, indigo, arrowroot, ginger, tobacco, and cotton thrive amazingly, and the pine-apple ripens in the open air with very little cultivation. The midland terrace is more fit for the cereals and usual European crops; while on the higher plateau, along the foot of the mountains, are immense tracts of the finest pasture for cattle and sheep.

The climate is very salubrious; the thermometer ranges between  $90^{\circ}$  and  $38^{\circ}$ , but the heat, even in summer, is seldom oppressive. The mean annual temperature at Pietermaritzburg, the capital, is  $64^{\circ} 71'$ . The winter begins in April and ends in September; the average number of rainy days being 13. In the summer season the thunder-storms are very frequent and severe. The annual rainfall on the coast is about 35 inches. Inland, it varies a good deal in different districts, and is greatest in summer. The south-east is the prevailing wind here in the summer months, as in the Cape Colony. Occasionally the sirocco or hot wind from the north-west is felt, which generally terminates in a thunder-storm.

N. has but one harbor on its coast, and that is D'Urban, or Port Natal, in lat.  $27^{\circ} 58'$ . It is completely landlocked, but a bar prevents vessels above a certain tonnage from entering. There is, however, generally a depth of water on it varying from 9 to 18 feet. There is secure holding ground in the outer anchorage. The harbor of D'Urban is of great importance to N., as it is the only one worthy of the name on the south-east coast. Many extensive engineering operations have been carried on with

the purpose of improving the harbor and increasing the depth of water at the entrance. The principal rivers are the Tugela or Buffalo, the Umcomanzi, Umgani, and Umzimvulu; like the majority of South African rivers, they are of no use for purposes of inland navigation; but their streams are permanent, and often available for irrigating purposes, thus giving N. in one very essential point a decided superiority over the Cape Colony.

Coal, copper-ore, iron, and other minerals are found in several places, and there is no doubt that, when the great mountain-range is properly explored, it will be found very rich in mineral wealth. Large forests of valuable timber abound in the kloofs of all the mountain-ranges, and many tracts along the coast are also well wooded. N. is divided into the following countries: D'Urban, Victoria, Alexandra, and Alfred on the coast region; Pietermaritzburg, Umcomanzi, and Umzoti, central; and Klip River and Weenen at foot of the mountains. The capital is Pietermaritzburg, with about 6800 inhabitants, on a tributary of the Umgani River, about 50 miles inland. It possesses a large military establishment, and many substantial public buildings. Its name is a compound of the Christian name of Pieter Rietief, and the surname of Gert Maritz, two celebrated leaders of the emigrant Boers who were murdered by Dingaan. D'Urban, or Port Natal, is also a very flourishing town, having a railway connecting the landing-place at Point Natal with the town, and a population of (1872) 6276. It has 2 newspapers, and several banks and other public institutions. Vryheid, Weenen, Richmond, Newcastle, and Ladysmith are also flourishing towns, and several other new villages have been recently formed.

N. is governed by a lieutenant-governor, aided by a legislative council, consisting of thirteen members appointed by the colonial office, and fifteen elected by the constituencies into which the colony is divided. Municipal institutions have been granted to the principal towns. It forms the diocese of a colonial bishop, and many stations of the Wesleyan, American, Norwegian, and Berlin missions exist. Education is receiving much attention, and schools are multiplying.

The De Beer and Bezuidenhout Passes are the only practicable roads across the mountains, and lead by very circuitous routes across the Free State into Cape Colony; and the numerous mountain streams wanting bridges render internal communication very difficult. Three lines of railway, of a total length of 104 miles, are in course of construction; the chief to connect D'Urban with the capital.

The principal articles of export from N. are wool, sugar, ivory, and hides. The wool exported to Great Britain in 1875 was valued at £514,310, and weighed 8,828,524 lbs. The total value of exports for the same year was £985,695. The exports comprise cotton, ivory, sugar, coffee, arrowroot, wool, hides, feathers, molasses, and rhinoceros horns. The value of imports in 1875 was £1,268,888. The revenue of the colony in 1875 was £260,271, principally raised from custom-duties, transfer dues, and taxes on native huts, &c. In 1843, the value of imports was £11,712, that of exports £1261, while the revenue was only £12,000. N. productions were very respectably represented in the Great Exhibition of 1862, and formed one of the most interesting of our colonial compartments. The population consists of Dutch Boers, who remained in the country after it became a British colony; of English and German settlers; and the remains of the Zulu tribes, who originally possessed the country. It numbered, in 1877, 835,512, of whom 22,684 were whites. The natives, the most illustrious of the Kaffir races, possess horses, cattle, sheep, &c., valued at £1,500,000, and properly managed, make excellent servants.

The total tonnage of the vessels that entered and cleared the port of N. in 1875 was 187,227 tons, of which 121,322 were British. The discovery of diamond-fields on the Vaal River is an event in which the colony is deeply concerned.

The large animals are gradually disappearing, although elephants are still occasionally met with in the dense bush of the coast region. Lions, leopards, wolves, and hyenas still hang on the outskirts of civilisation. The smaller antelopes are plentiful, and alligators are met with in nearly all the rivers north-east of the Umzimvulu. N., besides several venomous snakes, produces a small species of boa, which sometimes attains a length of 16 feet. The hippopotamus is still found near the mouths of the rivers on the eastern frontier.

The botany of this region resembles that of Kaffraria proper, although generally of a more tropical character. All the timber-trees of the Cape Colony are found here,

besides many new ones. The climate of the coast region, however, is too warm for the grape, at least for the purpose of wine-making.

Brook's "Natal," by Manu (1869); Hall's "South African Geography;" "Natal Almanac" (1875); "The Cape and South Africa," by John Noble (1878).

NATAL, or Rio Grande do Norte, a fortified seaport of Brazil, capital of the province of Rio Grande do Norte, and built on low lands about three miles from the mouth of the river of that name, 100 m. n. of Paraíba. Pop. 10,000.

NATAL, John William Colenso, D.D., Bishop of, a divine of the Church of England, was born in 1814, and educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he graduated as Second Wrangler and Smith's Prizeman in 1836. From 1838 to 1842, he was one of the masters of Harrow School, and for the next four years, tutor of St. John's College. In 1846, he was appointed rector of Forncett St. Mary, in the county of Norfolk, and in 1854, first bishop of N., South Africa. The works by which he was, until recently, most widely known were his two treatises on Algebra and Arithmetic. The treatise on Algebra was first published in 1849, and that on Arithmetic in 1853. They soon acquired great popularity, and have been adopted as text-books in many of the principal schools and colleges in Great Britain. He has also published other educational works. He first attracted public notice, however, by the dedication of a volume of Sermons to the Rev. Mr. Maurice (q. v.), at the moment when that gentleman was in disgrace with the "orthodox" section of the religious world. His affection and respect for Mr. Maurice were further shewn by his edition of the "Communion Service, with Selections from Writings of the Rev. F. D. Maurice" (1855). In the same year appeared his "Ten Weeks in Natal;" in 1861, his "Translation of the Epistle to the Romans, commented on from a Missionary Point of View;" and "A Letter to his Grace the Archbishop of Canterbury, upon the Question of the Proper Treatment of Cases of Polygamy, as found already existing in Converts from Heathenism," in which he recommends, on grounds both of reason and Scripture, that Converts to Christianity, already possessing several wives, should not be forced to put them all away, except one. He admits that monogamy is most in harmony with the genius of Christianity, but would enforce it only in the case of those who married after their conversion. The outcry raised by his professional brethren against the "Letter" was sufficiently loud, but it was nothing to the tempest of disapprobation that burst forth in the following year (1862), when he published "The Pentateuch and Book of Joshua Critically Examined," in which he endeavored to prove that, as they stand, these books are not the products either of the age to which they are usually assigned, or of the authors whose names they bear; and that they are not entirely historical, but in many most important passages are overlaid with legendary, mythical, and symbolical incidents. Part VI. of this work was published in 1872. The Bishop of Cape Town, the metropolitan bishop, declared Colenso deposed from his see; but on an appeal to the Privy Council in 1865, the deposition was pronounced null and void. In 1874, Colenso visited England to plead the cause of Langalibalele (see NATAL). Other works by the bishop are "Natal Sermons" (1866); and "Lectures on the Pentateuch and the Moabite Stone" (2d ed., 1873).

#### NA'TANT. See NA'ANT.

NATATO'RES (Lat. swimmers), the name given by Illiger, and many other ornithologists, to the order of birds called *Palmipedes* (q. v.) by Cuvier.

NA'TCHEZ, a city and port of entry in Mississippi, U. S., on the east bank of the Mississippi River, 280 miles north of New Orleans. It is finely situated on the bluff, 150 feet high, which here forms the bank of the river. A portion of the town at the bottom of the bluff is called Natchez-under-the-Hill, and was formerly the resort of the river gamblers, pirates, and other desperate characters. The city has eight churches, a court-house, jail, United States Marine Hospital, a daily and two weekly papers. It is the shipping port of a large and fertile cotton district, and has steam-boat connections with the whole Mississippi valley. N., which derives its name from a noted tribe of Indians, was settled by the French in 1716, and destroyed by the Indians in 1729, who were subsequently defeated, and banished to the West Indies. Pop. in 1870, 9057.

NATION (Lat. *natio*, from *natus*, born), a word used in two distinct senses. 1.

A state or independent society united by common political institutions; 2. An aggregate mass of persons collected by ties of blood and lineage, and sometimes of language. The modern dogma of nationalism, as maintained by a class of continental politicians, starts from an assumption that a nation in the latter sense ought necessarily to be also a nation in the former, and endeavors to assign limits to the several races of Europe, with the view of erecting each into a distinct state, separated from other states or nationalities. The extreme politicians of the national school seem to consider the supposed rights of nationalities as paramount even to the obligations of treaties, and the political conjunction of one nationality with another is looked on by them as an adequate ground for a revolt or separation, apart altogether from the question whether the nationality is well or ill governed. In point of fact, the different races in Europe are so commingled, that any reconstruction of the political map of Europe, on ethnological principles, would be impossible, even if desirable. The blood of nine-tenths of Europe has been mixed within the historical period. The test of language, on which nationality has sometimes been based, is a deceptive one, in so far as it is indefinite and perpetually fluctuating. The people on the frontier between two races, as in the South Tyrol, generally speak two languages. Then we have dialects, like the Walloon, the Grödnerisch of the Tyrol, and the Romansch of the Grisons—as also the Breton, Welsh, Gaelic, and Irish languages, which could hardly be made the basis of independent communities. The wellbeing of the people governed is properly the end of all government, and it has practically not been always found that a state is better governed when it consists of one race only, than when it includes an aggregate of races. Highly diversified nationalities may be united in one political system, provided only that the government respects and counts the peculiarities of the several races, and does not attempt to force the usages, habits, or language of one on the rest. See *ETHNOLOGY*.

**NATIONAL CONVENTION**, an assembly of deputies of the people, which assumed the whole government of France on the overthrow of the throne in 1792. When the National Assembly (see *ASSEMBLY NATIONAL*) had decreed the suspension of the king, 10th August 1792, it appointed the election of the N. C., which commenced its sittings 21st September. Its first act was to declare France a republic, 25th September. Upon this followed the trial and condemnation of the king. Through the support of excited mobs, the extreme Jacobin party became predominant in the Convention; where, from the elevated *sca*-*ta* on which its members sat, it received the name of the *Mountain* party. The *Revolutionary Tribunal* was established; the chief administration of affairs was intrusted to the *Committee of Public Safety*, which exercised the most despotic powers. The Girondists (q. v.), at first powerful party in the Convention, were destroyed, many of them perishing by the guillotine; and a new constitution, thoroughly democratic, was adopted, 10th August 1793; but its operation was suspended until peace should be restored. Meanwhile, the actual rulers of the country displayed marvellous energy; almost a million of citizens being placed under arms, and immense provision of all warlike stores made by means of requisitions. They also proceeded with merciless severity against their political opponents, dealing with them as traitors; hundreds of thousands were thrown into prison, and the number who died by the guillotine increased daily both in Paris and throughout France. The N. C. itself latterly became subject to the dictatorial power of Robespierre; many of its members were guillotined within a few weeks; and independent opinion was no longer expressed. The overthrow of Robespierre was followed by a great reaction; the Jacobins were suppressed; and finally the N. C., after concluding peace with Prussia and Spain, dissolved itself 26th October 1795 (4th Brumaire of the year IV.), leaving to the nation a new constitution, which placed the government in the hands of a Directory (q. v.).

**NATIONAL COVENANT.** See *Covenant*.

**NATIONAL DEBT.** See *Debt, National*.

**NATIONAL EDUCATION.** The general subject of Education has been already treated under that head. By the term "National Education" is understood (1) the means taken by the body of any nation, either through the state or other organisations, for educating the people; (2) the objects which the nation ought to place before itself in its educational measures. These questions involve the whole inner and outer history of education, and are far too large and important to be capable of such

treatment here as would convey accurate notions to the reader. All we can do is to glance slightly at the history of the two branches into which the subject divides itself. Among ancient nations, and among not a few nations now existing, education in any definite sense did not, and does not, exist for the masses of the people. The children grow up in reflective or unreflective imitation of their fathers. But at all times, nations which have quite emerged from the savage state, have had some more or less organised scheme of education for the leisured and governing classes. The purpose kept in view in such education has been to fit the pupils to discharge certain duties of war or government. In addition to this, the priesthood had the education which their traditional hymns, laws, and customs afforded. That man as such, apart from any special practical ends, should be educated, was an idea late of being recognised, and occurred first to the Greeks, to whom the world owes so much. But neither among them nor their imitators, the Romans, was the education of *the masses of the people* ever contemplated. Education, properly so called, was confined to a few. In the centuries which succeeded the introduction of Christianity, the church was the great educating body—training those intended for the service of the altar, not only in Christian doctrine, but in all the learning of the past. This, at least, was the general tendency of education in the church. But it was not till the Reformation in the 16th c. that learning, even to the limited extent of reading and writing, was considered a worthy object of pursuit by any save those who, in some form or other, were destined to be drawn within the clerical ranks. The Reformation introduced the idea of educating the masses of the people—the leaders of this movement being, no doubt, forced to this conclusion by the necessity which their view of man's personal religious obligations imposed on them. It was manifestly a corollary from the position they took up that *every man's intellect* should be so trained as to be able to read, and inquire, and think for itself. It was only very slowly that so large a conception of the sphere of education could be given effect to. Gradually, however, popular schools arose in many parts of the continent of Europe, especially in Germany, and the number of gymnasii or grammar-schools was, during the same period, increased. In Scotland, so early as 1696, the government took up the matter, and ordained that there should be a school as well as a church in every parish, at the same time providing for their maintenance by a tax on land, and for their management by putting them under a certain number of those who paid the tax conjoined with the minister of the parish—all being subject to the presbyteries within whose bounds they were situated. The example of Scotland cannot be said to have been followed on a rything like a national scale by any country till after the French Revolution had exhausted itself. Since 1815, the distinguishing idea of government administration may be said to be the necessity of educating *the people, and all the people*—even the outcast and the criminal. During the last fifty years, all the German states, and more especially Prussia and Saxony, have developed excellent national systems of education, and France has followed their example. Russia and the new Kingdom of Italy are also now organising primary instruction; and at the same time, as in all European countries, they are making provision for the instruction and professional training of the teachers in Normal Schools (q. v.). The schools for instructing the middle classes, and grammar-schools (French, *lycées*; German, *gymnasiums*), whose object is to prepare pupils for the universities, have received increased attention. Universities themselves, too, have been further developed, their curriculum extended in range, their objects elevated, and their number increased.

To return to primary instruction. In England there was no national system, properly so called, before 1833, but voluntary efforts were largely aided by the state in the form of Privy Council grants. These grants were also extended to Scotland, as it became necessary to supplement the parochial schools there, owing to the increase of population. The principal conditions on which these grants were made were, that they were only to supplement local efforts, that the schools should pass a satisfactory examination before a government inspector, and that the Bible be read in them. As much additional religious instruction might be given as the school-masters pleased, but no schools were admitted to Privy Council aid from which the Bible was excluded. Under the stimulus afforded by these grants, the educational wants of England were, after 1833, to a great extent supplied; but many districts were left unprovided with schools, and many more very badly supplied. In

1870, an important measure, entitled "An Act to provide for Public Elementary Education in England and Wales," was passed by parliament, according to which it is enacted that "there shall be provided for every school district a sufficient amount of accommodation in public elementary schools available for all the children resident in such district, for whose elementary education efficient and suitable provision is not otherwise made." It is enacted further, that all children attending these schools, whose parents are unable, from poverty, to pay anything towards their education, shall be admitted free, and the expenses so incurred be discharged from local rates. The new schools are placed in each district under "school-boards" invested with great powers—among others, that of compelling parents to send their children to school. An act in most respects similar to the above was passed in 1872 for Scotland, whose educational wants had previously been well supplied.

In Ireland, a national system instituted and maintained by the state exists, and one of its main features is the separation of the religious from the secular teaching—at least in theory. The extent to which this principle has been encroached upon in the course of working out the scheme, is not accurately known, but is worthy of special inquiry.

In the British colonies, as in the United States of America, adequate state systems of education have been provided on the basis of the secular principle. See the articles **NATIONAL EDUCATION**, and **PRIVY COUNCIL, COMMITTEE OF, ON EDUCATION**.

**NATIONAL EDUCATION**, Systems of, the provision made by various states for the education of their citizens. In England the term national education is commonly used as implying only a provision made for the instruction of children of the poorer classes. But it is capable of a much more extensive application, and in most of the countries in which the state provides for the education of the people, the state regulates, more or less, all instruction, from that of the primary school to that of the university. In England national education has no existence. The Parish Schools (q. v.) of Scotland at one time made a near approach to being national, but the altered religious circumstances of the country have made them cease to be so. The imperfect means adopted to supply the deficiency in both parts of the kingdom, are described under the head of **PRIVY COUNCIL, COMMITTEE OF, ON EDUCATION**. See also **SCHOOLS, PUBLIC AND GRAMMAR; INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS; REFORMATORY SCHOOLS, &c.** In Ireland the foundation of a really national system was laid in 1833 in the "National Schools" (supplemented since by the Queen's Colleges and University), the principle of which is briefly stated under **IRELAND**. These schools have exhibited a steady and even surprising progress, when we consider the determined opposition they have met with from powerful ecclesiastical parties, both Catholic and Protestant. In several of the British colonies the local legislatures have boldly dealt with the question on the national principle, in opposition to the denominational. See **VICTORIA**. As this is likely to be one of the first important subjects to come before the reformed parliament, it may be opportune to give our readers a sketch of what some neighboring nations have done in regard to it. Before entering upon the description which we propose to give of the principal systems of national education, it will be proper to give some account of the obstacles which have hitherto prevented the establishment of a national system among ourselves, and to indicate some of the matters as to which we have to look for instruction from foreign experience.

And, first, in Great Britain the establishment of a national system of education, and of all interference with education on the part of the state, has until lately been opposed upon principle by a numerous and respectable body of politicians. They for the most part consisted of Dissenters of the middle class, who, beginning with Voluntarism in ecclesiastical matters, had passed on—at least the leaders had—to the doctrine of *laissez faire* in politics. The others were chiefly speculative persons, deeply imbued with the same doctrine, who, profoundly disbelieving in the wisdom of statesmen, and the capacity of officials, and apparently in the possibility of foresight in large affairs, held that the state should undertake as little as possible, and leave things to what they called their natural course. The arguments used by these two classes were not always alike. Individuals of the former class were apt to go back to the religious ground from which they started, maintaining that education ought to be religious, that the state ought not to teach religion, that

therefore education was out of the province of the state. But what the spokesmen of both classes most insisted on was this, that education should be left to the law of supply and demand, or rather, to the voluntary action of individuals, single or combined. It was in that way, they declared, that the education of the people could be most beneficially carried on; for so carried on, it would always be, both in kind and in extent, what, on the whole, the circumstances of the people required. In the hands of government, they said, an educational system must be, more or less, an instrument of state. And at the best, the extent and the quality of the instruction provided must depend upon the will of persons who might be very ignorant of the wants of the people. They used declamation about the bad way in which governments did everything they attempted; about the danger of creating a host of new officials; and about the inappropriateness of interfering with natural laws and of discouraging voluntary agency. Then they enlarged upon the great progress which education had made in England since the beginning of this century, independently, as they said, of the state—maintaining not only that it had been as great as the circumstances of the country permitted, but that it was almost as much as the state had accomplished in any country; and that it proved that in England, supply and demand, or the voluntary principle, would soon provide for the education of the whole people. The greater part of the increase in the supply of education, so far as it was not due to the action of the state, had come from the benevolent exertions of individuals. But their chief reliance was upon the agency of individuals or societies inspired by benevolence or religious zeal. They held that the same objections did not apply to voluntary organisations which lay against the state; they declared that it was the great glory of England to accomplish by such means things which elsewhere were attempted only by the state. Combined voluntary action, they said, was consonant with the national habits and institutions; it was a part of the system which had made the English a free, self-reliant, and enterprising race; it should be fostered, not discouraged; and it was worth our while to pay a price if necessary, rather than let it be superseded by the action of the state.

It was answered, first, that the commercial principle of supply and demand, unless supplemented by the benevolence of individuals, could not be expected to educate the people except by very slow degrees; that education must create the demand for education; that children of the lower classes in large towns, unless assistance or stimulation came to them from without, had at present no more chance of receiving instruction than if they were living in Africa. And the nation would lose incalculably by delay in educating the masses; for nothing would so greatly increase its power and prosperity, so materially improve the condition of the humbler classes, as the education of the whole people. The importance of voluntary agencies was admitted; but why was the state to be precluded from at least co-operating with them? The state, it was said, had a greater interest in educating the people than any of her citizens could have; and, moreover—this was the real question—could undertake it more successfully. Voluntary agency, it was maintained, was too slow, too uncertain, too spasmodic in operation, to be permanently and solely relied upon in a matter of such great national concern. The friends of state action confidently appealed to the experience of foreign countries as shewing the superior efficiency of state education, and pointed to the effects which government stimulation on a limited scale, had had at home. It is now several years since this controversy was at its height. The Voluntaries have since that been acquiescing in the interference of the state with education; and recently, several of their foremost men have frankly admitted that they had been mistaken, and that the state, by what it has done for education, has made good its claim to the regulation of it. The course of political events has recently added greatly to the importance of popular education; and at present it may be said that there is practically no opposition upon principle to the control of education by the state.

There have always, however, been obstacles to the establishment of a national system more formidable than the opposition of the Voluntaries, and these appear to remain unabated.

The most important of them are those which are concerned with the place, if any, to be assigned to religion in the school instruction. Upon this matter, there is a conflict of opinions which seems almost irreconcilable. A party, which is growing

in numbers, and which is respectable from its activity and intelligence, holds that the state should give nothing but secular instruction; that religion is beyond its province, and should not be taught within its schools; that, indeed, with a population divided into numerous sects, a practicable scheme of state education, embracing religion cannot be devised. To this party, a portion of the English Voluntaries now seems disposed to ally itself. There are others who believe it possible to teach an undenominational Christianity in schools; who desire that the state schoolmaster should confine himself to this; and that dogmatic teaching should be left to the religious bodies. A third party hold that dogmatic teaching should be given in state schools; that religious teaching, to have any value, must be dogmatic; but that arrangements might be made for the religious instruction of children by persons of their own persuasions; and, at anyrate, that children should be exempted from the religious instruction given in a school, if their parents should so desire. The most numerous body of all are satisfied with the system of aiding denominational schools, which now exists; because they approve of schools being, as for the most part they now are, under clerical supervision, and fear that by any change the influence of the clergy upon education would be weakened. Among the managers of Church of England schools, fault is scarcely found with more than one point in the present system; there is an incessant agitation against the "Conscience Clause," which the state has placed among the conditions of its aid, by which is stipulated that religious instruction shall not be given contrary to the wish of the parent. Between the Denominationalist and the Secularist there is a difference which scarcely admits of compromise; and until they agree, a national system is hardly possible. The former would most probably oppose any scheme for supplementing the Denominational system—for the purpose of educating the classes which this system does not educate—unless it were to include religious teaching.

The question of religious instruction has been found a troublesome one in nearly every country where the state regulates education, and there is nothing more instructive, in foreign experience, than the ways in which, in different systems, this difficulty has been disposed of. Next to this, the most important thing to be observed is, the parts which, in different systems, are assigned to the state and to the locality respectively; for it is unquestionable that there are some dangers attaching to state education, when the influence of the state is predominant, and that the function of the state in education must be carefully defined. By the mere selection of school-books, the state could powerfully influence the rising generation; and in Austria, and, it is said, in France also, the school has been made use of as an instrument of state policy. With a popular government, however, there is no much risk of its being used for sinister purposes; and in this country, we are in more danger of having recourse too little to the powers of the state than of trusting it too much. The possibility of making education compulsory, is another matter upon which foreign systems of education throw much light: we are perhaps more interested in noting how far indirect methods can be resorted to for compelling attendance at the schools. Upon the limits of the instruction which should be attempted in schools for the poorer classes—a subject which has been much discussed in connection with the Revised Code of 1861—and upon the results of government regulation of the middle and upper schools also, there is much to be learned from the foreign educational systems. We begin with

#### *State-education in Holland.*

There are several countries in which—if school statistics could be taken as a test—popular instruction is more widely diffused than it is in Holland; but in no European country is it so uncommon to meet a man who cannot easily read and write. The primary schools of Holland have a high reputation for the solidity of the instruction they impart, and have, by competent observers, been declared to be the best in Europe. A small and wealthy state—rich, too, in the public spirit of its citizens—with a population singularly docile and orderly, the task of educating the people has been for Holland exceptionally free from difficulty. It had the start of most other European nations in the work of popular education. So far back as 1811, its primary schools had been celebrated in a Report by the famous Cuvier. It has had an educational law since 1806; and of this law, though it underwent modification in

1857, it is necessary to give some account. Its author was M. Van Den Ende, who, from 1806 till 1833, had the superintendence of popular education in the country.

On the face of it, this law seemed far from making a complete provision for the education of the people; it left much—in any other country, it would have been a great deal too much—to the public spirit of local authorities. It did not make education compulsory; it did not even enforce the establishment of public schools; but it provided for two things being done thoroughly—the inspection of the schools and the examination of the teachers—and to this seems to have been chiefly due its eminent success. Each province of Holland was formed into a certain number of school-districts, and over each school-district was placed an inspector. The inspector was made supreme over primary instruction in his district. He was a member of every school-committee, and school-committees could be named only with his concurrence; no teacher, public or private, could exercise his calling without his permission; and he inspected every school in his district twice a year. The united inspectors of the province formed the provincial commission for primary education. This commission met three times a year, and received from each of its members a report upon his district; once a year, it sent a deputy to the Hague, to form, with the deputies from other provinces, a commission to discuss and regulate school-matters, under the direction of the Minister for the Home Department and his Inspector-general. The inspectors in the various provinces were appointed by the Home Office, on the presentation of the provincial commission. It has been said that in Holland public spirit is very strong. State-employments are thus deemed very honorable; and the inspectors gave their services gratuitously—receiving only an allowance for expenses. It was one of the duties of the provincial commission to examine teachers for certificates. First, the teacher had to get a *general admission*—a certificate of competency, admitting him into the teaching profession; he had to get a *special admission*, also, before he could exercise his profession. There were four grades of certificates—the first or second grade had to be obtained by a school-master, public or private, in the towns; the third grade qualified for a village-school; the fourth grade was for under-masters and assistants. To the highest grade were admitted those candidates only who gave signs of a *distinguished culture*. For public masterships, when they fell vacant, a competitive examination was held; the successful candidate received his *special admission*—his appointment to exercise his profession in the school. For special admission as a private teacher, there was no second examination; it was in the power of the municipality, with the concurrence of the inspector, to grant it upon application. Although there were no obligatory provisions in the law, the provincial and communal administrations were charged by the government to provide the means of instruction in their localities, to insure a comfortable subsistence for teachers, and to obtain a regular attendance of the children in the schools; and they did all this to the best of their ability. Free schools for the poor were provided in the towns; in the villages, schools to which the poor were admitted gratuitously. Every effort was used, both by the lay authorities and the clergy, to draw poor children into the schools; and the schoolmasters were provided with incomes much superior to what is usually paid to schoolmasters in any other European country. To this M. Cuvier attributed much of the success of the Dutch school. Some of the best scholars were kept in the school to assist in the teaching; they became under-masters, and eventually masters; and thus, even before the institution of normal schools, an efficient body of teachers was provided. In the normal schools which were afterwards established, school-methods and the practice of teaching formed a more prominent part of the instruction than in those of other countries. It soon appeared, that the free schools for the poor in towns were giving better instruction than could be obtained by the lower middling classes; and intermediate schools had to be established in the towns (*turascben-schoolen*), in which, for a small fee, an excellent education was provided. Above the intermediate school was the French school, in which, besides a sound commercial education, modern languages were taught; above that was the Latin school, giving a classical education, and preparing for the universities. The classical schools and the universities of Holland do not receive from foreign observers the commendation so freely bestowed upon the other parts of the educational system of the country.

Under this law, the public schools were non-denominational; no dogmatic in-

struction was to be given by the teacher or in the school; but the instruction was to be such as to "train its recipients for the exercise of all social and Christian virtue. The religious education of the children, however, was not overlooked. The government exhorted the clergy of the different communions to take upon them the religious instruction of children of their own persuasions; and this the clergy willingly did—giving up a portion of every Sunday to this duty. The schoolmaster instructed the children in the truths common to all religions, and on Saturdays, when the Jews were absent, in the New Testament and the Life of Christ. M. Cuvier, in 1811, stated that he found the education religious, though not dogmatic; and in 1836, high satisfaction with it was expressed by M. Cousin, an earnest advocate of religious education. It was thought that the Dutch schools had proved the possibility of teaching in schools an unsectarian Christianity. But it was chiefly upon this point that the controversy arose which led to the enactment of 1857; and as regards it, it cannot be said that the controversy is yet ended.

There were other matters which excited a demand for the alterations then made in the law. The constitution of 1848 had granted the liberty of instruction, and was therefore in conflict with the law of 1806. The school attendance had been failing off. Some of the municipalities had been evading their duty to the schoolmasters and the schools. It was thought desirable that the duties of the commune in regard to education should be carefully defined by law. The changes made, however, were not of much practical importance.

The law of 1857 granted "liberty of instruction;" still requiring from the private teacher the certificate of competency, it rid him of the veto of the municipality and the inspector. It expressly prescribes that primary schools, in each commune, shall be at the commune's charge; they are to be in sufficient number; and the states' deputies and the supreme government are to judge whether, in any commune, they are in sufficient number or not. If the charge of its schools is too heavy for a commune, it receives a grant in aid, of which the state and the province each contributes half; but there is no fixed point at which the commune can demand this aid. The law fixes the minimum salary for a schoolmaster at 400 florins (about £34); for an under-master at 200 florins. (The schoolmaster's salary, however, is usually much higher; in towns, not unfrequently four times as much.) It provides that when the number of scholars exceeds 70, the master is to have the aid of a pupil-teacher; when it exceeds 100, of an under-master; when it exceeds 150, of an under-master and pupil-teacher; for every 50 scholars above this last number, he is allowed another pupil teacher; for every 100 scholars, another under-master. School-fees are to be exacted only of those who can afford to pay them; and the municipalities are enjoined to "provide as far as possible for the attendance at school of all children whose parents are in the receipt of public relief." The law defines the subjects of primary instruction as follows: Reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of geometry, of Dutch grammar, of geography, of history, of the natural sciences, and singing. There is still a competitive examination for the office of public schoolmaster; a list of those who have acquitted themselves best is made up by the inspector and a committee of the communal council, and from this list the selection is made by the whole body of the council. For the provincial commission, consisting of the inspectors of the province, there has been substituted a salaried provincial inspector; and the provincial inspectors are assembled once a year to deliberate upon the state of primary instruction. The Minister of the Home Department, assisted by a referendary, is the supreme authority in matters connected with education.

Upon the subject of religious instruction, the law was left unaltered. The enactment of 1857 provides as follows: "Primary instruction, while it imparts the information necessary, is to tend to develop the reason of the young, and to train them to the exercise of all Christian and social virtues. The teacher shall abstain from teaching, doing, or permitting anything contrary to the respect due to the convictions of Dissenters. Religious instruction is left to the different religious communions. The schoolroom may be put at their disposal for that purpose, for the benefit of children attending school, out of school-hours." This was the conclusion arrived at, after much excited discussion.

In 1848, all religions were, in Holland, placed by the law on a perfect equality; and immediately thereafter, an attack was begun by the Roman Catholics on the reli-

gious instruction of the schools. Professedly neutral, they maintained that it was really Protestant, and probably they were right. The schoolmasters, on the demand of the Roman Catholics, were enjoined to comply more strictly with the law; and thereupon there began among the orthodox Protestant bodies a violent agitation against the law—a movement for connecting every public school with some religious communion. The Roman Catholics, believing that in Holland neutral schools must be Protestant, desired that the instruction should be purely secular; and a considerable party among the Protestants contended for the same object. The only party in favor of the existing law were the Rationalists or New-school Protestants, who attach more importance to the moral and civilizing side of Christianity than to its dogmatic aspects. Between the Denominationalists on one hand and the Secularists on the other, the victory fell to this last party. Of course, the decision was a compromise; and neither the High Protestant party nor the Roman Catholics regard it with satisfaction. The consequence has been that, advantage being taken of the newly-conceded freedom of instruction, there has been a great increase in the number of private elementary schools conducted on the denominational basis. The non-denominational school in Holland cannot be considered entirely successful, since the opposition to it seems to be lending to primary education being to a considerable extent taken out of the control of the state.

#### *State-education in Switzerland.*

In no part of Europe has the education of the people been more successfully prosecuted than in Switzerland. In all the cantons, French and German, it has been carefully attended to by the governing bodies; and for small communities, provided their rulers have intelligence and public spirit, it is comparatively a simple and easy task. To those who are interested in school-methods and school-management, nothing can be more instructive than the education of the German cantons. Their primary schools are unsurpassed; those of the canton Aargau have the reputation of being the best in Europe. The experience of the French cantons throws light upon more than one of the questions which occur in the construction of a national system. It is with the latter class of questions that we are concerned; and to the French cantons—Geneva, Vaud, Freiburg, Neufchatel, and the Valais—the following statement is confined.

In these five cantons, the school-system was, until recently, the same in its main outlines; it was a system designed to put public education in harmony with the democratic constitutions established after the war of the Sonderrheind. In Vaud, it was founded in 1846; in Geneva and Freiberg, in 1848; in the Valais, in 1849; and in Neufchatel, in 1850. In Freiberg, it underwent modification in 1856. Its main features were as follows: The communes were required to provide and maintain public schools, the state assisting them when the charge became too heavy. In general, every place with more than 20 children of school-age was required to have its school; every place with more than 50 or 60, a second school; and so on. Infant-schools were recommended and aided by the state, but their establishment was not made obligatory. The council of state—the supreme executive—of the canton appointed a Board of Public Instruction to exercise the government of education; but in important matters, an appeal lay from this body to the council; and by the council only could a master be dismissed. The municipality appointed a communal school-committee, which had the local superintendence of the schools. Ministers of religion were eligible for this body, but were not members of it by virtue of office. It was the duty of the school-committee to visit the schools of its commune not less than once a fortnight, besides holding a public general examination of them once a year. The teacher required to get a certificate of capacity; the examinations for the certificate being under the management of the Board of Public Instruction. In Vaud, however, five years' service in a public school exempted a teacher from the obligation of a certificate; and in other cantons, it does not seem to have been rigidly insisted on. For vacant masterships, there was a competitive examination, to which persons qualified by certificate or service only were properly admitted; in Vaud, however, failing qualified persons, other candidates might be admitted to examination, and provisionally appointed. In Geneva, Freiburg and the Valais, there were school inspectors who periodically reported to the Board of Public Instruction; Vaud and Neufchatel had no inspectors; the duty of inspection in these

cantons devolved upon the school-committee. The subjects taught were religion, reading, writing, grammar, arithmetic and book-keeping, geography, Swiss history, and singing. The instruction given had two or more degrees (in Geneva, six degrees), according as these subjects were taught with more or less extension; instruction in both degrees being usually given in the same school, and by the same master. Education was to be based upon the "principles of Christianity and democracy." Hours were to be set apart for religious instruction; from the ordinary school-lessons dogma was to be strictly excluded; and it was regarded as the province of the minister of religion, not of the schoolmaster, to give religious instruction, though the latter was not prevented from giving it in the room of, and under the responsibility of a minister. In all the cantons, except Geneva, education was made compulsory; attendance at school was required from the seventh to the fifteenth, or from the eighth to the sixteenth year. If children were privately educated, the state must be satisfied that their education was sufficient; such children could be called up for examination with the scholars of the public schools, and if found inferior, might be transferred to a public school. A certificate of emancipation was granted when the obligatory course had been fulfilled. The law contemplated that the instruction should be gratuitous, and in Geneva and the Valais it was gratuitous.

In Freiburg, the school-system was framed in no small degree for the purpose of strengthening the democratic party against the clerical party. It provided that no religious society should be allowed to teach; that persons educated by the Jesuits should be incapable of holding any office in church or state; it imposed a political oath upon the schoolmaster; it prohibited children from being sent to a private school, except with the sanction of the inspector and the school-committee; and if sent, required that they should come up for examination every half-year. At the same time, it established an excellent programme of primary instruction. At the elections of 1856, the clerical party regained the ascendancy in Freiburg; and in January 1858, the council of state made a considerable alteration in the school-law. It reduced the programme of primary instruction; it made the clergyman a necessary member of the local school-committee, freed the teacher from the necessity of taking an oath, and relaxed the obligation of attendance at the public schools, giving parents liberty to educate their children at home or at private schools. In other respects, the system, as above described, has been maintained in Freiburg. There has been no change in the other cantons.

The law as regards religious instruction seems to work with tolerable smoothness. In Vaud, it appears that the laxity which prevails as to the requirement of a certificate sometimes leads to the admission of unqualified persons as teachers; and in Vaud and Neufchâtel, complaint is made of the incapacity of the school-committee to make up for the want of professional inspection.

In the four cantons in which education is by law compulsory, the school-attendance is found to be no better than in Geneva, where it is not compulsory. In these cantons, the law provides that parents not sending their children to school are to be warned; if the warning be neglected, that they are to be summoned before the tribunals, which can punish them by fine or imprisonment. But it appears that, in point of fact, the tribunals are never resorted to; and that the authorities are careful not to inflict upon more than the people are easily able and willing to comply with. In the Valais, the school-year need not last for more than five months. In Freiburg, the vacation may last for three months; and the inspector may exempt from attendance at school children who are sufficiently advanced, and children whose labor their parents cannot do without. In Vaud, the local school-committee may grant to children above twelve years of age, whose labor is necessary to their parents, dispensations which in a great measure exempt them from attendance at school; the master may grant the scholar leave of absence for two days in the week; the president of the school-committee may grant him leave for a week at a time; the school-committee itself for a month at a time. It appears that in Vaud, the attendance at the schools had been steadily falling off from 1846, the date of the law, up to 1858; and the attendance of the children whose names were on the books was then reported to be by no means regular. New branches of industry which gave employment to children had been introduced into the canton; and the Council of Public Instruction seems to have been compelled to sacrifice the law to the interests of families.

The experiment of compulsory education cannot be said to have succeeded, because it has not really been made, in French Switzerland.

*State-education in France.*

At the head of the education of France is the Minister of Public Instruction ; he is advised and assisted by the Imperial Council of Public Instruction, a body the members of which are appointed by the crown for the period of a year. The minister, if he thinks fit, brings before the council for discussion projected laws and decrees on public education ; he is bound to consult it respecting the programmes of study, methods, and books to be adopted in all classes of public schools. The minister has succeeded to the functions in respect of education which, under the first Empire, were conferred upon the University of France ; he is head of the university, the officials of which still perform a considerable part in the management of education, but do so under his control. As respects the higher and the professional education, the university is both a teaching and an examining body, granting degrees under conditions prescribed by the minister and council. The administration of the secondary instruction is committed to it, and it shares in the supervision of the primary instruction. It is composed of 18 Academies, each of which comprehends several departments. These academies are so many local centres of the Department of Public Instruction. At the head of each is a rector ; the chief officials under him are called Academy inspectors. The Minister of Public Instruction is also rector of the Academy of Paris.

The Academy officials, under the control of the minister, have the superintendence of secondary instruction in the departments within the Academy's jurisdiction ; there is an inspector for each department. The instruction is minutely regulated, as to the quantity to be provided, as to the subjects to be comprehended in it, and as to its cost ; it is the chief duty of the Academy inspectors to see that the requirements with respect to it are complied with. The inspection is said to be highly efficient. The lycéum is the principal seminary of secondary instruction ; in general, the chief town of every French department has its lycéum. There is, besides, the communal college. Every town of considerable population has its communal college. The lycéum is founded and maintained by the state, with aid from the department and the communes ; the communal college is founded and maintained by the commune, with occasional aid from the state. The instruction given in the communal college and in the lycéum is substantially the same in character ; in the lycéum it is the more extensive. To the lycéum there is usually attached a preparatory school for the younger boys. In both lycéums and communal colleges, there are boarders and day-scholars. French, Latin, Greek, and mathematics are the principal subjects of instruction ; arithmetic, history, geography, modern languages, and the natural sciences are also taught. The course at the lycéum lasts for six years, and qualifies for the degree of Bachelor of Letters. Religious instruction is given—to the Roman Catholic boys, by chaplains attached to the school ; to the Protestants, by a Protestant minister, specially appointed to this duty ; and the New Testament in Greek or Latin is read daily by every class. In the lycéums, the average charge for day scholars is from 110 francs (£4 7s. 4d.) to 180 francs (£7 8s. 4d.) a year ; the charge for boarders from 800 francs (£32) to 900 francs (£36), according to their age and advancement. In Paris, the charges are higher—from £88 to £60 a year for boarders, and from £6 to £12 a year for day scholars ; on the other hand there are lycéums where the highest charge for boarders is £22 a year. There are public scholarships (bourses) founded by the state to be obtained by competition, the holders of which are relieved from all cost. The education given is in no respect much inferior—and in some respects it is superior—to that which is to be had at an enormous cost at the best English public schools ; it is far superior to that which, at a far higher cost is ordinarily given to children of the middle classes in England. A private secondary school cannot be opened without notice to the public authorities : they must be satisfied that the premises are suitable ; and the director must have a certificate of probation—shewing that he has served five years in a secondary school—and a certificate of competency obtained at the public examination for secondary teachers. The Academy inspector inspects private secondary schools, but only to see that the pupils are properly lodged and fed, and that the teaching contains nothing contrary to morality and the laws. The minister may, however, dispense

with the certificate of probation, and holy orders are accepted in lieu of the certificate of competency.

A law, dated 21st June 1865, founded a new course of study in secondary schools—a special secondary instruction. The object of the special secondary instruction is declared to be to "found the sub-officers of industry;" instruction in living language is substituted for the classical instruction of the secondary schools; the elements of science and its applications receive great attention—particular regard being had to the teaching of agriculture and the sciences which bear upon it. The teaching, moreover, is intended to impart what may be called a sound French education. A normal school has been founded at Cluny for the preparation of masters for this special secondary instruction.

For primary instruction in France, an excellent basis was laid by M. Guizot's law of 1833, of which, indeed, the more important provisions have been retained. The body of legislation actually in force consists of the law of March 15, 1850, the organic decree of March 9, 1852, the law of June 14, 1854, and the law passed during the year 1867. The law requires that every commune shall maintain an elementary school, either by itself, or in combination with other communes; in founding and maintaining its schools, it is to be aided, if necessary, by the department and by the state. It must have taxed itself specially for the schools three centimes per franc of rental before it can claim aid; the department must have taxed itself specially two centimes for the communal schools before the state is resorted to. Up to the present year, a certain number of poor children—the number determined for each school by the prefect of the department—were admitted to the school gratuitously; for others, a fee was charged, which was collected every month by the tax-gatherer. The state contributed whatever was necessary in addition to the communal and departmental taxation and the school-fees. The law of the present year, however, provides that all children are to be admitted gratuitously whose parents would have difficulty in paying the school-fee: and that a commune whose taxation amounts to four centimes additional may dispense with the school-fee altogether, the deficiency, if any, so arising being made up by the state. In the large towns, the schools have long been gratuitous—the communes often taxing themselves, for school-purposes, beyond the amount required by law. Up to the year 1867, the law did not oblige the communes to maintain separate schools for girls, though a large proportion of them contributed towards the maintenance of such schools. The law of 1867 provides for the establishment of girls' schools; the cost of them—the communal and the departmental taxation being in most places previously exhausted—will fall in a great measure upon the state.

Religious instruction is given in every school. In France, the Roman Catholic, the Protestant, and the Jewish forms of worship are subsidised by the state; and it is provided that, in communes where more than one of these is publicly professed, each form is to have its separate school. The departmental council, however, has power to authorise the union, in a common school, of children belonging to different communions. For such cases, it is provided that ministers of each communion shall have free and equal access to the school, at separate times, to attend to the religious instruction of members of their own flock. To a school appropriated to one denomination, no child belonging to another is admitted, except at the express demand of his parent or guardian, signified in writing to the teacher. Denominational schools are now the rule, common schools the exception. Previously to 1850, under M. Guizot's law, common schools were the rule, but it was found that in them the religious instruction presented grave practical difficulties. All the religious bodies appear to be satisfied with the present system. The schools, though denominational, are communal schools; the denominations have not the management of them; and they are all subject to the same inspection.

The mayor and the minister of religion in each commune have the supervision and moral direction of the primary school; in practice, they are strictly confined to matters connected with its morality. Cantonal delegates are appointed by the departmental council (the canton is a division larger than the commune), who inspect the primary schools of their canton; but they have no real authority over the schools; they are only allowed to make representations as to the state of the schools to the departmental council, or to the inspector. The departmental council has the chief part in the regulation of the primary schools; moreover, no private primary

school can be opened without its permission; and if it refuse permission, there is no appeal. It is the prefect, however, who has the power of nominating, suspending, and dismissing public primary teachers. His authority is usually exercised upon the report of the Academy inspector—the university official whose important functions, in respect of secondary instruction, have already been described. The academies have the charge of the normal schools of primary instruction, and the supervision of the primary schools as regards the methods of teaching and course of study. Under them are the primary inspectors, who report to the Academy inspectors; above the latter, as regards primary instruction, there are four inspector-generals, attached to the office of education at Paris. It is the primary inspector who really superintends the instruction of the schools; his labors are unceasing, his inspection is a reality, for he is not required to give notice of his visits. The private primary schools are subject to his inspection, but only as regards the provision made for the bodily health and comfort of the pupils and the maintenance of morality.

The subjects which must be taught in every primary school, in addition to moral and religious teaching, are reading, writing, arithmetic, the elements of French grammar, and the French system of weights and measures; there are other subjects which are facultative—which, in whole or in part, may be taught, that is, if the council of the commune should so desire, and the departmental council give its consent. These facultative matters are the applications of arithmetic; the elements of history and of Geography, the elements of physics and of natural history; elementary instruction in agriculture, the arts, and hygiene; surveying, levelling, drawing, singing, and gymnastics. For girls, there are superior primary schools which teach the facultative matters only, and in girls' schools, instruction is usually given in needle-work for about three hours a day.

For the preparation of male teachers the law requires every department to maintain a normal school; in some cases, however, two departments are allowed to maintain one jointly: there are now 70 of these schools. There are separate normal schools for female teachers; of these, the number was recently 34; now that the law is about to add largely to the number of girls' schools, it will probably be increased. The members of the religious orders devoted to teaching, which perform a great part in primary education, are trained for their duties in the establishments of their respective orders. (Of these orders, the most important is that of the Brethren of the Christian Schools). The instruction of the normal schools is meagre; it scarcely exceeds the subjects of primary instruction; a considerable proportion of the students, indeed, acquire only an imperfect knowledge of the facultative subjects. School-method is what in the normal schools is deemed most important to teach. The examination for primary schoolmasters—which is conducted by a commission appointed by the departmental council—is limited to the subjects taught in the schools. There are two classes of certificates, according as the teacher passes in the obligatory subjects only, or in the whole or part of the facultative subjects also. Every male teacher, public or private, is required to have the certificate of capacity granted after an examination; also, excepting in the case of religious persons, a certificate of morality. The law recognises a certificate of stage to be granted to assistants who have served as such for three years, as a substitute for the certificate of capacity; but this provision has been unpopular, and the qualification of stage is practically unknown. Female lay teachers require the certificate of capacity; female teachers of the religious orders are exempt from it. No person can be appointed a regular communal teacher unless he be twenty-four years old, and has served for three years since his twenty-first year as an assistant, or as a *supplying* teacher. The supplying teacher gets a lower salary, and may be employed in the poorer communes. The salaries are low even in the towns: in many of the country communes, the legal minima are not exceeded: these are—for an ordinary communal teacher, £24 a year; for a female teacher, or a supplying teacher, £20 a year. The commune pays £8 a year, besides the school-fees; whatever is required to make up the legal minimum, the government supplies; and, since 1862, the government has, upon certain conditions, made slight allowances in addition to the minimum.

It is in secondary instruction that the education of France has a decided superiority over that of England. The primary instruction is scarcely equal to that given

**in English schools of the same grade.** Mr Matthew Arnold has reported that in 1859, he found in French primary schools the writing fair, but scarcely so good as in English schools; the reading better, the arithmetic much better than in English schools. Of history and geography, the pupils were far more ignorant than English school children of the same age. The ministry of M. Duruy, however, has been an era of improvement; much more attention is given to the facultative matters now; especial attention to agriculture and the subjects connected with the daily life of the peasant. Mr Arnold came to the conclusion, that even in the great towns there were no masses of children left altogether uneducated, that almost all passed at some time through the schools. Adult classes, taught in the evenings, have greatly increased in numbers of late years, and are now aided by the state.

In 1884—just after the passing of M. Guizot's law—the number of primary schools, public and private, was 10,816; in 1857, it was 65,100; in 1872, it was 70,180, of which 38,860 were boys' or mixed schools, 17,460 girls' schools, and 11,000 were free schools. In the primary schools alone there were, in 1872, 4,722,000 scholars—3,500,000 more than the number of scholars in 1829. In 1872, the year of the census, a careful inquiry was made into the condition of the French people with regard to primary education. Of the total population above the years of childhood, it was found that 80·77 per cent. could neither read nor write, 10·94 could only read, and but 8·29 could do both. There was a most extraordinary difference between one department and another in this respect, the percentage of utterly illiterate persons ranging from 6·9 per cent. in Doubs, to 61·8 in Haute-Vienne; the most favorable figures indicating universally the north-eastern departments. In 1872 the state and the communes expended 85,000,000 of francs on primary education alone. The item of public instruction stood at 49,211,000 in the budget of 1877. For the means of higher education in France, see **UNIVERSITY OF FRANCE**.

#### *State-education in Prussia.*

In all the Protestant states of Germany, the school-system in its main features is the same. The Prussian system—more celebrated, more extensive, more practical and thorough than the system of the minor states—always powerfully influencing these, and now likely to influence them more than ever, is that which must be selected for description. About this system, M. Cousin, by a strange confusion between it and a project of law—a mere scheme drawn up by the education minister, Von Altenstein, never even proposed for legislation—spread misconceptions throughout Europe, which have scarcely yet been dispelled. It has been greatly changed, greatly improved since Cousin wrote in 1881; but it does not yet in symmetry and completeness approach to what he described.

In Prussia, there is a Minister of Public Worship and Instruction; but the officials who under him carry on the government of education are the officials of the Department of the Interior. At the head of the government in each province is a president; over each of the departments into which the province is divided there is a prefect (*bezirk*); each of these officers is assisted by a council, of which one section, called *Schulcollegium*, forms a separate council for deliberating upon the local school-affairs. One member of the school-council, called provincial school-councillor, is associated with the president for administrative purposes: the prefect has attached to him two departmental school-councillors, one Protestant, one Catholic, to advise with him, and to administer the school-affairs of their respective communions. There is practically a division made of educational affairs between the officials of the province and those of the department. The provincial school-councillor takes the charge of secondary education within the province; the departmental school-councillors the charge of the primary schools of the department.

Over each of the circles into which the department is divided is an officer, termed a *Landrat*, who reports to the prefect of the department. With the landrat, in the management of primary schools, is associated the *superintendent*, the church dignitary of the circle. The superintendent is *ex-officio* inspector of the primary schools within the district. The parish clergyman is *ex-officio* local inspector of primary schools within his parish. There is also for the school or schools of each parish a board of managers, the composition of which varies in different provinces. The clergyman is always a member of it: he is usually chairman. In country places, the whole powers of the board are often left in his hands.

In the "exterior" affairs of the school—passing school-accounts, visitation of school-premises, control of the school-estates, adjustment of the school-rate, &c.—the landrath is associated with the superintendent. Its "interior" affairs, all that concerns its teaching and its discipline, are, subject to the established regulations, under the superintendent's control; but, in practice, they are more under the influence of the departmental school-councillor. The superintendent, however, is required to visit the school, and to watch over the conduct of the local inspector, and he reports annually to the government of the department. The local inspector's province is the interior affairs of the school. He is expected to visit the schools diligently, and to be active in the supervision of them. The religious teaching of the children is almost entirely done by him, it being his duty to prepare them for confirmation, which comes at the end of the school-period. To qualify them for the duty of school-inspection, the candidates of theology are required to attend for six weeks as auditors at a normal school, and to have attended a course of *Pädagogik* at the university. Nevertheless, it appears that many clergymen are very ill fitted for this work, and their powers of interference are often exercised in ways annoying to the master, and detrimental to the school. The "exterior" affairs of the schools of a parish belong to the board of managers.

This board is usually composed of representatives (1) of the patrons, if any, of the school; (2) of the parochial clergy; (3) of the municipal body; (4) of the householders. It has a stated meeting once a quarter; it meets whenever it is summoned by the chairman. It manages the revenue and expenditure of the school, in respect of which it is responsible to the landrath; it is the trustee of the school-buildings and property. It is its duty to see that the regular school-hours are kept; that no unauthorised holidays are given; to it application must be made for dispensations for periods exceeding a week. Its members should be present at all examinations and other public solemnities of the school. In the large towns, there are school-delegacies appointed by the *Magistrat*, whose powers are more extensive, and are in practice the greater, because in the large towns the pastors pay little attention to the schools. The school-delegacies have control over the higher as well as the primary schools which their constituents maintain; two paid members—school-delegates—who must be members of the *Magistrat*, exercise the greater part of their authority. Under the delegacy, for every school there is a school-board, consisting of the clergymen and two lay members, whom the delegacy appoints. The delegacy itself is accountable to the magistrate, and both are subordinate to the provincial council.

Every commune is bound to find school-room and teachers for all the children of school-age belonging to it. The amount of the teacher's stipend is in every case fixed by the departmental government; there is no legal minimum; the salaries are usually very low. Some parishes possess endowments; but, in general, the cost of maintaining the schools is defrayed by means of (1) school-fees, (2) a local rate, (3) a grant from the national treasury. As children are only expected to pay what they can, and as the state grants aid only after the strictest proof of the incapacity of the commune, the weight of the burden falls upon the local rate. The maintenance of the schools ranks with the first charges upon the local purse. The teacher is appointed by the departmental councillor; in a few towns, however, a certain power of choice is allowed to the municipal authorities—they may select one from a number of candidates presented to them by the government.

School-attendance is by law compulsory for eight years; the school-age beginning at the completion of the fifth year. But in most parts of Prussia, children, though allowed, are not compelled to attend till the completion of their sixth year. The school-period closes with confirmation. A register of all children of school-age is made up—usually at the police office; every child is registered for a particular school; there, whatever his rank, he must attend, unless a dispensation be got for him from the landrath. When a dispensation is applied for, the parents must state the motives of the application, and the provisions to be made for the child's education. All persons officially connected with schools are expected to use their influence to secure regular attendance; but failing moral suasion, there are other means of enforcing it. The schoolmaster keeps a list of absences, excused and inexcused. When a child's attendance is irregular, the board of managers admonishes its parent. If admonition—which in general is repeatedly resorted to—has no effect, a statement is sent to the police-office; the parent is fined a small sum for each day of the child's absence.

since the last admonition ; and the fine can be levied by execution, enforced by imprisonment, or taken out in parish labor. It seems that very few children escape registration ; but the regularity of the attendance—in general it is very regular—varies considerably in different districts ; the execution of the law being strict or otherwise according to the temper of the people, their circumstances, and the vigilance of the school authorities. There are no statistics by which the success of the law can be exactly tested. In some of the larger towns, the demand for child-labor and the growth of pauperism are adding to the difficulty of enforcing it. Prussia has a factory-law requiring that every child employed in a factory shall attend school for three hours a day, and this law is strictly enforced.

Teachers of every class, public and private, have to pass two examinations. Certificates are of three degrees of merit—they may be marked "very well qualified," "well qualified," or "sufficiently qualified." The heads of examination are "religion, the German language, the art of school-keeping, geography of Prussia, arithmetic and geometry, knowledge of natural objects, writing, drawing, singing and the theory of music, organ." After the first examination, the candidate is eligible as an assistant or provisional master ; he must serve in this capacity for three years before taking the second ; he must pass the second within five years. The second examination is in the same subjects ; but now most weight is given to the art of school-keeping. Of the subjects taught in primary schools, the principal is religion ; the others are reading, writing, arithmetic, singing, and the elements of drawing. Incidentally, the teacher may communicate information about natural phenomena ; about geography, beginning with that of the locality and the history of Prussia. The teaching was much more ambitious before 1854 ; before 1854, also, the normal schools, now limited to a meagre programme, were universities on a small scale, aiming at the mental training of their students, rather than at fitting them to teach elementary schools. The change is often ascribed, both in Prussia and out of it, to political motives, having been made by a party unfriendly to popular education ; but eminent educationists defend and approve it. The schools, they say, are now attempting as much as can be thoroughly done in the time allotted for primary education, and are doing it thoroughly ; while the showy teaching of former times, with its endeavor to develop the faculties, and to communicate knowledge, neglected the indispensable elementary instruction, and, as regarded the greater number of the scholars, was in no respect successful. The normal school training, it is said, now fits the teacher for his duties and his position in life ; formerly, it rather unfitted him for them, while fitting him perhaps for something better. It is, however, admittedly a defect in the Prussian system that it offers to the humbler classes no opportunity of carrying their education beyond the point at which the elementary schools leave it. In some of the towns there are improvement institutes, where young persons are taught in the evenings or on Sundays ; but they attempt little, are badly organized, and are neglected by the school administrations. It should be stated that the town schools often teach somewhat more than is taught in country places—more geography, history, and natural knowledge—but this, though permitted, is not encouraged by the authorities. Grammar is entirely excluded from primary instruction. The only part of the teaching which is less than excellent is the writing : it has been stated that upwards of 50 per cent. of the recruits are unable to write—the art, never perfectly mastered, being lost, it must be supposed, through want of practice.

As regards religious instruction, the rule is, that the primary school is denominational—public schools are set apart, that is, for children of each of the religious bodies ; the clergyman who has the charge of the school is the clergyman of the body to which it is appropriated. Besides the "Evangelical Establishment," in which Lutherans and Calvinists are combined, there are the Roman Catholics and the Jews to be provided for ; of other sectaries, there are not 10,000 in all Prussia. The Lutherans and Calvinists are combined in the school as in the church. Dissenters are allowed to withdraw their children from the religious instruction, and have it given by their own pastor. Any commune may establish a mixed school, if it so desire, and if the authorities permit ; but, in practice, mixed schools are only to be found where it would be very inconvenient to establish a school for each body. In mixed schools, the teachers are chosen proportionately from each of the two great religious bodies ; if there be only one teacher, it is, in some districts at least, customary that he should be alternately a Protestant and a Catholic. The experi-

ment of mixed schools had a long trial in Prussia, and was found to be unsatisfactory, leading to attempts, or suspected attempts, at proselytism, and to parish squabbling. It has been abandoned, not so much from the wish of the government, as in deference to the feelings of the people, and to the demands of the Roman Catholic hierarchy. But the denominational system is more in accord with the part which the state assigns to religion in the school. The school, it is said, shou'd be the organ of the church for training children to church-membership; school and church are expected between them to form the child into a man contented with his position in life. Religious teaching must be given by the master for an hour every day. In the Protestant schools, the master teaches the Lutheran catechism to Lutheran children; the Heidelberg catechism to the Reformed children. Scripture history is also taught; and hymns, from a prescribed collection, have to be committed to memory. The master is not allowed to expound the catechism; his duty is to see that the children learn it, and understand the words in which it is expressed. It is the clergyman who explains its doctrines to the elder children in preparing them for confirmation.

Any one may open a private school of any class in Prussia who can obtain a licence for the purpose from the government; but in the city, it must be shewn that the district in which the school is to be placed is insufficiently supplied with schools; and every private teacher must have passed the two examinations. Private schools are subject at all times to the inspection of the school-councillor, and are bound strictly to follow the regulations established for private schools. The larger towns in Prussia are not yet adequately supplied with public primary schools; private primary schools are therefore common in such places: in Berlin, they educate nearly half the children who are in primary schools.

Of the secondary and higher education in Prussia, a brief and general notice must suffice. It has already been stated that the superintendence of the secondary schools is undertaken by the school-councillor of the province; it is independent of ecclesiastical control. The larger communes and the towns are required to maintain middle schools, giving instruction of a higher order than is given in the elementary schools, a sound German education, and preparing boys for the gymnasium. These must be provided to the satisfaction of the authorities, according to the wants of the population. They are maintained, like the primary schools, by school-fees, local taxation, and these failing, the state treasury. Some of the larger towns maintain also secondary schools of a higher class; these are of two kinds—the real-school, and the gymnasium or grammar-school. In such towns, as stated already, the local management rests with the school-decency. There is, besides, a considerable number of real-schools and gymnasia which are entirely in the hands of the government. None of the real-schools take boarders; very few of the gymnasia do so. The gymnasium is a classical school preparing for the universities. In the real-school, mathematics, scientific studies, and modern languages are substituted for the classics, and the instruction is designed to prepare the pupils, as far as possible, for the pursuits of life. The real-schools grant certificates to their pupils. The royal real-schools and the gymnasia (other than those maintained by the larger towns) are under the management of the provincial school-councillor. Some of the older of those gymnasia have endowments, but the money necessary for their support is contributed by the state. Appointments to the schools are made by the school-councillor; he appoints the teachers, or nominates the list out of which local authorities have to choose, in all the secondary schools. Teachers for all the schools have to pass two examinations. There are boards of examiners, appointed by the provincial government, which conduct the examinations; these boards also examine the students of the gymnasia, to test their fitness for the university. The university in Prussia is a teaching (or rather a lecturing), as well as an examining body, and grants degrees in four faculties—Theology, Jurisprudence, Medicine, and Philosophy. There are seven universities within the territory held by Prussia before the war of 1866; in two of these—Breslau and Bonn—there is a Roman Catholic as well as a Protestant institute of theology. The university affairs are administered by a commissioner appointed by the crown; all their regulations are prescribed, and all the appointments in them made by the state.

#### *State-education in the United States.*

In the United States, the education of the people is out of the sphere of the

central government; it ranks among the domestic affairs of the several states, and it is chiefly in the Northern States—those from which, before the late war, slavery was excluded—that systematic attempts have been made to promote it. The central government has, however, in more than one instance endeavored to assist education in the states, by providing for its endowments. In the states which contain waste lands, it puts aside, in every newly-enveyed township of six miles square, one square mile, for the support of schools within the township. The state becomes trustee of this land, or of the price obtained for it, which is usually called the "Township Fund," and pays over the yearly income to the township when it has been settled. The central government, about 1836, had accumulated in its treasury a considerable balance, the surplus of its income over its expenditure during several years: this it apportioned *pro rata* among the states, reserving the right to reclaim it. This right has not been, and is not likely to be exercised; and in most of the Northern States, the income of the "United States Deposit Fund" is applied to the support of education. Since 1864, by what is called the "Agricultural College Act," the central government has made a liberal offer of allotments of land to the states upon certain conditions, for the endowment of one or more institutions in every state, in which—whatever the other instruction may be—special attention shall be given to those branches of learning related to agriculture and the mechanic arts. Several states are preparing to avail themselves of this offer.

Every one of the Northern States has its common schools. Before the war, Kentucky, Missouri, and Louisiana had each some kind of school-system; at various points throughout the South, particular towns had established schools, always after the model set in the Northern States. The new state of Western Virginia has passed a school-law since the conclusion of the war. In the Northern States, besides the endowments above described—both of which are possessed by most of the states—every state possesses a school-fund arising from various sources—sale of lands, taxation, penalties, and forfeitures—which is usually vested either in the state legislature or in a Board of Education. In one or two of the states, the income of this fund is considerable, but in general it is small. It is usually, but not in all the states, applied solely to the support of public schools, or of the normal schools which help to provide them with teachers. Apart from the influence exercised by means of this fund, the state usually promotes public instruction only by its legislation, by which it requires or enables local bodies to make certain provision for the education of children within their jurisdiction. Everywhere, the law leaves much, and usually the practice leaves everything, to the local bodies; and these come short of, or exceed the legal requirements according to the local interest in education and ability to pay for it. It is through the interest of the municipalities in education that very ample provision is made in the towns; it is through the force of example, and in deference to educational experience, that a certain uniformity of system prevails. There is a close approach to uniformity both in the law and in the practice of the several states; and a description of the system of one state will be approximately true of that of other states. The Massachusetts system is fittest to be selected for description, as being the oldest, the most celebrated, that which on our side of the Atlantic is most identified with the common schools, and perhaps on the whole the most successful. Some of the principal variations from it will be noted.

In 1642—twenty years after the landing of the *Mayflower*—the Massachusetts colonists passed a law requiring every citizen, under a penalty of 20s., to teach his children and apprentices, or have them taught, to read perfectly the English language. Five years later they passed another law, requiring, under penalty, every township containing 50 householders to support a teacher to teach their children to read and write; requiring every township containing 100 householders to maintain a grammar-school capable of fitting youths for the university. The present law is different, if not less liberally conceived. The change was made by numerous steps, and was probably forced on by the circumstances of the community. The law, as it now stands in the revised statutes of the state, provides that in every township the inhabitants shall maintain for at least six months in the year a sufficient number of schools for all the children of the township. The teachers are to be of competent ability and good morals, and they are to teach orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, the history of the United States, and good behavior. Other subjects—algebra, vocal music, drawing, physiology, and hygiene—are to be taught or not at the discretion of the local committee. Every township

may, and every township containing 500 householders must, also maintain for ten months in the year a school which shall give instruction in general history, book-keeping, surveying, geometry, natural philosophy, chemistry, botany, the civil polity of Massachusetts and of the United States, and the Latin language. And in every township containing 4000 inhabitants, the teacher must be competent to instruct in the Greek and French languages, in astronomy, geology, rhetoric, logic, intellectual and moral sciences, and political economy. Moreover, any township may establish schools for children over 15 years of age, determining the instruction to be given, and appropriate money for their support. The compulsory part of the law is supported by penalties, but it is said that there would be difficulty in enforcing them; at anyrate, they are not enforced. It is also provided that every child between 8 and 14 must be sent to school for at least 12 weeks in a year: the penalty for breach of this provision is 20 dollars, but the idea of enforcing it seems never to have been entertained; its existence even is not generally known. The law does not permit school-fees, or, as they are called in America, rate-bills. There seems to be no fund arising from waste lands in Massachusetts; and the township raises the necessary funds by a tax upon property—the personal property of the inhabitants and the capitalised value of their real property situated within the township. The amount of the rate is by the law left wholly undetermined: it is determined by the householders at their annual meeting. The state endeavors to influence the townships to make a liberal provision by means of the school-fund, a share of which is given to every township which has made its returns to the Board of Education, and has spent not less than at the rate of a dollar and a half per head for all the children of the township. The school-fund contribution is very small—less than a quarter-dollar for every child; but it is said to have an excellent influence upon the rural townships. No doubt, the publication of the returns made to the Board of Education tends to spur on the backward districts.

The management and control of all the public schools of a township are placed in the hands of a school-committee, consisting of any number divisible by three; the members of this committee hold office for three years, and one-third of them are elected annually at the annual meeting of the township. The committee have the supervision of the schools; and it is among their duties to see that no book calculated to favor the tenets of any particular sect of Christians shall be used in the schools, and to require the daily reading of some portion of the Bible in the common English version. Any township, by its public meeting, or a city, by its city-council, may require the committee to appoint a paid superintendent of school: when this is not done, the members of the committee receive a small allowance for the time during which they are engaged upon the school-affairs. But, moreover, any township may, at a meeting called for the purpose, resolve to divide itself into districts for the support of its schools. If this be done, the township names for each district a "prudential committee," consisting either of one or of three persons, resident within the district, which is charg'd with providing and keeping in repair the school-house, at the expense of the district, and, if the township so determines, with the duty of selecting and contracting with the teachers. The district determines the amount to be raised by it for the building, or repair or furnishing of its school; this is collected by the town-hip collector, and handed over to the district-committee. The school-committee retains its functions of management, except so far as they have been made over to the districts; and hence, there is a double management of the schools, which is found to be attended with inconveniences. The division into districts, too, is said to have led to an unnecessary multiplication of schools in country places; people scheme to have the township so divided that there may be a school in their neighborhood—there are therefore more schools than are needed, and more than can be maintained in efficiency. The school-committee—in cities, the school-superintendent—examines the teacher before his appointment, and grants him a certificate which remains in force for a certain time. There are three classes of certificate—one valid for six months, another for twelve, a third for two years. The common schools of a township are open to all children resident therein between five and fifteen years of age: none are to be excluded on account of race, color, or religious opinions; and it has been held that a child unlawfully excluded may recover damages therefor in an action of tort.

In New York, in Pennsylvania, and in most of the Western States, large mun-

cipal powers are possessed by the county, and the county shares with the township the management of school-affairs. New York has a state superintendent, whose power over the schools is considerable. In that state, it is the school-commissioner of the "Assembly District" in which the township lies who divides the township into school-districts; and it is the district which determines the school-tax; the township is almost completely ignored. In New York, Ohio, and Illinois, it is by county officials that teachers are examined and certificated. In New York, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, "rate-bills"—that is, school-fees—are allowed, and are usually levied. Several states besides Massachusetts make school-attendance compulsory: in most of the states, there appears to be some provision against "truancy;" but it appears that attempts are not made to enforce the law except occasionally, in the case of homeless, wandering children, who are liable, in lieu of a fine, to be sent to reformatory schools. It has been calculated that in the city of New York (pop. 940,000) there are about 100,000 children who do not go to school—though in no city is there a better or ampler provision of common schools.

As might be expected, the school laws work badly in country districts. The householders are disposed to be satisfied with any kind of school, provided it be cheap, and within easy reach of them; and the multiplication of schools by the district system, makes it almost unavoidable that an insufficient sum should be spent upon each school. The teachers—a vast majority of whom are women—being wretchedly paid, are badly qualified; they are constantly changing; scarcely any intend to make teaching their occupation for life. Few of them have been trained for their work—the normal schools which exist being utterly inadequate to supply the demand for teachers; and the examination by a rural school-committee affords but a slender guarantee of competency. The teacher is usually "boarded round" among the farmers of the district, and is said to be treated by them with much observance; but his income—putting a money-value upon the board—has been estimated at an average of about \$50. a month, and that only during the time that the school is open. In 1864, in 84 townships of Massachusetts—more than one-fourth of all the townships in the state—the schools were kept open for less than the statutory period of six months. The teaching is said to be wonderfully good, considering the scanty pay given; but where the vacations last for more than six months, and the teacher is changed almost every term, thorough and systematic instruction is scarcely possible. It is in the towns that the working of the school-laws has been creditable and successful. Through the high public spirit of the municipal bodies, and the great importance attached to education, the support of the common schools is in general most liberally provided for.

In the towns, there is usually a superintendent of schools, by whom, under and in co-operation with the general and district school-committees, the schools are inspected, and the character of the instruction determined; by him the examination of the teachers also is conducted. Of the schools, there are four classes—primary, intermediate, grammar, and high-schools or academies. Children usually enter the primary school about 5 or 6; the grammar-school between 8 and 9; the high-school between 12 and 13 years of age. They are not promoted from one class of school to another without undergoing an examination; the intermediate schools, where they exist, are intended for those who are too old to be at the primary school, and too backward to enter the grammar-school. To be admitted to a grammar-school, a child must be able to read at first sight easy prose, to spell common words of not more than three syllables, and to have acquired a slight knowledge of arithmetic. For admission to the high school, the usual requirements are ability to read correctly and fluently, an acquaintance with the simple rules of arithmetic, and some knowledge of geography and grammar. From these tests may be inferred the average proficiency expected to be attained by children leaving the primary and the grammar school respectively. In the grammar-schools of Boston, the programme of studies consists of spelling, reading, writing, arithmetic with book-keeping, geography, English grammar, the history of the United States, natural philosophy, drawing, and vocal music: this is nearly the usual programme; but in New York and one or two other states a little more is attempted. Between the high-schools or academies in the various states, there are considerable differences. In the city of New York, for example, the Free Academy has pretensions to the rank of a university, and grants degrees in arts and science (Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Science, Master of Arts) to students who have completed with credit the curriculum of five years. But,

general, the high-schools are schools of secondary instruction, intended to prepare youths for the university—instruction being given in the classical languages, mathematics, the sciences, history, and the English language and English literature. The usual curriculum is one of four years; and the students are not required to study all the subjects taught in the school. At Boston, where boys are admissible to the Latin high-school at 10 years of age, the curriculum lasts for six years. There are high-schools for girls as well as for boys, the programme of instruction being the same in both. At Boston, the curriculum at the girls' high-school lasts for three years; and pupils at admission must be between 15 and 19 years of age. Boston possesses, besides its Latin high-school, and its girls' high-school, an English high-school, said to be admirably planned and conducted. The instruction in it closely resembles that given in the girls' schools of Germany, including French and German, and various sciences, with their application; being intended to enable boys to complete a sound English education, and to prepare themselves for commercial life. Great complaints are almost everywhere made—Boston seems to be exceptional in this respect—of the irregularity of the attendance at the primary schools. It is estimated that in most states not much more than half of the children pass from these to the grammar-schools; but a trifling proportion of the grammar-school pupils enter the high-schools, and of these, only a small fraction persist to the end of the curriculum. All high-schools grant certificates of graduation to pupils who have creditably gone through the course of study. The study of the classics does not, even in the most pretentious institutions of this class, seem to be carried very far, much more attention being given to mathematics and natural science. In Boston—in many respects the most favorable example that could be taken—there were, in 1864, 32,814 children of school-age—between 5 and 15; of these, 26,960 were in school, the average attendance being 25.61. The number enrolled at the three high-schools was only 725, and the average attendance 691. The number of students who complete the five years' curriculum of the New York Free Academy seldom exceeds fifty. Among the wealthy, there is said to be a growing disinclination to make use of the common-schools: their children are usually sent to private academies. The only serious opposition to the non-religious character of the common-schools comes from the Roman Catholic clergy; but it is stated that there is a growing feeling upon this subject among some of the other religious bodies. In many of the New York schools, in which the majority of the children are Roman Catholic, clerical influence, insufficient to impress upon the education the religious character which it would approve, has obtained, with the tacit assent of the school-authorities, the disuse of the daily Bible reading which the law prescribes.

The primary and grammar schools are most frequently mixed school's—that is, they admit boys and girls; in the teaching, however, the sexes are kept apart. The teachers in primary and grammar schools, even in the towns, are usually women; but in Boston the principal of a grammar-school is always of the other sex. The schools are in towns always *graded*—divided, that is, into classes composed of those who are at the same stage; each grad<sup>e</sup> forms a separate department of the school, and is taught by a separate master. The usual number of pupils allotted to a teacher is in the primary schools about 50; in the grammar-schools about 35. This system of grading is a cheap system, because it enables a teacher to take charge of a large number of pupils; but it is said to lead to a want of thoroughness in the instruction, the teaching being addressed to the class rather than to the individual members of it. Want of thoroughness seems, indeed, the besetting sin of American teaching, which aims too much at communicating knowledge, not sufficiently at developing capacities. In the primary and grammar schools, the education costs from 25s. to 30s. per head; in the high-schools, from £6 to £10 per head.

#### *Statistics of National Education.*

The proportion of children attending school—i. e., enrolled in school-registers—to the whole population of the countries under mentioned may be approximately stated as follows: England 1 in 7.7; Scotland, 1 in 6.5; Prussia, 1 in 6.2; France, 1 in 9; Holland, 1 in 8.11; Belgium, 1 in 11; Northern States of the American Union, 1 in 4.5; Switzerland, 1 in 7; the minor Protestant states of Germany, 1 in 6.7. These figures, however, must not be taken as indicating the comparative diffusion

of education in the countries named: nor are they to be relied on as indicating with anything like exactness, the comparative proportions of children actually attending school; for the proportion of the children enrolled which on the average is in actual attendance varies in different countries. It should also be borne in mind that averages conceal the condition of the worst parts of a country: in Scotland, for instance, where the school attendance varies from 1 in 4 of the population in the best districts, to 1 in 15, 1 in 20, and even to 1 in 80 in the worst.

See the Reports of the assistant-commissioners appointed to inquire into the State of Popular Education in England, vol. iv., being vol. xxi. part iv. sess. 1861; the second Report of the Scottish Educational Commissioners, 1867; the Statistical Society's Quarterly Journal for March 1867; Horace Mann on Education in European Countries; Fraser's Report on American (U. S. and Canada) Schools; Consul on German and Dutch Education; M. Block's Abstract of Public Documents relating to Education in France; "L'Instruction du Peuple," par Pierre Tempels (Bruxelles, 1865); "Statistische Nachrichten über das Elementar Schulwesen," an official return, which gives a complete survey of elementary education in Prussia to the end of 1864; "Congrès International de Bienfaisance de Londres, Session de 1862;" and "Rapport et Discussion sur l'Instruction Obligatoire."

[Since the preceding account was written, the claims of national education have been more fully recognised, and, with less opposition than might have been expected, a national system has been established in England and Scotland. The Elementary Education Act for England, 1870, enacts that every district in which the existing schools are found deficient shall have a popularly elected school-board, to manage its rate-supported schools, levy school-rates, appoint teachers, &c. Elementary schools are to be supported, and the expenses of school-boards paid, out of funds called school-funds. The local rate forms the nucleus of each school-fund; but every school under the act is likewise entitled to an annual grant from parliament, not exceeding the income of the school from other sources, and varying in amount according to the number of pupils and their proficiency as tested by different standards of examination. Schools are to be open at all times to government inspection. Religious instruction, if given at all—and this is left to each board to decide—is to be given at fixed times other than the ordinary school-hours, when no child is compelled to attend. It is further left to the discretion of school-boards to make education compulsory—The Scotch Education Act, 1872, differs materially from the English act on three points only: first, by providing that a school-board, under the Scotch Education Department, is to be elected in every parish and burgh; secondly, by making it illegal for parents to omit educating their children between 5 and 12 in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and thirdly, by comprehending higher-class schools. Otherwise, the acts are much alike. Every school is to be open to children of all denominations, and religious instruction is only to be given before or after ordinary school-hours. Provided they conform to the "conscience clause," school-boards may make any provision they please for religious instruction. School-boards are enjoined to relieve the teachers of higher-class schools, so far as may be, from elementary work.]

**NATIONAL GUARD**, an organization for local defence, differing from the British Militia and Volunteers, in being at the disposal of the municipalities, not of the crown. Italy, Greece, and other nations have maintained this civil force; but the country whence it derives historic fame, is France. The French N. G. was instituted in Paris in 1789 when the government had an army of 30,000 at the gates. The municipality armed 48,000 men, and their example was followed by the chief towns of France. These corps obtained the name of N. G. and assumed the famous tricolor as their ensign. In 1795, 30,000 of the Paris N. G. attacked the Tuilleries, and were repulsed by Napoleon Bonaparte with 6000 regular troops. In 1830 they were reorganized under the command of Lafayette, their original chief; and between 1848 and 1851 a law was passed by which all males above 20 not otherwise employed under government were included in the N. G. After the *coup d'état* in Dec. 1851, they were reduced to the condition of an armed police. In the war of 1870-71, they shewed some signs of vitality in sympathy with the Commune, but effected nothing for France. After the fall of the Commune they were disbanded.

**NATIVE**, a term mostly applied to metals, and employed to designate sub-

stances, as minerals, which are most of them more abundantly obtained from other minerals by chemical processes. Thus silver found pure, or nearly so, is called *Natural Silver*, whilst most of the silver in use is procured from ores in which it exists variously combined.

NA'TRON, or Troua, an impure sesquicarbonate of soda ( $2\text{NaO}_2\text{HO}_3\text{CO}_3 + 3\text{Ag}$ ), which always contains sulphate of soda and chloride of sodium. It is obtained from the margins of lakes in Egypt, Siberia, Tibet, &c., and from the borders of the Black and Caspian Seas.

NATRON LAKES. Natron was one of the substances employed by the ancient Egyptians in embalming mummies. They called it *hesmen*, and, together with the lakes from whence it was derived, it is mentioned in texts of the 12th dynasty, *circa* 1800 B.C. These lakes, eight in number, are in the vicinity of Zakek, a village west of the Damietta branch of the Nile. They are below the level of the sea, and the natron is obtained by evaporation. The locality is also renowned for four monasteries, Deyr Suriana, St. Mahrinus, Amba Bishoi, Deyr Baranooz, from whose libraries of Arabic, Coptic, and Syriac MSS. the national collections have been enriched. In the time of St Pachomius, 5000 anchorites dwelt here; they at present number about 300.

Lepsius, "Todt. Taf." vii. c. 17. 1. 17; Wilkinson, "Mod. Egypt," I. 382; Bruegel, "Wanderung nach Natron K. S.tern" (12mo, Berl. 1855).

NA'TTERJÄCK. See TOAD.

NATU'NA ISLANDS, The, lie to the north-west of Borneo, between  $9^{\circ} 38'$  and  $40^{\circ} 56'$  n. lat., and  $107^{\circ} 57'$  and  $108^{\circ} 15'$  e. long. They are densely wooded and mountainous, Ranay, on Great Natuna, rising to a height of 3500 feet. The largest of the islands is about 600 square miles. Pop. of the whole about 1300, who grow rice, maize, sago, cocoa-nuts, &c., and exchange the produce of their fishing, their sago and cocoa-nut oil, for rice, iron, and cottons, at the European settlements on the Strait of Malacca.

NATURAL, in Music, a note belonging to the diatonic scale of C, and neither elevated by a sharp nor depressed by a flat. When a note has been so elevated or depressed, the natural sign  $\natural$  prefix'd to it on its recurrence restores it to its place on the scale. When music is written on a key with a signature of sharps or flats, it is the office of the natural sign to counteract the signature as regards the note to which it is prefix'd.

NATURAL HISTORY, in the widest sense, includes all natural science, and has the whole of creation for its subject. In this sense the term was employed by the philosophers of antiquity. But it is now limited to those branches of science which relate to the crust of the earth and its productions. Of these, geology and mineralogy have for their subject inorganic portions of creation; botany and zoology, the various branches of which are often pursued as separate sciences, with physiology, have for their subject organized creatures. Natural history takes cognizance of the productions of nature, and of their relations to each other, with all the changes on the face of the earth, and all the phenomena of life, both animal and vegetable. It derives assistance from other sciences, particularly chemistry and natural philosophy; and some of the branches of chemistry may also be regarded as branches of natural history. When man himself is considered as a subject of scientific study, psychology must be added to the branches of natural history, but in the term as commonly employed this can scarcely be said to be included.

In every department of natural history, classification is of the utmost importance, and scarcely less important is a scientific nomenclature suited to the classification. The subjects of study are so incalculably numerous, that an arrangement of them in well-defined groups is necessary to any considerable attainment in the knowledge of them; and it is only by systems of classification which arrange smaller groups in larger, and these in larger and larger again, that natural history has been brought to its present state. The very division of natural history into different sciences is a result of such a classification, and implies a recognition of the largest and highest groups. It is not always in the establishment of these groups that the greatest difficulty is experienced. The primary distinction of all the subjects of natural history into organised and unorganised, or into those having life and those

not having life, presents itself very readily to every mind. And equally natural and necessary is the distinction of organised being into Plants and Animals, however difficult it has been found to draw the precise limit between the lowest of plants and the lowest of animals. Another distinction readily presents itself to the student of living beings, in the kinds which retain the same characters from one generation to another. But here arises one of the most important of all the questions of natural history, what a *species* is, and how it differs from a *variety*. For this we refer to the article **SPECIES**. But much difference of opinion as there is on this point, the common and long-prevalent notion may be assumed, as suitable enough for guidance in all that relates to classification, that those are distinct *species* which cannot by any change of circumstances—or, let it be said, by any *ordinary* change of circumstances, and within any *moderate* period of time—be so modified as to be transmuted one into another, whilst those are only *varieties* of which the modification and transmutation can be thus effected. Thus, in botany, *Brassica oleracea* is a species, of which kale, cabbage, cauliflower, broccoli, Brussels sprouts, &c., are varieties. Species, grouped together, according to their natural affinities, form *genera*; but a *genus* does not necessarily consist of more species than one; for, whilst some contain hundreds of species, others, apparently very distinct, contain only one as yet known to naturalists. The distinctions by which genera are separated are of course arbitrary, and are admitted to be so by those who deny that the distinctions between species are arbitrary, or that there is any uncertainty about them but what arises from the imperfection of our knowledge; for, at present, it must be admitted on all hands, that the uncertainty is in innumerable instances very great, what are species and what are varieties. The great object, however, in the formation of *genera* is that they shall be accordant with the facts of nature; and so in regard to the larger or higher groups which are composed of associated genera, as tribes, families, orders, classes, &c. But in all this, the great difficulty is that affinities exist on many sides; and that groups cannot be satisfactorily arranged in the order of a series, but often rather as if they radiated from a common centre; whilst otherwise viewed, the same groups might seem to radiate very differently from another common centre. A *natural system* is one framed with the utmost possible regard to all these facts; an *artificial system* fixes on one class of facts and proceeds upon it, in disregard of all others. See **BOTANY**.—In the inorganic departments of nature, a *species* is of course something different from what it is in the organic. But classification still proceeds on the recognition of facts in nature itself, which it is sought to exhibit in the groups that are formed. See **MINERALOGY**.

The nomenclature of natural history, in so far as it relates to organic beings, continues essentially as it was established by Linnaeus. See **GENUS**. The names have in many cases been changed, but not the mode of nomenclature.

**NATURAL OBLIGATION**, in Law, means an obligation which is supposed to be prescribed by the law of nature, as the obligation of a parent to maintain his child. In England, such an obligation is not recognised by the common law, and therefore it was necessary in the Poor-Law statutes to punish by a penalty parents who, being able, refused or declined to maintain their children. In Scotland, the natural obligation of a parent to maintain his child is, however, recognised by the common law, though it is also enforced by the Poor-Law statute.

**NATURAL PHILOSOPHY** is a term frequently employed in Great Britain to designate that branch of physical science which has for its subject those properties and phenomena of bodies which are unaccompanied by any essential change in the bodies themselves. It thus includes the various sciences which are classed under *Physics* (q. v.) in the limited sense of that term.

**NATURAL THEOLOGY** is the name given to that branch of moral science which concerns itself with the evidences for the existence of God, drawn from an inquiry into the constitution of the universe. It is believed by the majority of philosophical thinkers, that these evidences warrant the belief in a Being of infinite power, wisdom, benevolence, and justice. There are, however, philosophers of great eminence who deny that there is such a thing as Natural Theology, who say that nature, at the best, gives forth an uncertain sound regarding the existence of a Supreme Being, and that a logical demonstration of such existence is impossible, and has always broken down. This view is held, for example, by atheists like David

Hume, and the recent Scoto-Oxonian school of metaphysicians, of whom the principal representative is Dean Mansel. The standard English work on the subject has long been Paley's "Natural Theology" (Lond. 1802; new edition by Lord Brougham and Sir Charles Bell, 1836). The Bridgewater and Burnett Treatises are also contributions to this branch of science.

NATURALISATION, the act of placing an alien in the position, or investing him with the rights, of a natural-born citizen. The present arrangements with reference to naturalisation, by which the old rule that British allegiance is indefeasible, has been changed, are embodied in the Naturalisation Act (1870), 33 Vict. c. 14, and the Naturalisation Oath Act (1870), 33 and 34 Vict. c. 102. By the former of these statutes it is provided, that an alien who has resided in the United Kingdom for a term of not less than five years, or has been in the service of the crown for a term of not less than five years, and intends, when naturalised, either to reside in the United Kingdom or to serve under the crown, may apply to one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State for a certificate of naturalisation. The applicant is bound to adduce such evidence of his residence, or service, and intention to reside, or serve, as shall satisfy the Secretary of State, who may, with or without reason assigned, give or withhold a certificate. No appeal lies from his decision, but his certificate takes no effect until the applicant has taken the oath of allegiance. An alien, to whom a certificate of naturalisation has been granted, is entitled to all political and other rights, powers, and privileges; and subject to all obligations to which a natural-born subject is entitled or subject in the United Kingdom, with this qualification, that he, when within the limits of the foreign state of which he was previously a subject, is not deemed a British subject, unless he has ceased to be a subject of the foreign state by the laws thereof, or by a treaty to that effect. Such a certificate may be granted to any person with respect to whose British nationality a doubt exists; and a grant of such special certificate for the purpose of quieting doubts shall not be deemed an admission that the person to whom it was granted was not previously a British subject. Aliens previously naturalised may, on application, obtain certificates. A British subject who has become an alien, in pursuance of this act (see ALIEN), may apply for a certificate of readmission to British nationality on the same conditions as an alien by birth. The Secretary of State has, in this case, the same discretion; and an oath of allegiance is likewise required. The privilege of readmission, like that of admission to British nationality, requires that the recipient shall have ceased to be a subject of the foreign state. In the colonies, the powers of the Secretary of State are conferred on the governor. By the Oaths Naturalisation Act, 33 and 34 Vict. c. 132, any person making or subscribing a false declaration is declared to be guilty of a misdemeanor.

In France, "La grande Naturalisation" confers political privileges; "La petite Naturalisation" gives all the private rights of a French citizen, and it has been doubted whether even public rights are not included in it. In 1887, the term of residence was reduced from ten years to three. A subject of France loses his native character by naturalisation in a foreign country, or acceptance of office abroad without permission of the state, or even by establishing himself permanently out of his country. He may recover his rights by renunciation of his foreign office or domicile.

In Prussia, the higher administrative authorities can naturalise any stranger who satisfies them as to his conduct and means of subsistence. Nomination to a public office confers naturalisation. Prussian nationality is lost—(a) by discharge upon the subject's request; (b) by sentence of the competent authority; (c) by living ten years in a foreign country; (d) by marriage of a female subject with a foreigner.

In Austria, the authorities may confer the rights of citizenship on a person, after ten years' residence within the empire, who has been allowed to exercise a profession. A public functionary becomes thereby invested with rights of citizenship; but admission into the army has not this effect.—In the kingdom of the Netherlands, the power of naturalising rests in the crown.—In Russia, naturalisation is effected by taking an oath of allegiance to the emperor.

In the American States, five years' residence, and a declaration of intention to become a citizen, emitted before a magistrate, is requisite to naturalisation. See "Report of Royal Commissioners on Naturalisation" (1869).

NATURALISED. In the language of botanists and zoologists, those plants and animals are said to be naturalised in any country, which, having been introduced

into it by man, have established themselves so as to exist without his care. A plant or animal is never said to be naturalised so long as it exists merely in a state of cultivation or domestication, but is so when it becomes truly wild, and, unaided, competes successfully for a place among those which are indigenous to the country. Thus, the horse is not naturalised in Britain, or in most of the countries in which it is most highly valued; but both the horse and the ox may be said to be naturalised in South America. Many of the plants now most characteristic of Southern Europe, are sometimes said to have been originally introduced from the East; and some that are abundant in many parts of Britain were in all probability brought from the continent of Europe. Some of these almost evince their foreign origin by growing chiefly near ruins, or in places which have long been the seats of human habitation. Many plants now naturalised in Britain appear to have been originally brought for medicinal use, although now disregarded. In many cases, however, naturalisation has taken place without any attempt having ever been made by man to introduce the plant even for cultivation; and thus many European weeds are now common in America, the seeds having found their way thither with those of more valuable plants, or in some such accidental manner. The same thing has taken place as to animals. Thus, mice and rats find their way from one country to another; thus the bed-bug found its way at no remote date to Britain; other insects have been even more recently introduced with foreign productions of different kinds; and a mollusc (see *DREISSENA*), previously unknown, has established itself in some British rivers and canals. The pheasant may be mentioned as an instance of naturalisation in Britain, designed and successfully accomplished by man. An *Aclimatisation Society* has recently been formed in London, which has for its object the naturalising, rather than what may more strictly be called the acclimatising, of animals deemed suitable and desirable. It is unquestionable that much may be done by naturalisation of animals, not only to render rural scenes more attractive, but also to increase their economical productiveness. Perhaps nothing of this kind has received so little of the attention due to its importance as the naturalisation of fishes. See *PISCICULTURE*.

**NATURE-PRINTING.** This is a process by which engravings or plates answering thereto are produced by taking impressions of the objects themselves, and printing from them. There is some dispute as to the original inventor of this art; Denmark claims it for a native of Copenhagen, Peter Kyle, a goldsmith, who died about 1833, leaving the MS. description of his invention in the archives of the Royal Collection of Engravings in that capital. It is, however, admitted that no use was made of his invention. In 1833, Alois Auer, director of the State printing establishment of the Austrian empire, published his process, and also some very beautiful works illustrated by this art. About the same time, in this country, Mr G. W. Atkin made known his discovery of an exactly similar process, and showed some very beautiful plates of feathers, ferns, &c. But whatever other claims may be advanced, it is certain that Alois Auer holds undisputed right to the title of original inventor and practical applier of the invention. The process is very simple as practised by Auer; but it cannot be applied to any objects except those with tolerably flat surfaces, such as dried and pressed plants, embroidery and lace, and a very few animal productions. The object is placed between a plate of copper and another of lead, both worked smooth, and polished; they are drawn through a pair of rollers, under considerable pressure—Mr. Auer says forty to fifty tons; then, when the plates are separated, it is found that a most beautiful and perfect impression of the object has been made in the leaden plate. This may be used directly as an engraved plate, if only a very few impressions are wanted; but as it is too soft to resist the action of the press for practical purposes, a fac-simile of it is obtained in copper by the electrotype process, which is used as the printing-plate. The best practical use to which nature-printing has yet been applied is the multiplication of patterns of lace and other figured surfaces, either in textile materials or metals, for trade purposes. Lace-prints especially are so exactly like the originals, that the most fastidious can require nothing more; hence the cutting up of valuable pieces of lace for patterns has been saved. Henry Bradbury, of the then existing firm of Bradbury and Evans, London, made nature-printing his special study, and produced the exquisite works, "Nature-printed Ferns," and "Nature-printed Sea-Weeds," in two vols. each (London: Bradbury and Evans).

**NAUMA'CHIA**, a Greek word, signifying literally a naval battle, afterwards, among the *Koina*us, a spectacle which consisted in the imitation of a naval battle. Julius Caesar was the first to introduce a *naumachia* into Rome, 46 B.C., causing a portion of the *Campus Martius* to be dug to form a lake, on which the "spectacle" came off. Augustus made an artificial lake (*stagnum*) near the Tiber for the same purpose, which was afterwards frequently used for *naumachiae*. Claudius also exhibited a splendid one on Lake *Fucinus*. Nero, Domitius, and others were likewise fond of such amusements. The combatants were termed *Naumacharii*; they were for the most part either captives or condemned criminals; and the rival fleets took their names from the famous maritime nations of antiquity; Tyrians and Egyptians, Rhodians and Sicilians, Persians and Athenians, Corcyreans and Corinthians, Athenians and *Syracusans*. The magnificence of these spectacles may be estimated from the fact, that in the one exhibited on Lake *Fucinus*, 19,000 men were engaged. These *naumachiae* were not *sham-fights*, any more than ordinary gladiatorial combats. Both sides fought on in real earnest for dear life until one was utterly overpowered; and as a rule, multitudes were "butchered to make a Roman holiday."

**NAU'MBURG**, a town of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Merseburg, situated 17 m. s.-e.-w. of the town of that name on the *Saale*, in the midst of a striking amphitheatre of vine-clad hills. Besides its cathedral—a noble Gothic structure, completed in 1249, with two choirs, and containing many beautiful sculptures—there are several other churches. The manufactures are: cotton and woollen fabrics, leather, and chemical products. Wine is grown in the vicinity in considerable quantity—11,000 gallons yearly. During the Thirty Years' War, and in the campaigns of 1806 and 1813, N. in which the Prussian magazines were lodged, was a place of great importance. Five annual fairs are held here. Pop. (1875) 16,327.

**NAU'PLIA**, a small fortified town and seaport in the Morea, Greece, at the northern extremity of the Gulf of Argos or Nauplia, and 7 miles south-east of the town of Argos. It is laid out in the manner of a European town. Its roadstead is one of the best in Greece. In the Church of St Spiridion, Cupo d'Istria was assassinated in 1881. N. is of high antiquity. At an early period it was the port and arsenal of Argos. In the 18th c., it was occupied by the Venetians, and was taken by the Turks in 1540. From 1824 to 1835, it was the capital of Greece, and had a population of upwards of 12,000; but on the removal of the court to Athens, it fell into decay. Pop. about 4000.

**NAU'SEA** is a distressing sensation always referred to the stomach. It is attended by pain, but is usually accompanied by a feeling of general languor or debility, a small and often irregular pulse, a pale, cool, and moist skin, general muscular relaxation, an increased flow of saliva, and a sensation that vomiting will supervene. It is most commonly a *direct* symptom of disease or disorder of the stomach, but sometimes it is a very important *indirect* symptom of disease of some part at a distance from the stomach—as, for example, the brain or the kidney. The nausea which is so troublesome to pregnant women is due to the irritation excited by the enlarged uterus being reflected by nervous agency to the stomach.

**NAU'TAE**, *Canpo'nes*, &c. These words are the commencement of an edict in Roman law, which made shipmasters, innkeepers, and stablers liable for the safety of the goods brought into the ship, inn, or stable. The same doctrine is adopted by the common law of England and Scotland, subject to variations produced by the Carriers' Act, and Railway and Canal Traffic Act, so far as regards carriers and railway and canal companies.

**NAU'TICAL ALMANAC**, a work projected for the special behoof of astronomers and navigators. See **ALMANAC**. It is chiefly valuable to the latter class from its containing tables of the "lunar distances"—i. e., distances of the moon from a few (5 to 7) of the more prominent stars, given for every three hours throughout the year—by which, at the present day, longitudes (see **LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE**) are most conveniently and accurately determined. To the astronomer, the "Nautical Almanac" furnishes a great mass of important data; it gives the position of the moon in right ascension and declination for every hour, and the sun's latitude and longitude for every day in the year; it shews the obliquity of the ecliptic, the sun's

and moon's parallax, aberration, &c., at different times; it supplies the necessary data for the determination of the real or apparent size, position, and motion of the planets and their satellites; it fixes accurately the places of about 150 fixed stars, and gives full details concerning eclipses, occultations, transits, and other celestial phenomena occurring during the year. It is generally issued four years in advance, for the sake of mariners going on long voyages.

**NAUTILUS**, a genus of *tetrabranchiate Cephalopoda* (q. v.), extremely interesting as the existing representatives of an order of molluscs now reduced to a very few species, but of which the fossil remains attest the great abundance in former geological periods. The species of this genus are found only in the seas of warm climates. One or more of them must have been known to Aristotle, as appears from his description, which, however, is not minute. Yet it is but recently that they came under the observation of modern naturalists; and they were very imperfectly known, till a specimen, obtained by Dr Bennett in a bay of the New Hebrides in 1829, was submitted to the examination of Professor Owen, and became the subject of a valuable memoir by him. The shell, indeed, has long been common enough in collections, being plentifully found, entire or in fragments, on many tropical shores; but from the shell alone, little could be learned concerning the animal to which it belonged. The shell is spiral, the spire not at all elevated; and thus, in external form, resembles the shells of many species of snail; but internally, it is *camerated*, or divided into chambers, by transverse curved partitions of shelly matter. In a very young state, this structure does not exist; but as the animal increases in size, it deserts its first habitation, which then becomes an empty clamber, and so proceeds from one to another still larger, occupying the outermost only, but retaining a connection with all by means of a membranous tube (*siphuncle*) which passes through the centre of each partition. The use of this connection is not known; but the most probable supposition is, that the animal is enabled, by throwing air or some kind of gas into the empty chambers of the shell, or by exhausting them of air, to change the total weight, so that it may rise or sink in the water at pleasure. It commonly inhabits the bottom of the sea, where it creeps about, probably like the gasteropods, by means of a large muscular disc with which the head is furnished; but it sometimes rises to the surface, and is to be seen floating there. Dr Bennett states that the specimen which he fortunately captured, attracted his attention when thus floating, as an object resembling a dead tortoise-shell cut. The story of its spreading a sail is as fabulous as the similar story regarding the argonaut. The head and arms can be protruded from the shell, and can also be completely refracted within it. There are numerous arms attached to the head, nineteen in the best known species; there are also numerous other tentacles; but none of these organs are furnished with suckers, and they are feeble in comparison with the corresponding organs of many of the higher or *dibranchiate cephalopods*. The mouth is of the parrot's bill form, as in the other cephalopods; but the mandibles are not entirely composed of horny matter, their extremities being calcareous and of a hardness apparently adapted for breaking shells. Their edges are also notched, and shew an adaptation for crushing rather than for cutting. The tongue is large. The gizzard is muscular. The food appears to consist, at least in great part, of crustaceans.

Only three species of N. are known, of which the best known and apparently the most abundant, is the **PEARLY N.** (*N. pompilius*), which is found in the Indian and the Pacific Oceans. Its shell is beautifully nacreous within; and is externally porcellian-like, white, and streaked with reddish chestnut. The shell, being large, thick, and strong, is used for a variety of purposes by the natives of the East Indies and South Sea Islands; it is also made into ornaments of various kinds in China and elsewhere. The animal is eaten by the Fijians and other South Sea islanders, and is much esteemed as an article of food. The Fijians capture it by means of a basket-trap, somewhat like those used for catching lobsters, baited with boiled crayfish. The name **PAPER N.** has sometimes been given to the Argonaut (q. v.)

**Fossil Nautilus.**—About one hundred and fifty species of fossil shells have been referred to this genus. They occur in all the strata from the Upper Silurian to the most recent deposits. Numerous forms, however, which exhibit very wide differences, have been incongruously associated under this generic name. The palæozoic nautili are so remarkable, that they must certainly be referred to one or more sepa-

ate genera: some of the carboniferous species have a square back, and the whorls either compact or open in the centre, while the last chamber is more or less disunited from the shell; and the Devonian *Clymenia* has angular sutures and an internal siphuncle. Until a careful revision of this section of the Cephalopoda is made, it will be better to consider the species as belonging to the family *Nautilidae*, and not to the genus *Nautilus*.

NAUTILUS PROPELLER was long the best known among many names given to a mode of propelling steam-vessels by means of a horizontal wheel within board, instead of a paddle or a screw on the outside. *Hydraulic* propeller has latterly come more into use. Engineers thought of this mode of propulsion generations ago, and patents have been taken out for inventions relating to it by Toogood, Hayes, Rumsey, Linaker, Hall, and others; but the most successful attempts to realize it have been those of Mr Ruthven. He constructed a small boat, 9 feet long, in 1839 (tried on the Union Canal), and a vessel 40 feet long, in 1844 (tried on the Forth), to test the principle; each was worked by a small steam-engine, and provided with the hydraulic apparatus. In 1849, Mr Ruthven made improvements in the apparatus, and introduced them in a vessel, 80 feet long, tried upon the Thames. In 1851, he placed a boat in the Great Exhibition. In 1853, a vessel on this principle, called the *Albert*, was built in Prussia by M. Sydel, the machinery being supplied by Mr Ruthven. She plied on the Oder as a passenger-steamer for many years, and illustrated favorably some of the characteristic features of the nautilus system. The term of Mr Ruthven's patent expired, however, before the invention had worked its way into use in England; and the Privy Council, in 1863, gave a further term of ten years. He afterwards began building a vessel to be called the *Nautilus*; while the Admiralty authorized the commencement of the gun-vessel *Waterwitch*, both to be worked on the Ruthven principle.

The *Nautilus* was first tried on the Thames in April 1866. It is fitted with two steam-engines of 10 (nominal) horse-power each, with cylinders of 17 inches diameter, and 2 feet stroke. Water is admitted through apertures in the bottom of the vessel into a water-tight iron case or compartment. In this case is placed a horizontal so-called turbine-wheel, 7 feet in diameter, acted on from a vertical shaft connected with the steam-cylinders. The wheel is divided in compartments by plates or radii of peculiar curvature, and is placed below the water-line of the vessel, so as to be always immersed. Two pipes extend from the wheel-case, one to either side of the vessel, where they emerge nearly at midship. Each pipe terminates with nozzles, 10 inches in diameter, placed outside the vessel at right angles to the pipes; insomuch that each side of the vessel has a nozzle pointing ahead and another pointing astern. A valve is fitted to each pipe, at its junction with the nozzles, to open the passage to one nozzle and close it against the other; and the movement both of the starboard and the port valves can be governed from a raised deck built over the engine-house. The wheel-case is always full, or nearly full of water, which enters through the apertures in the bottom of the vessel. When the wheel is made to rotate horizontally by the steam-engine, water is drawn in through the hollow axle, and expelled at the periphery by centrifugal force; it can only find an outlet through the two pipes, and then through the nozzles which terminate them. Supposing the nozzles pointing astern to be open, and those pointing ahead to be closed, the vessel is propelled forward by the resistance of the water of the river or sea to that rushing out of the nozzles; when the forward nozzles are open, and the hinder ones closed, the vessel is propelled backwards or driven astern. The captain, standing on the raised deck and commanding both valves, can close the fore-nozzles and open the aft, which makes the vessel go ahead; he can open the fore and close the aft, which makes her go astern; he can open one fore nozzle and close the other, which makes her turn. The exit of the water from the nozzles is a little above sea-level, a plan found to be better than actually immersing them. In one of the trial-trips of the *Nautilus*, with strong wind and tide urging her on, and going at full speed, she was stopped dead in less than 10 seconds, and in about a quarter of her length, by simply reversing the valves.

The performance of the *Nautilus* was satisfactory enough to lead the Admiralty to expedite the fulfilling of the *Waterwitch*, an iron-clad gun-vessel of 778 tons and 160 horse-power. The wheel is rotated by an engine having three separate cylinders, each 88½ inches diameter by 3 feet 6 inches stroke. The vessel was built at

the Thames iron-works, and engined by Messrs J. and W. Dudgeon of Blackwall. Its turbine-wheel is 14 feet in diameter; it rotates (at full engine-power) 89 times per minute. The brass discharge-nozzles, which measure 24 inches by 19 $\frac{1}{2}$ , are continued along the outside of the vessel 8 feet on each side of the centre; the lower lips of the discharge-hoses are 8 inches below water-line, the remainder of the aperture being above water. The *Waterwitch* is flat-bottomed and double-ended, i. e., she has a rudder at each end, so that she can steer equally well when going ahead or astern. Her total cost was £60,000, of which no less than £18,600 was for the engines.

As regards her speed and the efficiency of her machinery, the *Waterwitch* did not do all that was expected of her; she was neither more nor less successful than her sister ships, the *Viper* and *Vixen*, and they all three belonged to the siowest class of gun-boats. As her machinery was much more expensive than that of the others, nothing has as yet been done in the way of adding to the number of hydraulic engines in the navy. They possess many advantages in regard to manœuvring the ship, but these are to a great extent also possessed by twin-screw engines, which can be made at a less cost; while some of the advantages originally claimed for them, such as freedom from slip, have not been realised in actual work. In such exceptional vessels as those of the *Viper*-class, a fair comparison of the merits of the hydraulic propeller with those in common use cannot be made. The net result of the experiments hitherto made is, that while the addition of one additional part to the machinery between the engines and the actual propellers (which in this case are the columns of water) is open to grave objections; still, with a "turbine" less faulty in design, and under more favorable circumstances as regards the vessel in which it is placed, the hydraulic propeller may be found useful in men-of-war. The *Waterwitch* has chiefly been employed in harbor work as a tender to larger vessels.

**NAUVOO'**, a town in Illinois, United States of America, on the east bank of the Mississippi River, 220 miles above St Louis. It was built by the Mormons in 1840, and in 1846 contained a population of 15,000. Its principal feature was a great temple of polished marble, original in style, and imposing in appearance. After the murder of Joseph Smith, the Mormon prophet (see *MORMONS*), and the expulsion of his followers, the temple was burned. The town was afterwards bought and occupied by a French Socialist community, under the leadership of M. Cabet. This experiment having proved, like others, a failure, the once famous city has been reduced to an inconsiderable village.

#### NAVAL ARCHITECTURE. See SHIP-BUILDING.

**NAVAL CADETS** are the youths training for service as naval officers. Every admiral on hoisting his flag may nominate two, every captain one cadet. The boy must be between 12 and 13 $\frac{1}{2}$  years old. He is examined at the Royal Naval College at Greenwich, and if he passes, is sent for two years to the *Britannia* training-ship, at Dartmouth. At the end of that time, if he has progressed satisfactorily, he is put into a sea-going ship, and becomes a midshipman at once if he has gained a first-class certificate.

**NAVAL CROWN**, in Heraldry, a rim of gold round which are placed alternately prows of galleys and square sails. The device is said to have originated with the Roman emperor Claudius, who, after the conquest of Britain, instituted it as a reward for maritime services. He who first boarded the enemy's ship, and was the occasion of its being captured, was entitled to a naval crown. A naval crown supporting the crest in place of a wreath, occurs in various grants of arms in the early part of the present century, to the naval heroes of the late war. The crest of the Earl of St Vincent, bestowed on him after his victory over the Spanish fleet in 1797, is issuing out of a naval crown or, enwrapped by a wreath of laurel vert, a demipegasus argent maned and hoofed of the first and winged azure, charged in the wing with a fleur-de-lis or.

**NAVAL RESERVE**, Royal, is a sort of militia auxiliary to the royal navy. It is a force held in high esteem by naval men; and is considered an extremely valuable reserve of trained men ready to man the fleet in case of emergency. The force was instituted in 1859, under the Act 22 and 23 Vict. That act authorizes the engagement of 30,000 men, each for a period of five

years, and provides that each shall be trained, for 28 days in every year, to the use of arms and naval tactics, either in Her Majesty's ships or on shore. In case of national emergency, these men can, by royal proclamation, be called out for service in the navy in any part of the world, for periods not exceeding five years. While training and while called out for actual service, the men receive the same wages as corresponding ratings in the royal navy; in addition, they each receive, as retaining fee, a sum of six pounds for every year in which the regulated training has been completed. On actual service, after three years—whether of uninterrupted service, or at broken intervals—the volunteer becomes entitled to twopence extra per diem. The man can terminate his engagement at the end of five years, unless on actual service, when the Queen may require him to complete five years of such service before discharging him. During the continuance of his engagement, he must not embark on voyages which shall entail a longer absence from the United Kingdom than six months, unless with special permission of the Admiralty. The periods for training are made as far as practicable to suit the sailor's convenience: he may break the 28 days into shorter periods, none being less than seven days. He is drilled as near as practicable to his own home, the drilling being intrusted to the officers of the Coast-guard. While drilling, if on board a Queen's ship, he has the regulation victuals; if billeted on shore, while training for great-gun exercise in batteries, he is allowed 1s. 4d. a day for victuals. It is optional with the volunteer to renew his engagement from time to time, as the respective periods of five years expire; and at about the age of 45, he becomes entitled to a pension of £12 or upwards for the rest of his life, subject to the usual obligation of service in certain circumstances in the navy, which all pensioners are under. This pension may be computed, if desired, into one of less amount, to last until the death of the longest liver of the volunteer and his wife.

To be eligible for the Royal Navy Reserve, a man must be a British subject, under 35 years of age, in good health, and, within the preceding ten years, must have served at least five years at sea, of which one year shall have been as able seaman. Soldiers, militiamen, and Coast Volunteers are ineligible, and subject to a penalty if they join; but a member of the last force may obtain his discharge therefrom for the purpose of joining the Naval Reserve. Penalties are enacted in case men fail to attend: and failure after proper notice to come up for actual service is held equivalent to desertion. While training or on duty, the men are liable to all the punishments, as they are entitled to all the rights and privileges of regular seamen. The men considered most desirable are (1) those having fixed residences, and personally known to the shipping-master or his deputies; and (2) men having regular employment in the coasting-trade, or in vessels the business of which brings them back to the same ports at frequent and known intervals. In 1877, about 20,000 men belonged to the Naval Reserve, and were in a state of great efficiency.

In 1861, the system of the Reserve was extended—by the Act 24 and 25 Vict. c. 129—to officers of the merchant-service, certificated masters and mates being respectively granted commissions in the Naval Reserve as lieutenants and sub-lieutenants. The holders are required to train for 28 days annually on board Her Majesty's ships, and are liable to be called out for actual service when required. When training, or on actual service, lieutenants receive 10s. and sub-lieutenants 7s. a day, with all the privileges, pensions for wounds, pensions to widows, uniforms, &c., of naval officers of corresponding rank. The number of these officers allowed by regulation is 130 lieutenants, and 270 sub-lieutenants: of these, in 1874, commissions had been granted to 117 lieutenants, 78 sub-lieutenants, and 2 engineers. The total cost of the Naval Reserve, officers and men, for the year 1876–1877, was estimated at £240,100.

NAVAN, a market town of Meath County, Ireland, situated at the junction of the Boyne and Blackwater, 28 n.-w. of Dublin, with which city it is connected by two railways. Pop. (1871) 4104, of whom 3868 were Catholics, 203 Episcopalian-Protestants, and the rest Protestants of other denominations. N. is one of the most ancient boroughs in Ireland, and returned two members to the Irish parliament. It possesses considerable inland trade, a flax-mill, several flour-mills, and two paper-mills, besides a tannery, a brewery, and two distilleries. There are also an endowed school, a Roman Catholic seminary (one of the first opened in Ireland after the re-

peal of the penal law), and four national schools, containing (1871) 1304 pupils, of whom 699 were boys, and 605 girls. The two girls' schools are attached to the Roman Catholic convent. Several interesting remains, both Celtic and Norman-English, are found in N. and the vicinity.

NAVARINO, or Neo-Castro, a seaport and citadel on the south-west coast of the Morea in Greece, contains only 2000 inhabitants, but is of importance from its position, commanding the entrance of the Bay of Navarino, at the southern extremity of which it is situated. On the island of Sphacteria, which closes the bay's mouth, was formerly situated Pylus Messenica, the town of Nestor, in a spot where now stands Old Navarino or Palaeocastron. The Bay of Navarino was the scene of a great sea-fight between the Athenians under Cleon, and the Spartans (425 B.C.), in which the latter were defeated; and on the 20th October 1827, it saw the annihilation of the Turkish and Egyptian navies by the combined British, French, and Russian fleets under Sir Edward Codrington.

NAVA'RRE, a province, and formerly a kingdom of Spain, is bounded on the n. by France, on the s. and e. by Aragon, and on the w. by the Biscayns; and is situated in  $42^{\circ} 20'$ — $43^{\circ} 15'$  n. lat., and  $0^{\circ} 50'$ — $2^{\circ} 30'$  w. long. Area about 4000 square miles. Pop. (1870) 318,687. The country is mountainous, being bounded and traversed by the Pyrenees, spurs of which occupy almost the whole of the province in its northern and eastern parts. The highest peaks are Altoviscar, Adi, Alcorrunz, and Rufia. N. is watered by the Bidassoa, the Aezco, and by the Ebro, together with its tributaries, the Ega and Aragon, on the level shores of which corn, wine, and oil of good quality are produced. Some of the valleys which intersect the mountain-ranges, as those of Roncesvalles, Leceon, Bastan, and Roncal, have a fruitful soil, and yield good crops; but in the mountain districts, husbandry is impracticable, and the inhabitants nearly all follow the chase, as much from necessity as inclination; and while a large number of the Navarrese are soldiers, a still larger proportion are smugglers—the proximity of the province to France, and the dangerous character of the almost inaccessible mountain passes which alone connect the two countries, holding out many inducements and facilities in the way of smuggling. The mountain forests still harbor bears, wolves, wild-cats, goats, deer, and an abundance of game of every other kind. Iron and salt are the chief mineral products of the district, but these are obtained in sufficient quantities to be exported. The people of N. are a hardy, brave, and hospitable race, loyal to the sovereign, attentive observers of the forms of their religion, and, except in the matter of smuggling, honest and moral; but they are passionate and distrustful, prone to anger, and keen in avenging an insult, real or imaginary. Although not industrious, the people follow a few branches of industry, and manufacture glass, leather, soap, chocolate, &c., of good quality.

The Navarrese, with few exceptions, are members of the church of Rome, to whose tenets they cling with superstitious devotion. They have always intermarried chiefly among their own compatriots, and are a nearly pure Basque race. In the mountainous districts, Basque is still spoken, but in the plains, the modern Castilian form of Spanish is rapidly supplanting the ancient language of the country. The chief town is Pamplona (q. v.).

The territory known fr. in an early period of Spanish history under the name of N., was occupied in ancient times by the Vascones, who were subdued by the Goths in the 5th century. After having become gradually amalgamated with their conquerors, the people continued to enjoy a species of turbulent independence under military leaders until the 8th c., when they were almost annihilated by the hordes of Arabs who were rapidly spreading their dominion to all parts of the peninsula. The Gothic Vascones of N., who had been converted to Christianity, offered a gallant resistance to their infidel invaders, and although repeatedly beaten, they were not wholly subdued. The remnant which escaped the sword of their Moslem enemies took refuge in the fastnesses of the mountains, and choosing a knight of their number, Garcia, Ximenes, as their leader or king, they sailed forth, and by their gallant resistance, compelled the Arabs to leave them in the enjoyment of an independence greater than that of the neighboring states. On the extinction of the race of Ximenes, in the middle of the 9th c., the Navarrese elected as their king Inigo Sanchez, Count of Bigorre, in whose family the succession remained till the marriage of Philip the Fair with Queen Joaquina I. of N.; and the accession of the former

to the throne of France in 1285, rendered N. an appanage of the crown of France. It contained a part of that kingdom during the successive reigns of Louis X., Philip V., and Charles the Fair; but on the death of this last in 1322, France fell to the family of Valois, and the daughter of Louis X., the rightful heir, succeeded to N. as Joanna II. The events of the kingdom present no features of interest during the next hundred years. The marriage of Blanche, daughter of Charles III. of N., with John II. of Aragon, in 1442, did not produce an annexation of N. to Aragon, as John suffered his wife to rule her own kingdom as she pleased, and even after her death and his subsequent re-marriage, he resigned the government entirely to his son by Blanche. This son, known as Charles, Prince of Viana, having attempted to remain neutral in his father's quarrels with Castile, John expelled him and his elder sister Blanche, who sided with him, from N., and conferred the kingdom on Leonora Countess de Foix, his younger daughter, by Blanche, whose misrule completed the disorganization which these family quarrels had commenced. Her son, Francis, called Phœbus, from his beauty, succeeded in 1479, and his sister Catherine in 1483. Ferdinand and Isabella sought to marry the young queen to their son and heir, the Prince of Asturias, but her mother, a French princess, married her to Jean d'Albret. Ferdinand, however, was not willing to let the prize escape him, and on some slight pretext he seized N. in 1512. After this act of spoliation, there remained nothing of ancient N. beyond a small territory on the northern side of the Pyrenees, which was subsequently united to the crown of France by Henri IV. of Bourbon, King of N., whose mother, Jeanne d'Albret, was granddaughter of Queen Catherine; and hence the history of N. ends with his accession to the French throne in 1589. The Navarrese were, however, permitted to retain many of their ancient privileges, after their incorporation with the other domains of the Spanish crown, until the reign of Queen Isabella II., when the active aid which they furnished to the pretender, Don Carlos, in the rebellion of 1834—1839, led to the abrogation of their *fueros*, or national assemblies, and to the amalgamation of their nationality with that of the kingdom at large. In the later Carlist struggle of 1872—1876, N. was again a principal seat of the war, the inhabitants being stimulated in their assistance of the representative of the claims and title of Don Carlos by his promise of restoring their *fueros*.

NAVE. See CHURCH.

NA'VEW (Fr. *navelle*), a garden vegetable much cultivated in France and other parts of the continent of Europe, although little used in Britain. It is by some botanists regarded as a cultivated variety of *Brassica napus*, or Rape (q. v.), whilst others refer it to *B. campestris*, sometimes called Wild N., the species which is also supposed to be the original of the Swedish Turnip (q. v.). The part used is the swollen root, which is rather like a carrot in shape. Its color is white. Its flavor is much stronger than that of the turnip. It succeeds best in a dry light soil. The seed is sown in spring, and the plants thinned out to 5 inches apart.

NAVI'CULA (Lat. a little ship), a genus of *Diatomaceæ* (q. v.), receiving its name from the resemblance of its form to that of a boat. Some of the species are very common.

NAVI'CULAR DISEASE, in the Horse, consists in strain of the strong flexor tendon of the foot, at the point within the hollow of the fetlock, where it passes over the navicular bone. It is most common amongst the lighter sorts of horses, and especially where they have upright pasterns, out-turned toes, and early severe work on hard roads. It soon gives rise to a short tripping yet cautious gait, undue wear of the toe of the shoe, wasting of the muscles of the shoulder, and projecting or "pointing" of the affected limb whilst standing. When early noticed, and in horses with well-formed legs, it is often curable; but when of several weeks' standing, it leads to so much inflammation and destruction of the tendon and adjoining parts, that soundness and fitness for fast work are again impossible. Rest should at once be given, the shoe removed, the toe shortened, and the foot placed in a large, soft, hot poultice, changed every few hours. Laxative medicine and brass masters should be ordered, and a soft bed made with old straw litter. After a few days, and when the heat and tenderness abate, cold applications should supersede the hot; and, after another week, a blister may be applied round the coronet, and the animal placed for two months in a good yard or in a grass field, if the ground be soft and moist; or,

**if sufficiently strong, at slow farm-work on soft land.** Division of the nerve going to the foot removes sensation, and consequently lameness; and hence is useful in relieving animals intended for breeding purposes or for slow work. The operation, however, is not to be recommended where fast work is required; for the animal, insensible to pain, uses the limb as if nothing were amiss, and the disease rapidly becomes worse.

**NAVIES, Ancient and Medieval.** The ancient method of naval warfare consisted, in great part, in the driving of *beaked* vessels against each other; and therefore skill and celerity in manoeuvring, so as to strike the enemy at the greatest disadvantage, were of the utmost importance. The victory thus usually remained with the best sailor. This mode of conflict has been attempted to be revived at the present time, and vessels called "steam-rams" are specially constructed for this species of conflict. The earliest powers having efficient fleets appear to have been the Phoenicians, Carthaginians, Persians, and Greeks; the Greeks had fleets as early as the beginning of the 7th c. B.C.—the first sea-fight on record being that between the Corinthians and their colonists of Corcyra, 664 B.C. The earliest great battle in which tactics appear to have distinctly been opposed to superior force, and with success, was that of Salamis (480 B.C.), where Themistocles, taking advantage of the narrows, forced the Persian fleet of Xerxes to combat in such a manner, that their line of battle but little exceeded in length the line of the much inferior Athenian fleet. The Peloponnesian War, where "Greek met Greek," tended much to develop the art of naval warfare. But the destruction of the Athenian marine power in the Syracusan expedition of 414 B.C., left Carthage mistress of the Mediterranean. The Roman power, however, gradually asserted itself, and after two centuries, became omnipotent by the destruction of Carthage. For several following centuries the only sea-fights were occasioned by the civil wars of the Romans. Towards the close of the empire, the system of fighting with pointed prows had been discontinued in favor of that which had always co-existed—viz., the running alongside and boarding by armed men, with whom each vessel was overloaded. Onagers, ballistæ, &c., were ultimately carried in the ships and used as artillery; but they were little relied on, and it was usual, after a discharge of arrows and javelins, to come to close quarters. A sea-fight was therefore a hand-to-hand struggle on a floating base, in which the vanquished were almost certainly drowned or slain.

The northern invaders of the empire, and subsequently the Moors, seem to have introduced swift-sailing galleys, warring in small squadrons and singly, and ravaging all civilised coasts for plunder and slaves. This—the break-up of the empire—was the era of piracy, when every nation, which had more to win than lose by freebooting, sent out its cruisers. Foremost for daring and seamanship were the Norsemen, who penetrated in every direction from the Bosphorus to Newfoundland. Combination being the only security against these marauders, the medieval navies gradually sprang up; the most conspicuous being—in the Mediterranean, those of Venice, Genoa, Pisa, Aragou; on the Atlantic sea-board, England and France. In the Mediterranean, Venice, after a long struggle with the Gnoese, and subsequently with the Turks, became the great naval power. The Aragonese fleet gradually developed into the Spanish navy, which, by the epoch of Columbus, had a rival in that of Portugal. Many struggles left, in the 16th and 17th centuries, the principal naval power in the hands of the English, French, Dutch, Spaniards, and Portugese. The present state of these and other existing navies will be briefly given under NAVIES, MODERN.

**NAVIES, Modern.** Dating the modern navies of the world from the 16th c., we find the British navy rising from insignificance by the destruction of the Spanish Armada in 1588; a blow which Spain never recovered, and which the Dutch, whose naval force had acquired tremendous strength in their struggle for independence, increased the weight of, by their triumph in 1607, in the Bay of Gibraltar. At this time, there was no decisive superiority of the fleet of England over that of France; but each was inferior to the Dutch navy. The Commonwealth and reign of Charles II. were signalled by the struggle for mastery between the English and Dutch; when victory, after many alternations, finally sided with the former. Through the 18th c., the English and French were the principal fleets; but Louis XVI. gave a decided superiority to the navy of France; and at the period of the American War,

the naval power of England was seriously threatened. Spain, Holland, and Russia (now for the first time a naval power) had meanwhile acquired considerable fleets; and the "armed neutrality," to which the northern powers gave their adherence, rendered the British position most critical. However, the slowly roused energy of her government, the invincible courage of her seamen, and the genius of her admirals, brought Britain through all her trials. Camperdown broke the Dutch power; many battles weakened the French navy; and at Trafalgar, in 1805, it, with the Spanish power, was swept from the ocean. The United States had in the meantime augmented their fleet, and in the war of 1812-1814, maintained a glorious struggle. During the American War of Secession, many gun-boats, "monitors," and iron-clads of all classes, were created; but chiefly adapted for river and coast service. The growth, in recent times, of the British navy will be found under NAVY, BRITISH. The Emperor Napoleon III greatly enlarged and improved the French navy, yet in the war of 1870-1871 it had no opportunity of proving its effectiveness.

The contest between the attack and defence which has been going on for some time appears to have attained its limits in the 100-ton guns of the Italian navy, and the 24-inch armor plate of the British; and a new departure seems already to have been taken which points in the direction of steel-plates and speed, and a more special adaptation of ships for particular services. The torpedo system has introduced a new element into naval warfare, particularly in harbors, rivers, and inland waters, which can hardly be said to be yet fully developed (see TORPEDO); and the catastrophe of the *Vanguard* of the British navy, and the *Grosser Kurfürst* of the German, have pointed out dangers connected with the ram system that had not been calculated upon.

The following table gives a fair estimate of the comparative strength of the chief navies of the world. Comparison by the number of guns is of little account now; that of armored steamers and horse-power is more to the point:

CHIEF NAVIES OF THE WORLD, 1877.

| COUNTRY.                | Armored<br>Steamers. | Unarmored<br>Steamers. | Sailing<br>Vessels. | Total<br>Ships. | Horse-<br>Power. | Guns. | Men.    | Annual<br>Cost. |
|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|---------------------|-----------------|------------------|-------|---------|-----------------|
| Austria-Hungary . . .   | 11                   | 37                     | 10                  | 58              | 16,206           | 324   | 9,970   | £941,019        |
| Brazil . . . . .        | 11                   | 46                     | 3                   | 50              | 12,027           | 197   | 5,097   | 1,152,000       |
| Denmark . . . . .       | 7                    | 21                     | —                   | 28              | —                | —     | 2,964   | 272,162         |
| France . . . . .        | 53                   | 326                    | 113                 | 492             | 250,324          | 2834  | 71,154  | 7,439,000       |
| Germany . . . . .       | 20                   | 38                     | 4                   | 60              | 103,300          | 407   | 7,458   | 1,438,850       |
| Great Britain . . . . . | 65                   | 360                    | 125                 | 545             | *297,700         | *770  | *81,400 | 11,091,392      |
| Greece . . . . .        | 2                    | 6                      | 6                   | 14              | —                | —     | 653     | 75,525          |
| Italy . . . . .         | 16                   | 70                     | —                   | 86              | 41,218           | 676   | 16,036  | 1,836,248       |
| Netherlands . . . . .   | 17                   | 68                     | 20                  | 105             | —                | 470   | 9,346   | 1,196,049       |
| Portugal . . . . .      | 1                    | 26                     | 12                  | 39              | 4,255            | 180   | 3,393   | 247,853         |
| Russia . . . . .        | 29                   | 194                    | —                   | 223             | 31,080           | 543   | 29,043  | 8,539,431       |
| Spain . . . . .         | 10                   | 71                     | 8                   | 89              | 23,267           | 922   | 15,649  | 1,039,000       |
| Sweden and Norway . . . | 18                   | 58                     | 180                 | 266             | 8,268            | 567   | —       | 424,166         |
| Turkey . . . . .        | 38                   | 45                     | —                   | 78              | —                | —     | 34,000  | 8,000,000       |
| United States . . . . . | 24                   | 70                     | 22                  | 116             | —                | 1,593 | 8,287   | 2,848,520       |

NAVIGATION, History of. In its widest sense, this subject is divisible into three sections—the history of the progressive improvement in the construction of ships, the history of the growth of naval powers, and the history of the gradual

\* The horse-power and guns of the armored steamers only are given. The number of men includes the Royal Naval Reserve.

spread and increase of the science of navigation. Although these three sections are to some extent interwoven, the present article will be limited to a consideration of the last, the first two being sufficiently described under SHIP-BUILDING, and NAVIGATION.

The first use of ships, as distinguished from boats, appears to have been by the early Egyptians, who are believed to have reached the western coast of India, besides navigating the Mediterranean. Little, however, is known of their powers on the waves; and, whatever it may have been, they were soon eclipsed by the citizens of Tyre, who, to make amends for the unproductiveness of their strip of territory, laid the seas under tribute, and made their city the great emporium of Eastern and European trade. They spread their merchant fleets throughout the Mediterranean, navigated Solomon's squadrons to the Persian Gulf and Indian Ocean, and planted colonies everywhere. Principal among these colonies was Carthage, which soon outshone the parent state in its maritime daring. The Carthaginian fleets passed the Pillars of Hercules, and, with no better guide than the stars, are believed to have spread northward to the British Isles, and southward for some distance along the west coast of Africa. From the 6th to the 4th centuries B.C., the Greek states gradually developed the art of navigation, and at the time of the Peloponnesian war the Athenians appear to have been skilful tacticians, capable of concerted manœuvres. The Greeks, however, were rather warlike than commercial in their nautical affairs. In the 4th c. B.C., Alexander destroyed the Tyrian power, transferring its commerce to Alexandria, which, having an admirable harbor, became the centre of trade for the ancient world, and far surpassed in the magnitude of its marine transactions any city which had yet existed. Rome next wrested from Carthage its naval power, and took its vast trade into the hands of the Italian sailors. After the battle of Actium, Egypt became a Roman province, and Augustus was master of the enormous commerce both of the Roman and the Alexandrian merchants. During all this period, the size of the vessels had been continually increasing, but probably the form was that of the galley, still common in the Mediterranean, though a more clumsy craft than now. Sails were known, and some knowledge was evinced even of beating up against a foul wind; but oars were the great motive-power; speed was not thought of, a voyage from the Levant to Italy being the work of a season; and so little confidence had the sailors in their skill or in the stability of their ships (still steered by two oars projecting from the stern), that it was customary to haul the vessel up on shore when winter set in. During the empire, no great progress seems to have been made, except in the size of the vessels; but regular fleets were maintained, both in the Mediterranean and on the coast of Gaul, for the protection of commerce. Meanwhile the barbarian nations of the north were advancing in quite a different school. The Saxon, Jutish, and Norse prows began to roar the ocean in every direction; in small vessels, they trusted more to the winds than to oars, and, sailing singly, gradually acquired that hardihood and daring which ultimately rendered them masters of the sea. The Britons were no mean seamen, and when Carausius assumed the purple in their island, he was able, for several years, by his fleets alone, to maintain his independence against all the power of Rome.

The art of navigation became almost extinct in the Mediterranean with the fall of the empire; but the barbarous conquerors soon perceived its value, and revived its practice with the addition of new inventions suggested by their own energy. The islanders of Venice, the Genoese, and the Pisans, were the carriers of that great inland sea. Their merchants traded to the furthest Indies, and their markets became the exchanges for the produce of the world. Vast fleets of merchant galleys from these flourishing republics dared the storm, while their constant rivalries gave occasion for the growth of naval tactics. So rich a commerce tempted piracy, and the Moorish corsairs penetrated everywhere on both sides of the straits of Gibraltar in quest of prey; evincing not less skill and nautical audacity than savage fury and inhuman cruelty. But the Atlantic powers, taunt in stormy seas, were rearing a naval might that should outrival all other pretenders. The Norsemen extended their voyages to Iceland, Greenland, and Newfoundland, while they first ravaged and then colonised the coasts of Britain, France, and Sicily. The sea had no terrors for these hardy rovers; their exploits are imperishably recorded in the

Icelandic Sagas, and in the numerous islands and promontories to which they have given names.

Early in the 15th c., the introduction of the mariner's compass rendered the sea-man independent of sun and stars—an incalculable gain, as was soon shewn in the ocean-voyages of Columbus, Cabot, and others. In 1492, Columbus rendered navigation more secure by the discovery of the variation of the compass. Between that and 1514, the "cross-staff" began to be used; a rude instrument for ascertaining the angle between the moon and a fixed star, with the consequent longitude. Early in the 16th c., tables of declination and ascension became common. In 1537, Nufiez (Nonius), a Portuguese, invented various methods of computing the rhumb-lines and sailing on the great circle. In 1545, the two first treatises on systematic navigation appeared in Spain, one by Pedro de Medina, the other by Martin Cortes. These works were speedily translated into French, Dutch, English, &c., and for many years served as the text-books of practical navigation. Towards the end of the century, Bourne, in England, and Stevin in Holland, improved the astronomical portion of the art, while the introduction of time-pieces and the Log (q. v.) rendered the computation of distance more easy.

It would be tedious to enumerate the successive improvements by which the science of navigation has been brought to its present high perfection; but as conspicuous points in the history of the art, the following stand out: The invention of Mercator's chart in 1569; the formation by Wright of tables of meridional parts, 1597; Davis's quadrant, about 1600; the application of logarithms to nautical calculations, 1620, by Edmund Gunter; the introduction of middle-latitude sailing in 1623; the measure of a degree on the meridian, by Richard Norwood, in 1631. Hadley's quadrant, a century later, rendered observations easier and more accurate; while Harrison's chronometers (1764), rendered the computation of longitude a matter of comparatively small difficulty. Wright, Boud and Norwood were the authors of scientific navigation, and their science is now made available in practice by means of the "Nautical Almanac," published annually by the British Admiralty. The more important points of the science of navigation are noticed under such heads as DEAD-RECKONING, LATITUDE AND LONGITUDE, GREAT-CIRCLE SAILING, SAILINGS, &c.

**NAVIGATION, Laws as to.** By the law of nature and of nations, the navigation of the open sea is free to all the world. The open sea means all the main seas and oceans beyond three miles from land. The sea within three miles from land is called the territorial sea, and each state has a kind of property in such sea, and has a right to regulate the use thereof. Hence, it was natural that in early times, before the laws of commerce were properly understood, each state should endeavor to exclude foreigners from that part of the sea so as to secure to its own subjects the benefits of the carriage of goods in ships, which has always been an increasing source of wealth. In England, however, as in most countries, the first care seems to have been bestowed on the navy, as the great means of defending the realm against enemies, and trading-ships came to be first subject to statutory regulation only as being in some way ancillary to the interests of the navy. The laws of Oleron were the first code of maritime laws which obtained notice as well as general acceptance in Europe, in the time of Edward I., and the authorship of those laws is claimed by Selden and Blackstone for Edward I., though the point is disputed by the French writers. By a statute of Richard II., in order to augment the navy of England, it was ordained that none of the lieges should ship any merchandise out of the realm except in native ships, though the statute was soon varied and seldom followed. At length, in 1650, an act was passed with a view to stop the gainful trade of the Dutch. It prohibited all ships of foreign nations from trading with any English plantation without a licence from the Council of State. In 1651, the prohibition was extended to the mother-country, and no goods were suffered to be imported into England or any of its dependencies in any other than English bottoms, or in the ships of that European nation of which the merchandise was the genuine growth or manufacture. At the Restoration, these enactments were repeated and continued by the Navigation Act (12 Char. II. c. 18), with the further addition, that the master and three-fourths of the mariners should also be British subjects. The object of this act was to encourage British shipping, and was long believed to be wise and salutary. Adam Smith, however, has the sagacity to see that the act was not favorable to for-

sign commerce or to opulence, and it was only on the ground that defence was more important than opulence, that he said it was "perhaps the wisest of all the commercial regulations of England." In 1826, the statute 4 Geo. IV. c. 41 repealed the Navigation Act, and established a new system of regulations, which were further varied by subsequent statutes, till, under the influence of the free-trade doctrines, new statutes were passed, which reversed the ancient policy. By the law, as now altered, foreign vessels are allowed free commercial intercourse and equality with the ships of this country and its dependencies, except as regards the coasting-trade of the British possessions in Asia, Africa, and America, for the coasting-trade of the United Kingdom is now entirely thrown open to all comers. The advantages of equality and free trade are, however, so far qualified, that in the case of the ships of those nations which do not concede to British ships like privileges, prohibitory restrictions may be imposed by order in council.

As regards those laws of navigation which effect the property and management of ships, a complete code of regulations is contained in the Merchant Shipping Acts, which are 17 and 18 Vict. c. 104, 18 and 19 Vict. c. 91, 25 and 26 Vict. c. 63, 84 and 85 Vict. c. 110, 86 and 87 Vict. c. 85. 1. As to ownership, registration, and transfer of merchant ships. No ship is deemed a British ship unless she belong wholly to natural-born subjects, denizens, naturalised persons, or bodies corporate, having a place of business in the United Kingdom or some British possession. Every British ship, with a few exceptions as to old ships and small vessels, must be registered, otherwise, it is not entitled to the protection of the British flag. The Commissioners of Customs indicate at what port in the United Kingdom ships may be registered by their officers, and when registered, the ship is held to belong to that port. The name of the ship and its owners must be stated; and as regards joint-ownership, a ship is capable only of being subdivided into sixty-four shares, and not more than thirty-two owners shall own one ship. These registered owners are deemed the legal owners, and so long as the register is unchanged, the ship is held still to belong to them. The only way of transferring the property is by a bill of sale under seal; or if a mortgage is made, it must be made in a particular form, and duly registered, and the priority of title as between several mortgagees is regulated by the date of the entry in the register. 2. As regards the laws concerning merchant seamen, there is established in every such seaport a superintendent, whose business it is to afford facilities for engaging seamen, by keeping registers of seamen, and superintending the making and discharging of contracts. No person is allowed to be employed in a foreign-going ship as master, or as first, or second, or only mate, or in a home-trade passenger-ship as master, or first or only mate, unless he has a certificate of competency or a certificate of service, issued by the Board of Trade only to those who are deemed entitled thereto. The master of every ship above 80 tons burthen shall enter into an agreement, of a certain form, with every seaman he carries from the United Kingdom, and in which the names of the seamen, wages, provisions, capacity of service, &c., are set forth. The seamen are not to lose their wages though no freight is earned, or the ship lost. The men are also to have a berth of a certain size, and the ship to be supplied with medicines, log-book, &c. In order to secure general information, every master of a foreign-going ship is bound, within 48 hours after arriving at the final port of destination in the United Kingdom, to report his ship. Unseaworthy or overloaded ships may be surveyed by the Board of Trade and detained. 3. As regards the liability of shipowners for loss or damage, it is provided by statute that no owner of a sea-going ship shall be liable to make good any loss or damage occurring without his actual fault or privity, to goods or things on board, by reason of fire on board the ship; or to any gold, silver, diamonds, watches, jewels, or precious stones on board, by reason of robbery or embezzlement, unless the true nature and value of such articles have been inserted in the bill of lading. And in cases where loss to goods occurs without his actual fault or privity, the owner shall not be liable in damages to an aggregate amount exceeding £8 per ton of the ship's tonnage. In case of loss of life or personal injury caused by mismanagement of the ship, but without the actual fault or privity of the owners, they shall not be liable beyond £15 per ton. In case of accidents, whereby a large number of persons have been killed or injured, and to prevent a multiplicity of actions, the sheriff of the county is to empanel a jury and inquire into the question of liability. If the owners are found liable, then £30 is to

be assessed as the damages for each case of death or personal injury. In case of death, such sum is to be paid to the husband, wife, parent or child of the deceased. If any person consider this is not sufficient damages, then on returning such sum, he may commence an action; but unless he recover double that sum, he must pay costs. See also PILOTS and LIGHT-HOUSEES.

NAVIGATORS', or Samoan Islands, a group of nine islands, with some islets, in the Pacific Ocean, lying north of the Friendly Islands, in lat.  $18^{\circ} 30'$ — $14^{\circ} 30'$  s. and long.  $168^{\circ}$ — $178^{\circ}$  w. The four principal islands of the group are Manna, Tutuila, Upolu, and Savaii. Of these, Savaii, 40 miles in length by 20 miles broad, and having a population of 20,000, is the largest. Area of the group estimated at 2650 square miles; population about 56,000. With the exception of one (Rose Island), the N. I. are all of volcanic origin. For the most part they are lofty, and broken and rugged in appearance, rising in some cases to upwards of 2500 feet in height, and covered with the richest vegetation. The soil, formed chiefly by the decomposition of volcanic rock, is rich, and the climate is moist. The forests, which include the bread-fruit, the cocoa-nut, banana and palm-trees, are remarkably thick. The orange, lemon, tappa, (from which a kind of sago is made), coffee, sweet potatoes, pine-apples, yams, nutmeg, wild sugar-cane, and many other important plants, grow luxuriantly. Until recently, when swine, horned cattle, and horses were introduced, there were no traces among these islands of any native mammalia except a species of bat. The natives are well formed (especially the males), ingenuous, and affectionate. The women, who superintend the indoor work and manufacture mats, are held in high respect. There are English and American mission stations on the islands, as well as several Roman Catholic establishments, and many of the natives have embraced Christianity. The government is in the hands of the hereditary chiefs. In 1875, Col. Steinberger, from the United States, established himself as (virtually) dictator of the N. I., but was removed by the commander of a British war-vessel in 1876. Trade is carried on with Sydney.

NAVY, British. Owing to the insular position of Great Britain, her navy has long been considered a matter of vital importance, and is the service in which every inhabitant takes a peculiar pride. In considering the history of the British navy, it is convenient to divide the subject into *materiel* and *personnel*. The latter had no distinct organisation till the time of Henry VIII.; but of the former, we recognise in the earliest times the germ of subsequent glories. Carausius, a Roman general who had thrown off his dependence on the empire, maintained himself in England for several years by his fleet, with which he prevented the imperial forces from reaching the island. The Saxons brought maritime prowess with them to the British shores, but appear soon to have lost it amid the rich provinces in which they settled. Some organisation for the defence of the coast was, however, maintained, and Alfred the Great availed himself of it to repulse the Danes; he at the same time raised the efficiency of his navy by increasing the size of his galleys, some being built which were capable of being rowed by thirty pair of oars. Under his successors, the number of vessels increased, and both Edward and Athelstan fought many naval battles with the Danes. Edgar aspired to be lord of all the northern seas, and had from three to five thousand galleys, divided into three fleets on the western, southern, and eastern coasts respectively; but the size of most of these ships was very insignificant, and the greater part were probably mere row-boats. Ethelred II. formed a sort of naval militia, enacting that every owner of 810 hydes of land should build and furnish one vessel for the service of his country.

William the Conqueror established the Cinque Ports, with important privileges, in return for which they were bound to have at the service of the crown for 15 days in any emergency, 52 ships carrying 24 men each. Richard I. took 100 large ships and 50 galleys to Palestine. John claimed the sovereignty of the seas, and required all foreigners to strike to the English flag; a pretension which has been the cause of some bloody battles, but which England proudly upheld in all dangers. (This honor was formally yielded by the Dutch in 1673, and the French in 1704; and, although not now exacted in its fulness, the remembrance of the right survives in requiring foreign vessels to salute first). In the same king's reign, a great naval engagement with the French took place (1293) in mid-channel, when 250 French vessels were captured. The Edwards and the Henries maintained the glory of the

British flag; Edward III., in person, with the Black Prince, at the battle of Sluys, in 1340, defeated a greatly superior French fleet, with 40,000 men on board. Henry V. had "grete shippes, currakes, barges, and ballyngers;" and at one time collected vessels enough to transport 25,000 men into Normandy. Henry VII. was the first monarch who maintained a fleet during peace; he built the *Great Harry*, which was the earliest war-vessel of any size, and which was burned at Woolwich in 1563.

To Henry VIII., however, belongs the honor of having laid the foundation of the British navy as a distinct service. Besides building several large vessels, of which the *Henry Grace de Dieu*, of 72 guns, 700 men, and probably about 1000 tons, was the most considerable, he constituted a permanent personnel, defining the pay of admirals, vice-admirals, captains, and seamen. He also established royal dockyards at Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth; and for the government of the whole service, instituted an Admiralty and Navy Board, the latter being the forerunner of the present Trinity Board. When this king died, he left 50 ships of various sizes, manned by about 8000 hands.

Under Edward VI., the navy fell off, but was sufficiently important in the succeeding reign for the English admiral to exact the salute to his flag from Philip II. with a larger Spanish fleet, when the latter was on his way to espouse Queen Mary. Elizabeth had the struggle with the Spanish Armada to try her navy, and left 42 ships, of 17,000 tons in all, and 8846 men—15 of her ships being upwards of 600 tons. From this period the tonnage of the ships steadily increased. Under James I. and Charles I., Mr Phineas Pett, M.A., the first scientific naval architect, remodelled the navy, abolishing the lofty forecastles and poops, which had made earlier ships resemble Chinese junks. In 1610, he laid down the *Prince-Royal*, a two-decker, carrying 64 large guns; and in 1637, from Woolwich, he launched the celebrated *Sovereign of the Seas*, the first three-decker, and certainly the largest ship hitherto constructed on modern principles. She was 232 feet in length, of 1687 tons, and carried at first 130 pieces of cannon; but being found unwieldy, was cut down, and then proved an excellent ship. She was burned in 1646.

Prince Rupert's devotion to the crown was bad for the navy, for he carried off 25 large ships; and Cromwell, on acceding to power, had but 14 two-deckers. His energy, however, soon wrought a change, and in five years he had 150 ships, of which a third were of the line; his crews amounted to 20,000 men. During the Protectorate, Peter Pett, son of Phineas, built the *Constant Warwick*, the earliest British frigate, from a French design and pattern. Cromwell first laid navy estimates before parliament, and obtained £400,000 a year for the service. The Duke of York, afterwards James II., assisted by the indefatigable Mr. Samuel Pepys, did much for the navy, establishing the system of Admiralty government much on its present footing. In his time, Sir Anthony Deane improved the model of ships of war, again after a French design. James left, in 1688, 108 ships of the line, and 65 other vessels; the total tonnage of the navy, 101,892 tons; the armament, 6930 guns; and the personnel, 42,000 men. William III. sedulously augmented the force, foreseeing its importance to his adopted country. When he died, there were 273 ships of 159,020 tons, and the annual charge for the navy had risen to £1,056,915. George II. paid much attention to his fleets, and greatly augmented the size of the ships; he left, in 1760, 412 ships of 321,104 tons. By 1782, the navy had risen to 617 sail of 500,000 tons; and by 1802 to 700 sail, of which 148 were of the line. In 1818, there were 1000 ships (256 of the line), measuring about 900,000 tons, and carrying 146,000 seamen and marines, at an annual charge of about £18,000,000. Since the peace in 1815, the number of vessels has been greatly diminished, although their power has vastly increased.

The progressive augmentation of size in vessels may be judged from the increase in first-rates. In 1677, the largest vessel was from 1500 to 1600 tons; by 1720, 1800 had been reached; by 1745, 2000 tons; 1780, 2200 tons; 1795, 2350 tons; 1800, 2500 tons; 1808, 2616 tons; 1858, 4000 tons. From 1841, a gradual substitution of steam for sailing vessels began, which was not completed, however, till 1869. Since 1860, another reconstruction has taken effect, armor-plated frigates, impervious to ordinary shot, armed either as broadside vessels or in turrets, being substituted for timber vessels. At the same time three and two deckers have ceased to be employed, enormous frigates and turret-ships replacing them of a tonnage far exceeding the

largest three-deckers of former times; they mount fewer guns, but those they carry are of stupendous calibre, and of rifled bore. The *Northumberland*, one of the largest frigates of this new class, is of 6621 tons, 1350 horse-power, and 88 large guns, while the *Devastation* carries 4 great guns in turrets of the most massive armor. The *Inflexible* (turret-ship) carries four 81-ton guns, and is supposed to be the most powerful war-ship in the world.

On the 1st of April 1874, the effective vessels of the navy were as follows: 88 armor-plated frigates (8 building); 14 turret vessels (3 building); 3 armor-plated corvettes, and two sloops; 8 floating batteries; 8 armored gunboats; 37 ships of the line (10 without steam); 48 frigates (7 without steam); 42 corvettes, (7 building, 5 without steam); 46 sloops (8 building and 4 without steam); 48 gun-vessels; 69 smaller steamers (10 building); 71 gunboats; with 17 transports, 6 yachts, and 5 schooners; giving a total of 424 vessels. At the end of 1877 there were in all 249 ships in commission, exclusive of Indian troop-ships. The personnel of the navy amounted in 1877 to 60,000 men, including 14,000 marines, but excluding artificers and laborers in dockyards; the armament being about 5000 guns, mostly of heavy calibre. The annual charge for 1874-5 was estimated at £10,179,485, which may be thus broadly subdivided (in 1878-9 it was £11,063,091):

|   |             |
|---|-------------|
| Wages, Victuals and Clothing of Officers and Men..... | £3,667,021  |
| Admiralty Office.....                                 | 178,066     |
| Coast-Guard and Naval Reserve.....                    | 168,311     |
| Scientific Branch (Surveying, Hydrography, &c.).....  | 111,170     |
| Dockyards and Victualling Yards.....                  | 1,263,211   |
| Stores for Building and Repairing Ships.....          | 1,851,068   |
| Miscellaneous Services.....                           | 964,117     |
| Half-pay and Pensions.....                            | 1,816,926   |
| Conveyance of Troops.....                             | 116,600     |
|   | <hr/>       |
|   | £10,179,485 |

Information on the various points of detail connected with the navy, will be found under the respective heads, as **ADMIRAL**, **CAPTAIN**, **HALF-PAY**, **SHIP-BUILDING**, **SIGNALS**, &c.

NA'XOS, the largest, most beautiful, and most fertile of the Cyclades, is situated in the *Aegean*, midway between the coasts of Greece and Asia Minor. Extreme length, about 20 miles; breadth, 15 miles. Pop. about 12,000. The shores are steep, and the island is traversed by a ridge of mountains, which rise in the highest summit, Dia, upwards of 3000 feet. The plains and valleys are well watered; the principal products and articles of export are wine, corn, oil, cotton, fruits and emery. The wine of N. (the best variety of which is still called in the islands of the *Aegean*, *Bacchus-wine*) was famous in ancient as it is in modern times, and on this account the island was celebrated in the legends of Dionysius, and especially in those relating to Ariadne. Among its antiquities are a curious Hellenic tower, and an unfinished colossal figure, 34 feet long, still lying in an ancient marble quarry in the north of the island, and always called by the natives a figure of Apollo. It was ravaged by the Persians, 490 B.C., and after the conquest of Constantinople by the Latins, became the seat of a dukedom, founded by the Venetians. It now forms a portion of the kingdom of Greece (q. v.). Naxos, the capital, with a population of about 5000, is situated on the north-west coast, contains 16 Greek, and 4 Catholic churches, and 3 convents, and is the seat of a Greek and a Latin bishop.

NAZARE'NE (Gr. *Nazarenos* and *Nazaraios*, an "inhabitant of Nazareth") was used by the Jews as one of the designations of our Lord, and afterwards became a common appellation of the early Christians in Judea. Although, originally, it is but a local appellation, there can be no doubt that as Nazareth was but a second-rate city of the despised province of Galilee, it was eventually applied to our Lord and his followers as a name of contempt (John xviii. 5, 7; Acts xxiv. 5).—For the Judaizing sect called Nazarenes, see EBIONITES.

NA'ZARETH, a small town or village of Palestine, anciently in the district of Galilee, and in the territory of the tribe of Zebulon, 21 miles south-east of Acre. It lies in a hilly tract of country, and is built partly on the sides of some rocky ridges,

partly in some or the ravines by which they are scamed. It is celebrated as the scene of the Annunciation, and the place where the Saviour spent the greater part of his life in obscure labor. Pop., according to Dr Robinson, 8120, of whom 1040 are Greeks, 520 Greek Catholics, 480 Latins, 400 Maronites, and 680 Mohammedans. Porter thinks 4000 a moderate estimate. In the earliest ages of Christianity, N. was quite overlooked by the church. It did not contain a single Christian resident before the time of Constantine, and the first Christian pilgrimage to it took place in the 6th century. The principal building is the Latin convent, reared, according to pious tradition, on the spot where the angel announced to the Virgin the birth of her Saviour-son; but the Greeks have also erected, in another part of N., a church on the scene of the Annunciation. Besides these rival edifices, the traveller is shewn a Latin chapel, affirmed to be built over the "workshop of Joseph;" also the chapel of "The Table of Christ" (*Mensa Christi*), a vaulted chamber, containing the veritable table at which our Lord and his disciples used to eat; the synagogue, out of which he was thrust by his townsmen; and "the Mount of Precipitation," down which he narrowly escaped being cast headlong. The women of the village have been long famous for their beauty.

**NA'ZARITES** (from Heb. *nazar*, to separate) denoted among the Jews those persons, male or female, who had consecrated themselves to God by certain acts of abstinence, which marked them off or "separated" them from the rest of the community. In particular they were prohibited from using wine or strong drink of any kind, grapes, whether moist or dry, or from shaving their heads. The law in regard to N. is laid down in the Book of Numbers (vi. 1-21). The only examples of the class recorded in Scripture are Samson, Samuel, and John the Baptist, who were devoted from birth to that condition, though the law appears to contemplate temporary and voluntary, rather than perpetual Nazariteship.

**NEAGH**, Longh, the largest lake of the British Islands, is situated in the province of Ulster, Ireland, and is surrounded by the counties of Armagh, Tyrone, Londonderry, Antrim, and Down. It is 18 miles (English) in length, and 11 miles in breadth, contains 98,255 acres, is 120 feet in greatest depth, and is 48 feet above sea-level at low water. It receives the waters of numerous streams, of which the principal are the Upper Bann, the Blackwater, the Moyola, and the Main; and its surplus waters are carried off northward to the North Channel by the Lower Bann. Communication by means of canals subsists between the Lough and Belfast, Newry, and the Tyrone coal-field. In some portions of the Lough the waters shew remarkable petrifying qualities, and petrified wood found in its waters is manufactured into houses. The southern shores of the Lough are low and marshy, and dreary in appearance. It is well stocked with fish, and its shores are frequented by the swan, heron, bittern, teal, and other water-fowl.

**NEAL**, Daniel, a dissenting minister and author, was born in London, December 14, 1678. He was educated first at Merchant Taylor's School, and afterwards at Utrecht and Leyden, in Holland, and in 1706 succeeded Dr Singleton as pastor of a congregation in his native city. N.'s first work was a "History of New England" (1720), which met with a very favorable reception in America. Two years afterwards, he published a tract entitled, "A Narrative of the Method and Success of Inoculating the Small-pox in New England by Mr Benjamin Colman," which excited considerable attention; but the production on which his reputation rests is his "History of the Puritans" (4 vols. 1732-1738), a work of great labor, and invaluable as a collection of facts and characteristics both to churchmen and dissenters, though, of course, written in the interest of the latter. It involved its author in several controversies, which failing health rendered it impossible for him to prosecute. N. died at Bath, April 4, 1748.

**NEAL**, John, an American author and poet, of Scottish descent, was born at Falmouth, now Portland, Maine, August 25, 1793. His parents belonged to the Society of Friends, of which he was a member until disowned, at the age of 25, because he failed to live up to the rule of "living peaceably with all men." With the scanty education of a New-England common school, he became a shop-boy at the age of 12; but learned and then taught penmanship and drawing. At the age of 21, he entered a haberdashery trade, first in Boston, and then in New York; and a year after, became a wholesale jobber in this business at Baltimore, in partnership with

another American literary and pulpit celebrity, John Pierpont. They failed in 1816, and N. turned his attention to the study of law. With the energy which acquired for him the *sobriquet* of "Jehu O'Cataract," affixed to his poem, "The Battle of Niagara," he went through the usual seven years' law-course in one, besides studying several languages, and writing for a subsistence. In 1817, he published "Keep Cool," a novel; the next year a volume of poems; in 1819, "Otho," a five-act tragedy; and in 1828, four novels—"Seventy-six," "Logan," "Randolph," and "Errata." These impetuous works were each written in from twenty-seven to thirty-nine days. In 1824, he came to England, where he became a contributor to "Blackwood's," and other magazines and reviews, and enjoyed the friendship and hospitality of Jeremy Bentham. On his return to America, he settled in his native town, practised law, wrote, edited newspapers, gave lectures, and occupied his leisure hours in teaching boxing, fencing and gymnastics. Among his numerous works are "Brother Jonathan," "Rachel Dyer," "Bentham's Morals and Legislation," "Authorship," "Down-easters," &c. After a long silence, devoted to professional business, he published, in 1854, "One Word More;" and in 1859, "True Womanhood." The latter work, though a novel, embodies the more serious religious convictions of his later years. In 1870, appeared his "Wandering Recollections of a Somewhat Busy Life." N.'s voluminous writings, with all their glaring faults of haste and inexperience, are full of genius, fire, and nationality.

NEANDER, Johann August Wilhelm, by far the greatest of ecclesiastical historians, was born at Göttingen, 16th January 1789, of Jewish parentage. His uncle prior to baptism was David Mendel. By the mother's side, he was related to the eminent philosopher and philanthropist Mendelsohn (q. v.). He received his early education at the Johanneum, in Hamburg, and had for companions Varnhagen von Ense, Chamisso, the poet, Wilhelm Neumann, Noodt, and Sieveking. Already the abstract, lofty, and pure genius of N. was beginning to shew itself. Plato and Plutarch were his favorite classics as a boy; and he was profoundly stirred by Schleiermacher's famous "Discourses on Religion" (1799). Finally, in 1806, he publicly renounced Judaism, and was baptized, adopting, in allusion to the religious change which he had experienced, the name of N. (Gr. *neos*, new; *aner*, a man), and taking his Christian names from several of his friends. His sisters and brothers, and later his mother also, followed his example. He now proceeded to Halle, where he studied theology with wonderful ardor and success under Schleiermacher, and concluded his academic course at his native town of Göttingen, where Plauck was then in the zenith of his reputation as a church historian. In 1811, he took up his residence at Heidelberg University as a privat-doctor; in 1812, he was appointed there extraordinary professor of theology; and in the following year, was called to the newly established university of Berlin as Professor of Church History. Here he labored till his death, July 14, 1850. N. enjoyed immense celebrity as a lecturer. Students flocked to him not only from all parts of Germany, but from the most distant Protestant countries. Many Roman Catholics, even, were among his auditors, and it is said that there is hardly a great preacher in Germany who is not more or less penetrated with his ideas. His character, religiously considered, is of no noble a Christian type that it calls for special notice. Ardently and profoundly devout, sympathetic, glad-hearted, profusely benevolent, and without a shadow of selfishness resting on his soul, he inspired universal reverence, and was himself, by the mild and attractive sanctity of his life, a more powerful argument on behalf of Christianity than even his writings themselves. Perhaps no professor was ever so much loved by his students as Neander. He used to give the poorer ones tickets to his lectures, and to supply them with clothes and money. The greater portion of what he made by his books, he bestowed upon missionary, Bible, and other societies, and upon hospitals. As a Christian scholar and thinker, he ranks among the first names in modern times, and is believed to have contributed more than any other single individual to the overthrow, on the one side, of that anti-historical Rationalism, and on the other of that dead Lutheran formalism, from both of which the religious life of Germany had so long suffered. To the delineation of the development of historical Christianity, he brings one of the broadest, one of the most sagacious (in regard to religious matters), one of the most impartial yet generous and sympathetic intellects. His conception of church history is the record and portraiture of all forms of Christian thought and life, and the

skill with which, by means of his sympathy with all of these, and his extraordinary erudition, he elicits, in his "Kirchengeschichte," the varied phenomena of a strictly Christian nature, have placed him far above any of his predecessors. N.'s works, in the order of time, are: "Ueber den Kaiser Julianus und sein Zeitalter" (Leip. 1812); "Der Heil. Bernhard und sein Zeitalter" (Berl. 1818); "Genetische Entwicklung der vornehmsten Gnostischen Systeme" (Berl. 1818); "Der Heil. Chrysostomus und die Kirche, besondere des Orients, in dessen Zeitalter" (2 vols. Berl. 1821—1822; 3d ed. 1849); "Denkwürdigkeiten aus der Geschichte des Christenthums und des Christlichen Lebens" (3 vols. Berl. 1822; 3d ed. 1845—1846); "Antiquitates, G ist des Tertullianus und Einleitung in dessen Schriften" (Berl. 1826); "Allgemeine Geschichte der Christlichen Religion und Kirche" (6 vols. Hamb. 1825—1852); "Geschichte der Pflanzung und Leitung der Kirche durch die Apostel" (2 vols. Hamb. 1832—1833; 4th ed. 1847); "Das Leben Jesu Christi in seinem geschichtlichen Zusammenhänge," written as a reply to Strauss's work (Hamb. 1837; 5th ed. 1853); "Wissenschaftliche Abhandlungen," published by Jacobi (Berl. 1855); "Geschichte der Christlichen Dogmen," also published by Jacobi (1856). The majority of these works, including the most important, have been translated into English, and form more than a dozen volumes of Bohn's "Standard Library."

**NEAP-TIDES.** See **TIDES.**

NEA'RCHUS, the commander of the fleet of Alexander the Great in his Indian expedition, 327—326 B.C., was the son of one Adratinus, and was born in Crete, but settled in Aegripolis. In 329 B.C., he joined Alexander in Bactria with a body of Greek mercenaries, and when the latter ordered a fleet to be built on the Hydnopæs, N. received the command of it. He conducted it from the mouth of the Indus to the Persian Gulf, in spite of great obstacles, resulting partly from the weather and partly from the mutinous disposition of his crew. N. left the Indus on the 21st of September 325, and arrived at Susa, in Persia, in February 324, shortly after Alexander himself, who had marched overland. Fragments of his own narrative of his voyage have been preserved in the "India" of Arrian.—See Dr Vincent's "Commerce and Navigation of the Ancients in the Indian Seas" (vol. i. pp. 68—77, Lond. 1837), and Geier's "Alexandri Magni Historiarum Scriptores" (pp. 108—150).

NEATH, a parliamentary and municipal borough and river-port of the county of Glamorgan, South Wales, on a navigable river of the same name, seven miles south-east of Swansea. It is built on the site of the Roman station *Nidum*, and it contains the remains of an ancient castle, burned in 1281. In the immediate vicinity are the imposing ruins of Neath Abbey, described by Leland as "the fairest abbey in all Wales," but now sadly decayed and begrimed by the smoke and coal-dust of the public works of the district. There are at N. several extensive copper and tin works. Copper, spelter, iron and tin plates, and fine bricks are extensively exported, stones are quarried, and coal and cinnabar are raised. The trade of the port has largely increased within late years. Pop. (1871) 10,060.

NEB-NEB; or Nib-Nib, the dried pods of *Acacia Nilotica*, one of the species of *Acacia* (q. v.) which yield gum-arabic, and a native of Africa. These pods are much used in Egypt for tanning, and have been imported into Britain.

NEBRASKA, one of the United States of America, lying in lat. 40°—43° N., and long. 96°—104° W.; bounded on the w. by Wyoming, and n. by Dakota, being partly separated from the latter by the Missouri River, and its branch the Niobrara; e. by Iowa and Missouri, from which it is separated by the Missouri River; s. by Kansas and Colorado. This state is about 425 miles from east to west, and from 138 to 208 from north to south, and has an area estimated at 75,995 square miles. Originally, when this state was a territory it extended from the Missouri River to the Rocky Mountains, and from lat. 40° to the boundary of what was, at the time, British America. The chief towns are Omaha City, the starting-point of the Union Pacific Railway, Nebraska City, and Lincoln, the capital. N. is a vast plain rising gradually toward the Rocky Mountains, with immense prairies, the haunts of vast herds of buffalo, and with fertile and well-timbered river-bottoms. The chief rivers are the Missouri on its eastern, and the Niobrara, partly on the northern boundary, the Platte or Nebraska, and the Republican Fork of the Kansas, and their branches. The Platte Valley, running through the whole centre of the territory, is broad and

fertile. There are quarries of sandstone, a soft limestone which hardens on exposure, and thin beds of coal. In the mountainous western region are mines of gold, silver, copper, and cinnabar. Between the fertile lands of the eastern and central portion and the mountains is a great desert valley of 30 by 90 miles, 800 feet deep, full of rocky pinnacles, and rich in fossil remains. The climate is dry and sub-tropical, with an abundance of clear sunny days. The country produces wheat, maize, hemp, tobacco, and fruits in abundance, while the rolling prairies afford unequalled pasture. The Omahas, Pawnees, Otoes, Sioux, and other wild tribes hunt over the unoccupied territories, but the immigration is progressing rapidly. Erected as a territory in 1854 it had, in 1860, a population, exclusive of Indians, of 28,836; and in 1870, with the same exclusion, it was 122,117. N. became a state in 1867. See "Nebraska," by Edwin A. Curley (Lond. 1875).

**NEBRASKA.** or **Platte**, a river of Nebraska, one of the United States of America, rises in the Rocky Mountains, lat.  $42^{\circ} 30' N.$ , long.  $109^{\circ} W.$ , and flowing east by 600 miles through the entire territory, watering its great valley, falls into the Missouri.

**NEBUCHADNE'ZZAR.** See **BABYLON**.

**NE'BULÆ**, a name given to indistinct patches of light in the heavens, supposed to proceed from aggregations of rarely distributed matter belonging to distant worlds in the course of formation. By the gradual improvement of telescopes in power and distinctness, these nebulae have, one after another, become resolved into clusters of distinct stars, and it is now generally supposed that such a resolution of all nebulae which have been observed is only limited by the power of the telescope. It is probable that the group of stars with which our system is immediately surrounded, and which forms to our eyes the galaxy which studded the firmament, would, if looked upon from the immeasurable distances at which these so-called nebulae are situated, itself assume the appearance of such a nebula; and that in the intervals there exist spaces as void of starry worlds as these are comparatively full of them. See **STARS**. Some nebulae are of a round form, presenting a gradual condensation toward the centre; others consist of one star surrounded by a nebulous haze; while a third class present just the same appearance as would be exhibited by the solar system if seen from a point immensely distant. These and other phenomena suggested to Laplace the idea, afterwards developed into a theory, and known as the *nebulæ hypothesis*, that these nebulae were systems in process of formation; the first stage presenting an agglomeration of nebulous matter of uniform density, which, in the second stage, showed a tendency to gradual condensation toward the centre; and, finally, the nebulous matter round the now-formed centre of the system, separated itself into distinct portions, each portion becoming condensed into a planet. The same opinion regarding the formation of planets from nebulae was put forward by Sir William Herschel in 1811; but the subsequent discoveries made by Lord Rosse were supposed to expose a fallacy in this theory. That wonderful instrument, the spectroscope, has, however, recently reinstated the nebular theory, by shewing that among these appearances there are real nebulae devoid of solid or liquid matter, and consisting of masses of glowing gas—apparently nitrogen and hydrogen.

**NE'BULY**, one of the partition lines in Heraldry, which runs out and in, in a form supposed to represent the uneven edges of clouds.

**NECESSITY**. This word occurs in connection with two different philosophical subjects, namely, the freedom of the will (see **FREE-WILL**), and the nature of our belief in fundamental truths, such as the axioms of mathematics. It is alleged by some philosophers, that the truths held by us as most certain are the result of experience, and that the degree of certainty is but a measure of the universality of the experience. Others contend that such first principles as the axioms of mathematics are not only true, but *necessarily* true. Such necessity, it is argued, cannot come from mere experience, and therefore implies an innate or intuitive source. Hence the theory of necessary truth is only another name for the theory of instinctive or intuitive truth.

Necessity is a word too vague in its signification to serve as a leading term in philosophy. There are several meanings attaching to it, which should be clearly set forth before entering on the discussion of such questions as those above mentioned.

1. Necessity, in the first place, means that one fact or statement is implied in another. Thus, if we say that all the apostles were Jews, it follows necessarily that Peter was a Jew; this is not a new fact, but merely a re-assertion of a portion of the same fact. We are not at liberty to affirm a thing in one form, and then deny the same thing when expressed in a different form. If we say this room is hot, it is repeating the assertion in another way, to say that it is not cold. These truths follow by necessary inference. Hence the general axiom of the syllogism, that what is true of a whole class must be true of each individual, is a necessary truth in this sense. In affirming such a truth, we merely declare that we shall be consistent, and that when we have affirmed a proposition in company with other propositions, we are prepared to affirm it when taken apart from the others. This kind of necessity is sometimes called Logical necessity, and sometimes Mathematical necessity. We might call it Deductive necessity, or necessity by Implication.

2. A second meaning is Inductive certainty; or the certainty that arises from a well-grounded experience. That lead will sink in water; that animals need food and air in order to live; that warmth promotes vegetation; are truths that we call necessary, in the sense of being so certain that we may always count upon them. We presume with the highest confidence, that an unsupported body will fall to the ground, not because the fact of falling is implied in the fact of matter, but because nature has uniformly conjoined the two facts. We can speak even of moral necessity; by which we mean only uniform sequence and consequent certainty. When we declare that children, whose education has been neglected, must fall into evil courses, we declare what experience has shewn us will happen in relation to the human mind.

3. When necessity means neither deductive implication, nor inductive certainty, it refers us to a peculiar test supposed to apply to the truths in dispute—namely, the inconceivability of their opposite. It is said that, not only can we not believe in the opposite of the axiom, that “the sum of equals are equal,” but we cannot even conceive, imagine, or picture to ourselves the opposite of it. This impossibility of conceiving the contradiction of any statement, is regarded by many as a peculiarly cogent circumstance in its favor. It distinguishes the axiomatic first principles from the truths of inductive science, these having, it is said, an inferior order of certainty. To this it may be replied, however, that men’s power of conceiving is so much affected by their education and habits, that many things, whose opposites were at one time inconceivable, have since been found to be false. For example, the notion that men could live at the antipodes was once reckoned inconceivable, and we now know it to be a fact. An unvarying association will often produce a disability to conceive anything different.

In commencing a discussion as to the necessary character of any truth, the disputants should agree beforehand which of the three meanings they intend. In the controversy on the Mathematical axioms, maintained between Dr Whewell on the one hand, and Sir John Herschel and Mr J. S. Mill on the other, the third meaning is more particularly involved. The doctrine of Inconceivability, as the test of truth, has been put forward by Mr Herbert Spencer, under the title of the Universal Postulate (“Principles of Psychology,” Part I.).

NE’CHÉS, a river of Texas, U. S., rises in the central eastern portion of the state, and flows south by east, 200 miles, into Sabine Bay, where its waters, with those of the Sabine River, find their way, by Sabine Pass, into the Gulf of Mexico.

NECKAR, one of the largest tributaries of the Rhine, and the principal river of Württemberg, rises near to the source of the Danube, on the eastern declivity of the Black Forest, and close to the village of Schwenningen. It has a winding course of 240 miles, first north-east to its junction with the Fils, then north to its junction with the Jagst, and finally north-west to Mannheim, where it joins the Rhine. The principal places on its banks are Tübingen, Heilbron, Heidelberg, and Mannheim. Its course, leading first through a deep and narrow dale, leads afterwards through a succession of wide and fertile tracts, enclosed by soft vine-clad hills. The scenery of its banks is, in general, very beautiful, and in many places highly romantic. From Cannstadt, about midway in its course, the N. is navigable; steamers ply regularly to Heidelberg. Good wines are grown on its banks. Chief affluents, on the left, the Enz; on the right, the Fils, Rems, the Kocher and the Jagst.

NECKER, Jacques, a famous financier and minister of France, was born 30th September 1732, at Geneva, where his father, a native of Brandenburg, but of Anglo-Irish descent, was professor of German law. He became a banker in Paris, and acquired a large fortune during the Seven Years' War. After retiring from business, he became the representative of his native city at the French court, and also acquired a high but not exactly a solid reputation by his publications on political economy and finance, particularly his "Essai sur la Législation et le Commerce de Grains" (Par. 1775). In this essay he appears as the opponent of the wise Turgot's liberal measures in regard to the traffic in grain, and claims for the state the right of fixing its price, and if he thinks it necessary, of prohibiting its exportation. On the removal of Turgot from office in June 1776, N. was called to assist in financial affairs, and after the brief administration of Clugny, he was made General Director of Finances in June 1777. N. could not conceal his elation. This was his weak point. He had all the vanity, egotism, and love of show that marked his brilliant but superficial daughter. Nevertheless, he succeeded not only in meeting the exigencies of the American war, but in restoring to some degree of order the general financial affairs of the country, though mainly by the perilous expedient of borrowing, which he was enabled to do to an almost unlimited extent, owing to the confidence reposed in his financial dexterity. Some years he borrowed as much as 499 millions of francs. His Protestantism, however, and some retrenchments which he made in the royal household, with his publication on the financial affairs of France ("Compte Rendu," which produced an immense sensation), made him an object of great dislike to the queen and court, and on 12th May 1781 he was suddenly dismissed. He retired to Geneva, where he was visited, from motives of sympathy and respect, by the highest personages in the realm, the Prince of Coulé, the Duke of Orleans and Chartres, the Prince of Beauvau, the Duke of Luxembourg, Maréchal de Richelien, the Archbishop of Paris, &c., but returned to Paris in 1787, from which he was soon banished on account of an attack which he published on the financial management of the reckless and ignorant Calonne. In the financial and political crisis, however, which followed upon the financial administration of Loménie de Brienne, Louis XVI found himself under the necessity of calling N. in November 1788, to the office of Comptroller-General of Finances and Minister of State. N. recommended the calling of the States General, and thereby acquired the greatest popularity. He failed, however, in the difficulties which ensued, having no capacity for political affairs in other than their mere financial aspects. When the court, on the 2d June, 1789, determined upon nullifying the resolution of the third estate, N. hesitated, and the king therefore dismissed him on 11th July, and required him to leave the French dominions immediately. He obeyed, but the disturbances of the 12th, 13th, and 14th of July (on the last of which days the Bastille was taken) were the result of his dismissal, and the king was under the necessity of recalling him. He now allied himself with Mounier and other ministers for the introduction of a constitution like that of Britain, with two chambers or Houses of Parliament; but this caused a great diminution of his popularity, and he was unable to contend in debate with Mirabeau and other great leaders of the National Assembly. On the rejection by the assembly of his scheme of a loan, and the adoption in stead of it of Mirabeau's scheme of assignats, he resigned his office in September 1790, and retired to his estate of Coppet, near Geneva, where he died, 9th April, 1804. Besides the works already mentioned, he published several on political and on religious subjects, particularly a work on the French Revolution (4 vols. Par. 1796), which has been frequently reprinted. His daughter was the celebrated Madame de Staél.

NECK-MOULDING. A moulding at the junction of the capital and shaft of a column. The plain space between the astragal of the shaft and the mouldings of the cap of the Roman Doric order is called the neck.

NE'CROMANCY (Gr. *nekros*, dead, and *manteia*, divination), a mode of divination by the conjuring up of the dead to question them concerning the future. It originated in the East, and in times of the most remote antiquity. It is condemned in the Old Testament; and the story of the witch of Endor affords a remarkable illustration of it, which has not a little perplexed interpreters of Scripture. The eleventh book of Homer's "Odyssey" bears the title of *Nekromantyeia*, and in it the shade of Tiresias is represented as brought up and consulted by Ulysses. In

most parts of Greece, necromancy was practised by priests or consecrated persons in the temples; in Thessaly, it was the profession of a distinct class of persons called Psychagogoi ("Evokers of Spirits"). The practice of it in that country was intimately connected with many horrid rites, in which human blood, half-burned portions of bodies from funeral piles, the immature foetus cut out of the womb, &c. were employed, and sometimes human beings were slain, that their spirits might be consulted ere they finally passed into the lower world. The establishment of Christianity under Constantine caused necromancy to be placed under the ban of the church. There are evident traces of necromancy in some of the older Norse and Teutonic poems. The medieval belief in the evocation of spirits belongs rather to sorcery than to necromancy. See Peucer's "Commentarius de Praecipuis Divinatiorum Generibus" (Zerbst, 1591).

**NECRO'PHILISM.** an unnatural and revolting love or appetite for the dead which has manifested itself in various ways. Consorting or living with the dead has been observed as a characteristic of melancholia. Individuals have inhabited graveyards, preferring the proximity and association of corpses with which they had no tie, to the cheerfulness and comforts of home; and there is recorded one notorious case, in which a gentleman, although on bad terms with his wife while alive, carried her body with him through India, scandalising the natives, and outraging the feelings of all by placing the coffin under his bed. This hideous tendency may enter into certain developments of cannibalism, where the feast is celebrated in memory of a departed friend, rather than in triumph over a slain foe. It is affirmed that there were anthropophagous epidemics in 1496 and 1500; and the history of vampirism connects that delusion with the moral perversion now described. Patients in asylums, especially in continental asylums, are still often encountered who boast of the crime of having devoured the dead, and violated charnel-houses. The most extraordinary exhibition of necrophilism is where individuals, not in fancy but in reality, have exhumed corpses to see them, to kiss them, to carry them away to their own homes, or to mutilate and tear them to pieces. It is worthy of notice that, so far as such cases have been observed in this country, they have been confined to communities living in remote places, of rude and unenlightened character, and cherishing the superstitions of ages and states of society with which they have no other connection, and of which they have almost lost the recollection.—"Annales, Medico-Psychologiques, t. viii." p. 472.

**NECRO'POLIS,** a Greek term, meaning the city of the dead, and applied to the cemeteries in the vicinity of ancient cities. It occurs in classical antiquity only as applied to a suburb of Alexandria, lying to the west of that city, having many shops and gardens and places suitable for the reception of the dead. The corpses were received and embalmed in it. Here Cleopatra, the last of the Ptolemies, applied the asp to her breast, to avoid the ignominy of being led in triumph by Augustus. The site of the necropolis of ancient Alexandria seems to have been where are now the catacombs, consisting of galleries and tombs hollowed out of the soft calcareous stone of which the city is built, and lying at the extremity of the city. The term necropolis is now, however, used in a much more extended sense, and applied to all the cemeteries of the ancient world. These consisted either of tombs, constructed in the shape of houses and temples, and arranged in streets, like a city of the dead; or else of chambers hollowed in the rock, and ornamented with facades, to imitate houses and temples. Such cemeteries are to be distinguished from the columbaria, or subterranean chambers of the Romans, in which their urns were deposited; or the rows of tombs along the Via Appia; or the cemeteries of the Christians, whose bodies were deposited in the ground. The most remarkable necropolises are that of Thebes in Egypt, situated at a place called Gournah, on the left bank of the Nile, capable of holding 3000 persons, and which it is calculated must at least have contained 5000 mummies; those of El-Knb or Eileithya; of Beni-Hassan, or the Speos Arados; and of Madfun or Abydos; of Siwah or the Oasis of Ammon. See OASIS. In Africa, the necropolis of Cyrene is also extensive; and those of Vulci, Cerveto, Tarquinii, and Capua are distinguished for their painted tombs (see TOMB), and the numerous vases and other objects of ancient art which have been exhumed from them. Large necropolises have also been found in Lycia, Sicily, and elsewhere.

Strabo, xviii. p. 795—799; Plutarch, vit Anton; Lefronne, "Journal des Savans," 1823, p. 103; Dennis, "Cities and Cemeteries of Etruria," i. 412, i. 276—288.

NECROSIS (Gr. *nekros*, dead) is a term employed to denote the death or mortification of bone, but often restricted to the cases in which the shaft of a long bone dies, either directly from injury or from violent inflammation, and is enclosed by a layer of new bone; the death of a thin superficial layer, which is not enclosed in a shell of new bone, being usually termed *exfoliation*.

The bones of the lower extremity—the femur and tibia—are those which are most frequently affected by necrosis. The lower jaw is, however, extremely often affected by it, in persons engaged in making lucifer-matches; the disease being set up by the pernicious action of the vapor of phosphorus. The dead bone, known as the *sequestrum*, generally consists of the circumference of the shaft only, and not of the interior, and the inside of the dead portion presents a rough appearance, as if worm-eaten. If the membrane investing the bone (the periosteum) remain healthy, it deposits lymph, which speedily ossifies, forming a shell of healthy bone, which completely invests the dead portion.

The essential point in the treatment is the removal of the *sequestrum*, which is too purely a surgical operation to be described in these pages.

NE'CTAR, the name given by Homer, Herodotus, Pindar, and the Greek poets generally, and by the Romans, to the beverage of the gods, their food being called *Ambrosia*. (q. v.). But Sappho and Alcman make nectar the food of the gods, and ambrosia their drink. Homer describes nectar as resembling red wine, and represents its continual use as causing immortality. By the later poets, nectar and ambrosia are represented as of most delicious odor; and sprinkling with nectar, or anointing with ambrosia, is spoken of as conferring perpetual youth, and they are assumed as the symbols of everything most delightful to the taste.

NE'CTARINE. See PEACH.

NE'CTARY, in Botany, an organ in the flowers of many phanerogamous plants, devoted either to the secretion or the reception of honey. Of the former kind are nectariferous glands, scales, and pores; of the latter, tubes, cavities, &c. But the term was for a long time very vaguely employed by botanists, and seemed to be found convenient for the designation of any part of a flower for which no other name was known. Thus amongst the parts called nectaries by the older botanists, may be found those now called *Dioecia* (q. v.), and that which bears the name of *Corona* (q. v.).

NEEDFIRE (Ger. *nothfeuer*; allied to Sw. *gnida*, to rub; Eng. *knead*), fire obtained by the friction of wood upon wood, or the friction of a rope on a stake of wood, to which a widespread superstition assigns peculiar virtues. With varieties of detail, the practice of raising needfire in cases of calamity, particularly of disease among cattle, has been found to exist among most nations of the Indo-European race. It has been supposed effectual to defeat the sorcery to which the disease is assigned. When the incantation is taking place, all the fires in the neighborhood must be extinguished, and they have all to be rekindled from the sacred spark. In various parts of the Scottish Highlands, the raising of needfire was practised not long ago, and it is perhaps still had recourse to in some very remote localities. The sacrifice of a heifer was thought necessary to insure its efficiency. The ways of obtaining fire from wood have been various; one is by an apparatus which has been called the "fire-churn," a cylinder turning on a pivot, and furnished with spokes, by means of which it is made to revolve very rapidly, and fire is generated by the friction. Fire struck from metal has been supposed not to possess the same virtue, and in some instances the persons who performed the ceremony were required to divest themselves of any metal which might be about them. In its origin, the fire-churn was considered a model of the apparatus by which the fires of heaven were daily rekindled. It is still in daily use in the temples of the Hindoos. The same superstition was doubtless the origin of the story of Prometheus (q. v.). See Grimm's "Deutsche Mythologie;" Supplement to Jamison's "Scottish Dictionary."

NEEDLES are instruments of metal, or other material, for the purpose of carrying the thread in sewing, embroidery, knitting, netting, and other similar operations. They are generally made of metal, but bone, ivory, and wood are also used;

for ordinary needle-work, called *sewing*, they are made of fine steel, and are too well known to need description; for other kinds of work, they are often much larger and differently formed, according to the requirements of the work to be done.

Needle-making is an important branch of industrial art, and it has of late years attained to extraordinary perfection. Small bars of steel, not thicker than a good-sized bristle, can be made perfectly round, pointed at one end with wonderful accuracy, pierced at the other end with an oval hole, the sides of which are so smoothly rounded that there is no friction upon the thread, and the whole of each instrument, not more than an inch in length, beautifully polished, and sold at less than a shilling per hundred, notwithstanding that a large part of the operations required in their manufacture are manual. The first operation, after the wire has been selected, and its thickness accurately gauged, is to cut it into eight-feet lengths; this is done by winding it in a coil of 16 feet circumference, and then cutting this coil into exact halves with powerful cutting shears. The coiling of the wire is so managed, that there are 100 pieces in each half when cut; the bundles of 100 wires are again cut into the necessary lengths for two needles; and so well arranged are the cutting shears, that a man can easily cut enough for 1,000,000 needles in a day of 12 hours. The pieces cut from a coil, although now reduced to the length of two small needles, are nevertheless somewhat curved; they are therefore collected into bundles of about 6000, and placed in two iron rings, which hold them loosely together; they are then slightly softened by firing, and are laid on an iron plate or bench, and are pressed with a small curved bar in two or three positions, by which the operator manages to make them all perfectly straight. They are now taken to the grinder, who sits in front of his grindstone upon a seat which is hollow, and forms an air-shaft open towards the stone; through this a blast of air is forced when the wheel is in motion, which carries away from the grinder every particle of the subtle dust from the needle points and the stone. Before this humane invention, which has rendered the operation quite innocuous, the loss of life in this manufacture was more serious than in any other industrial occupation. The operator, with great tact, holds about 25 of the wires, by means of his thumb, pressed against the inside of his fingers, the wires, which are held straight and applied to the grindstone, being dexterously turned round on the inside of the hand by means of the thumb, until they are ground sharp at one end; they are then reversed, and the other ends are similarly sharpened. They are next taken to the *impressing* machine, which in principle consists of a weight hanging to a block, which is raised by the hand and let fall at pleasure; the wires are placed in succession under this, so that the falling weight strikes each wire exactly in the middle, and thereby flattens it. The hardening of the flattened part by the blow is removed in the annealing oven, and the holes are next punched, two in each flattened portion. These are either done by hand-punches worked by children, who acquire great nicety in the operation, or by a machine on the same principle as the *impressing* machine; this not only punches the two holes, but also forms a small cross-cut between them, which is otherwise made by a file. At this cross-cut the wire is broken in two, and may now be regarded as two rudely-formed needles, each having a flattened and pierced head. A number of these are now threaded (*spitted*) on a thin wire, and are placed in a vice, which holds them firm and straight, so that the workman can file the heads on the top and sides, so as to remove all the burred edge. The next process is *oil tempering*, for which they are made hot, and immersed in sufficient oil to coat them thoroughly; the oil is then burned off, an operation which renders the needles brittle. They are then weighed out into lots of about 500,000 each, and after being shaken so that they lie side by side, they are laid on a square piece of strong canvas, and a quantity of sand and emery-powder being mixed with them, they are corded up very securely into a long roll, from 18 inches to 2 feet in length. A number of these rolls or bundles are placed on a movable wooden slab, in the *scouring machine*, and over them is placed another heavily weighted slab. The action of the machine, of which these slabs form part, is to move them backwards and forwards in opposite directions, the bundles of needles acting as rollers, the pressure upon which works the enclosed needles, sand, &c., together, so that after eight to ten hours, which this operation occupies, instead of the blackened appearance they had when it commenced, they are white and

silvery-looking. They are now removed to an exactly similar machine, where they are polished. Here they are separated from the sand and emery, and are removed to other canvas squares; and when mixed up with a parte of putty-powder and oil, are again corded up, and made to roll backwards and forwards under the weighted wooden slab of the polishing machine for four hours more. The next process is to remove them from the canvas, and agitate them in a vessel with soft-soap and water, to remove the oil and putty-powder, and next to dry them in ash-wood sawdust. They are now highly polished and well tempered, but not all of exactly the same length, nor are the eyes perfect; they are therefore passed to a person who, by nice management of a small gauge, sorts them very quickly into certain lengths (*evening*), and arranges them all in one direction (*heading*). They then pass on to be drilled, an operation requiring great nicely, as the small oval holes have to be so polished all round, as not to cause any friction on the thread in sewing with them; a clever workman will drill and polish the holes of 70,000 needles per week. The needle is now practically finished, but many minor operations are considered necessary to produce high-finish; these we purposely omit, to avoid complicating our description. It is, however, worthy of remark, that this little instrument, which costs so much labor for its formation, has by these operations acquired immense value. The wire of which the ordinary-sized needles are made is so thin, that  $\frac{8}{15}$  pounds go to form 74,000 needles. Of ordinary-sized needles,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  millions weigh 3 cwt., and are worth rather more than £200, although the steel wire of which they were made was only worth £14 at the commencement of the manufacture. English-made needles are the best in the world, and are chiefly made in Redditch and the neighborhood, where, and in other parts of the county of Worcester, this manufacture employs a large number of persons.

**NEEMUCH.** or Nimach, a town of India, in the territory of Gwalior, (q. v.), near the north-western border of Malwa, 390 miles south-west from Delhi, on a slightly-elevated ridge rising from a well-cultivated plain. It is 1476 feet above the sea. The native population of the town is only about 4000; but N. has acquired importance on account of a British cantonment established here in 1817. Prior to the sepoy mutiny of 1857—1858, the officer-quarters comprised about 80 bungalows, beautifully situated among gardens; but all, except a single bungalow, were destroyed in 1857 by the mutineers, who massacred the Europeans, and kept possession of the fort for some time, till it was captured by Brigadier Stuart after a siege of fourteen days. The situation of N. is regarded as one of the most healthy in India; the climate is agreeable, the nights cool even in the hot season, the winter seldom so cold as to make fires requisite, and frost very rare.

**NEEM-TREE.** See *MELIACEAE*.

**NEERWINDEN**, a small village of Belgium, in the north-west corner of the province of Liege, is celebrated in history for the great victory gained by the French under Luxembourg over the English under William III. (29th July 1693); and also for the defeat of the French under Dumouriez by the allies under the Prince of Coburg (18th March 1793).

**NE EXEAT REGNO** is the title of a writ issued by the Court of Chancery to prevent an individual from leaving the kingdom, unless he gives security to abide a decree of that court. The writ was originally resorted to in cases of attempts against the safety of the state, but is now issued in cases where an equitable debt or demand is sought to be substantiated by a bill or proceeding in Chancery. It is only granted where the party usually resides within the jurisdiction. It resembles the process which is known in the common-law courts as arresting and holding to bail, and in Scotland as arresting a person *in meditatione fuge*.

**NEGAPATA'M**, a town of British India, in the presidency of Madras, and district of Tanjore, 124 miles south-south-west from Madras, on a small estuary of one of the many small southern mouths of the Canaver. The manufacture of cotton and silk fabrics was, in former times, extensively carried on here, but has greatly declined in consequence of the cheapness of British goods. A chief branch of industry is the expression of oil from the cocoa-nut and from oil-seeds. There is a considerable trade with Ceylon. The harbor is suited only for small coasting-vessels; but measures are in progress for its improvement. N. is a terminus of the Great

**Southern Railway of India.** It was the capital of the Dutch possessions in India, but was taken by the British in 1781. Pop. (1871) 48,525.

**NEGATIVE**, in Photography, is that kind of photographic picture in which the lights and shadows of the natural object are transposed; the high lights being black, and the deep shadows transparent, or nearly so. Negatives are taken on glass and paper by various processes, and should indicate with extreme delicacy, and in reverse order, the various gradations of light and shade which occur in a landscape or portrait. A negative differs from a positive inasmuch as in the latter case it is required to produce a deposit of pure metallic silver to be viewed by reflected light; while in the latter, density to transmitted light is the chief desideratum; accordingly inorganic reducing and retarding agents are employed in the development of a positive, while those of organic origin are used in the production of a negative. Adopting the collodion process (which has almost completely replaced every other) as a type of the rest, the conditions best adapted for securing a good negative may be briefly indicated, leaving it to the reader to apply the principles involved to any process he may desire to practice.

The possession of a good lens and camera being taken for granted, and favorable conditions of well-directed light being secured, all that is necessary is to establish a proper and harmonious relation between the collodian bath, developer, and time of exposure. A recently-ised collodion will generally be tolerably neutral, in which case, if the developer be at all strong, and the weather warm, the bath should be decidedly acid, or *fogging* will be the result. Should the collodion, however, be red with free iodine, a mere trace of acid in the bath will suffice, while the development may be much prolonged, even in warm weather, without fogging. If the simple fact be borne in mind that the presence of acid, either in the bath collodion or developer, retards the reducing action of the developer, it will suffice to guide the operator in many difficulties. The value of a negative consists in the power it gives of multiplying positive proofs. See **POSITIVE PRINTING**; also **PHOTOGRAPHY**.

**NEGATIVE QUANTITIES** are generally defined as quantities the opposite of "positive" or "numerical" quantities, and form the first and great point of difference between algebra as a separate science, and arithmetic. In the oldest treatises on algebra they are recognized as distinct modifications of quantity, and existing apart from, and independent of positive quantity. In later times, this opinion was vigorously combated by many mathematicians, among whom Vieta occupied a prominent place; but the more eminent analysts retained the old opinion. Newton and Euler distinctly assert the existence of negative quantities as quantities less than zero, and the latter supports his opinion by the well-known illustration of a man who has no property, and is £50 in debt, to whom £50 requires to be given in order that he may have nothing. After all, this discussion is little more than a verbal quibble, though interesting from the prominent position it for a long time held. It had its rise in the difficulty of satisfying the requirements of a constantly progressing science by the use of signs and forms retaining their original limited signification. It was soon felt that the limited interpretation must be given up; and accordingly an extension of signification was allowed to signs and modes of operation. + and -, which were formerly considered as merely symbols of the arithmetical operations of addition and subtraction, were now considered as "general cumulative symbols, the reverse of each other," and could signify gain and loss, upwards and downwards, right and left, same and opposite, to and from, &c. Applying this extended interpretation of signs to a quantity such as -4, we obtain at once a true idea of a negative quantity; for if +4 signifies 4 inches *above* a certain level, -4 signifies 4 inches *below* that level, and therefore, though a positive quantity in itself (a negative being, strictly speaking, an impossible existence), it may be fairly considered to be less than zero, as it expresses a quantity less by 4 than 0 inches above the level. Keeping this idea in view, it has been conventionally agreed to admit the existence of negative qualities as existing *per se*. The only errors which can flow from this arise from misinterpretation of results for the four fundamental operations of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division are unaffected by the extended interpretation of signs. The following is an illustration of the value of an extended interpretation of the negative sign, shewing at the same time how much more general are the ideas conveyed by algebraic expressions than

by ordinary language: If at the present time a father is 50 years, and his son 20 years old, when will the father be three times as old as his son? This problem, when solved, gives — 5 as the number of years which must elapse before the father's age is three times the son's. Now, at first sight, this result appears to be absurd, but when we consider the terms of the problem, its explanation is easy. The question asked pointed to a number of years to come, and had the result turned out to be positive, such would have been the case, and the fact of its being negative directs us to look in a "contrary" direction, or backwards to time past; and this is found to satisfy the problem, as 5 years "ago" the father was 45 and his son 15.

Negative quantities arise out of the use of general symbols in subtraction, as in the formula  $a - b$ , where we may afterwards find that  $b$  is greater than  $a$ . See SUBTRACTION.

NEGRI'TOS, or Negritos (*Spanish*, diminutive of Negroes), is the name given by the Spaniards to certain negro-like tribes inhabiting the interior of some of the Philippine Islands, and differing essentially both in features and manners from the Malay inhabitants of the Eastern Archipelago. They bear a very strong resemblance to the negroes of Guinea, but are much smaller in size, averaging in height not more than four feet eight inches, whence their appellation of N., or little Negroes. They are also called by the Spaniards *Negritos del Monte*, from their inhabiting the mountainous districts for the most part; and one of the islands where they are most numerous, bears the name of *Isla de los Negros*. These N. are also known by the names Aeta, Aigta, Ite, Iapita, and Igolote or Igorote. They are described as a short, small, but well-made and active people, the lower part of the face projecting like that of the African Negroes, the hair either woolly or frizzed, and the complexion exceedingly dark, if not quite so black as that of the Negroes. The Spaniards describe them as less black and much less ugly than the negroes—*menos negros y menos feos*. All writers concur in speaking of them as sunk in the lowest depths of savagery, wandering in the woods and mountains, without any fixed dwellings, and with only a strip of bark to cover their nakedness. Their only weapons are the bow and arrow; and they live upon roots, wild fruits, and any sort of animals that they can surprise in their haunts, or conquer in the chase. By the Malays, they are despised and hated; and the buffaloes-hunters in the woods, when they meet with them, do not scruple to shoot them down like wild beasts or game. "It has not come to my knowledge," says a Spanish writer, "that a family of these Negroes ever took up their abode in a village. If the Mohammedan inhabitants make slaves of them, they will rather submit to be beaten to death than undergo any bodily fatigue, and it is impossible, either by force or persuasion, to bring them to labor." The same writer, an ecclesiastic, speaks of them as gentle and inoffensive in their manners, whenever he himself came in contact with them; and although informed that some of them were cannibals, he was not inclined to believe the report. Dr Carl Schrözer, the historian of the circumnavigation of the Novara, when at Manila, had an opportunity of seeing a Negrito girl whom he thus describes: "This was a girl of about twelve or fourteen years of age, of dwarf-like figure, with woolly hair, broad nostrils, but without the dark skin and wide everted lips which characterise the Negro type. This pleasing-looking, symmetrically-formed girl had been brought up in the house of a Spaniard, apparently with the pious object of rescuing her soul from heathenism. The poor little Negrita hardly understood her own mother-tongue, besides a very little Tagal, so that we had considerable difficulty in understanding each other."

According to Spanish statements, the N. are found only in five of the Philippine Islands—namely, Luzon, Mindoro, Pinay, Negros, and Mindanno—and are estimated at about 25,000 souls. Remnants of them exist, however, in the interior of some of the other islands in the Eastern Archipelago; and they are scattered, also, though in small numbers, through certain islands of Polynesia. They are altogether an island people, and are hence treated of by Prichard under the designation of Pelagian Negroes. By Dr Pickering they are treated of as a distinct race, resembling the Papuan, but differing from it in the diminutive stature, the general absence of a beard, the projecting of the lower part of the face or the inclined profile, and the exaggerated Negro features. The hair, also, is more woolly than that of the Papuans, though far from equaling that of the Negroes in knotty closeness. By Latham, the N. are classified under the subdivision of "Oceanic Mongolidae, C," which subdivi-

sion is further modified by him into the designation of "Amphinesians" and "Kelsonians." The N. out of the Philippine Islands are found for the most part in the islands embraced under the latter designation, as New Guinea, New Ireland, Solomon's Isles, Louisiade, New Caledonia, and Tasmania or Van Diemen's Land. Except in the last-mentioned island, however, th. N. strictly speaking—that is, the blackish people with woolly hair—do not preponderate over the other native tribes less strongly marked with Negro features; while in Tasmania itself, the race has almost entirely disappeared, amounting at present to not more than two or three dozen souls. Dr Pickering is of opinion, that the Negro race "once occupied more space than it does at this time, and that it has in many instances preceded the dissemination of other races." We conclude with a description of a Negrito native of Erromango (the island where the missionary Williams was murdered), supplied to Dr Pickering by Horatio Hale, his associate in the United States exploring expedition. "He was above five feet high," says Mr Hale, "slender and long limbed; he had close woolly hair, and retreating arched forehead, short and scanty eyebrows, and small snub nose, thick lips (especially the upper), a retreating chin, and that projection of the jaws and lower part of the face, which is one of the distinctive characteristics of the Negro race. . . . Placed in a crowd of African blacks, there was nothing about him by which he could have been distinguished from the rest." See **PAFUANS** and **POLYNESIANS**.

#### NE'GRO, Rio. See RIO NEGRO.

**NEGRO MINSTRELSY**, a species of singing which originated among the negro slaves of the United States, and is now popular at public entertainments. The sentiment of the earlier of these negro melodies was of the most simple kind, the words mostly broken English, and the harmonies confined chiefly to two chords—the tonic and dominant. How the airs were composed has been a matter of curious inquiry. Some of them are believed to be broken down and otherwise altered old psalm tunes, which had been caught up by the more musical of the negro race. In some instances, the singing of the melodies is accompanied with grotesque gestures; the effect being to give the idea of good-nature and love of fun in the dark-skinned minstrels. Negro melodies may be said to have been made known by Mr D. Rice, who first in New York, in 1831, and afterwards in London, created a sensation by his singing of "Jim Crow." Other songs followed, such as "Jim along Josey," and "Buffalo Gals;" and from less to more, there was created a very characteristically national music, if the Americans will allow us to call it so. Becoming extensively popular and addressed to fashionable audiences, this negro minstrelsy now comprehends a large variety of songs, with airs of a pleasing kind, the whole much in advance of the original negro compositions. For these improvements, the world is indebted, among others, to Mr E. P. Christy, who began as conductor of a band of minstrels at Buffalo in 1842, and who established himself in New York in 1846. At first, his troupe were called the "Virginia Minstrels," but afterwards they were known as the "Christy Minstrels." Mr Christy's great success in this species of entertainment brought other leaders and troupes into the field. In most cases, the members of the negro minstrel troupes are only negroes in name, with faces and hands blackened for the purpose. See "Christy's Minstrels' New Songs, with Music," edited by J. Wade; and other similar collections.

**NEGROES** (from the Spanish word *negro*, black; Lat. *niger*) is the name given to a considerable branch of the human family, possessing certain physical characteristics, which distinguish it in a very marked degree from the other branches or varieties of mankind—more especially the so-called whites or Europeans. In Blumenbach's five-fold division of mankind, the Negroes occupy the first place under the variety *Ethiopian*, which likewise embraces the Kafirs, Hottentots, Australians, Alforians, and Oceanic Negroes. In Latham's threefold division, they are placed among the *Atlantides*, and form the primary subdivision of *Negro Atlantides* in that author's classification; while in Pickering's eleven-fold division, they occupy the last place in his enumeration of the races of mankind.

Both Pritchard and Latham strongly protest against the common error of looking upon the term *Negro* as synonymous with *African*. "It ought to be remembered," says the former, "that the word *Negro* is not a national appellation, but denotes the ideal-type constituted by the assemblage of certain physical char-

acteristics, which is exemplified in the natives of Guinea in Western Africa, and in their descendants in America and the West Indies." And Latham in like manner observes: "No fact is more necessary to be remembered, than the difference between the Negro and African; a fact which is well verified by reference to the map. Here the true Negro area—the area occupied by men of the black skin, thick lip, depressed nose, and woolly hair—is exceedingly small; as small in proportion to the rest of the continent, as the area of the district of the stunted Hyperboreans is in Asia, or that of the Laps in Europe. Without going so far as to maintain that a dark complexion is the exception rather than the rule in Africa, it may safely be said that the hue of the Arab, the Indian, and the Australian is the prevalent color. To realise this we may ask, what are the true Negro districts? and what those other than Negro? To the former belong the valleys of the Senegal, the Gambia, the Niger, and the intermediate rivers of the coast, parts of Sndania, and parts about Semnaar, Kordofan, and Darfür; to the latter, the whole coast of the Mediterranean, the Desert, the whole of the Kaffir and Hottentot areas south of the line, Abyssinia, and the Middle and Lower Nile. This leaves but little for the typical Negro." Bearing in mind this limitation of the primitive area of the Negro, we shall next proceed to speak of his prominent physical characteristics.

The Negro has a black skin, ructuous and soft; woolly hair; thick lips; the lower part of the face prognathic, or projecting like a muzzle; the skull long and narrow; and a low, receding forehead. The skull of the Negro is remarkably solid and thick, so that in fighting they often butt against each other like rams, without much damage to either combatant; and it is likewise so flat that burdens are easily carried upon it. According to Camper's lateral admeasurement, the head of the Negro shows an angle of 70°, while that of the European shews one of 80°, on which difference of 10°, as he considered, depends the superior beauty of the latter. There is not much dependence, however, to be placed on such a mode of admeasurement; and the same may be said of Blumenbach's vertical method. According to this, a considerable difference would appear to exist between the skull of the Negro and that of the European. "But," says Dr Prichard, "I have carefully examined the situation of the foramen magnum in many Negro skulls; in all of them its position may be accurately described as being exactly behind the transverse line bisecting the antero-posterior diameter of the basis crani. This is precisely the place which Owen has pointed out as the general position of the occipital hole in the human skull. In those Negro skulls which have the alveolar process very protuberant, the anterior half of the line above described is lengthened in a slight degree by this circumstance. If allowance is made for it, no difference is perceptible. The difference is in all instances extremely slight; and it is equally perceptible in heads belonging to other races of men, if we examine crania which have prominent upper jaws. If a line is let fall from the summit of the head at right angles with the plane of the basis, the occipital foramen will be found to be situated immediately behind it; and this is precisely the case in Negro and European heads." There is, in fact, neither in this respect—the conformation of the Negro skull—nor in any other, solid ground for the opinion hazarded by some writers, and supported either through ignorance or from interested purposes, by many persons—that the Negro forms a connecting link between the higher order of apes and the rest of mankind. The difference is certainly considerable between the highest European and the typical Negro, but the gulf between them both and the highest of the Simiae is so nearly of the same width, that the difference is scarcely distinguishable. But the skin, hair, skull, lips, maxillary profile, and general facial appearance of the Negro, are not the only features that distinguish him in a great degree from the European, and seem to stamp him as a distinct variety of the human race. "In the Negro," says Prichard, "the bones of the legs are bent outwards. Soemmering and Lawrence have observed that the tibia and fibula in the Negro are more convex in front than in Europeans; the calves of the legs are very high, so as to encroach upon the hams; the feet and hands, but particularly the former, are flat; and the os calcis, instead of being arched, is continued nearly in a straight line with the other bones of the foot, which is remarkably broad." As to the supposed excessive length of the forearm in the Negro, a circumstance also dwelt upon as shewing an approach to the anthropoid apes, facts are altogether against the state-

men; there being no greater difference than is observable in individuals of any other variety of mankind. His stature, the Negro is very much on a par with the European, often reaching six feet, and rarely declining below five and a half. Into the discussion as to the cause of the blackness of the skin in the Negro we have not space to enter. It is generally supposed to depend upon the greater amount of pigment cells in the *Rete Malpighii*, and in the greater number of cutaneous glands, as compared with the skin of Europeans. In the skin of the Negro there is much oily matter, and he perspires profusely, which serves to keep him in health, while it diffuses a smell far from agreeable to bystanders whose olfactory nerves are at all sensitive. Of the hair of the Negro, Dr Pritchard remarks: "I am convinced that the Negro has hair properly so-called, and not wool. One difference between the hair of a Negro and that of European, consists in the more curled and frizzled condition of the former. This, however, is only a difference in the degree of crispulation, some European hair being likewise very crisp. Another difference is the greater quantity of coloring matter or pigment in the hair of the Negro. It is very probable that this quality is connected with the former, and is its cause, though we cannot determine in what manner one depends upon another; but as these properties vary simultaneously, and are in proportion one to another, we may infer that they do not depend upon independent causes."

The Negroes, in their native seat, comprise various independent tribes, which are thus classified and enumerated by Dr Latham: 1. *Western Negro Atlantica*, embracing the Woloffs, Sereres, Serawolli, Mandingos, Felups, &c.; Fantis, &c.; the Ghâ, the Whidah, Maha and Beniu tribes, the Grebo, &c. 2. *Central Negro Atlantica*, embracing the Yarribi, the Tapna, Haussa, Fulahs, Cumbri, Sungai, Kissâr, Bornu, &c.; Beghamni, Mandara, Mohba, Furians, Koldagi. 3. *Eastern Negro Atlantica*, embracing the Shilluk, &c.; Qâmamyl, Dallas, &c.; Tiboo, Gongas. This list might, of course, be still further enlarged by reference to the works of Barth, Livingstone, Speke, and other travellers, whose researches have been published since the appearance of Dr Latham's "Varieties of Man," in 1850.

While these several tribes have their distinctive peculiarities, they yet bear a strong general resemblance to each other, not only in their physical appearance, but in their intellectual capacities, moral instincts, customs, and manners. The Negro intellect is generally acknowledged to be inferior not only to the European, but to that of many primitive races not as yet brought within the pale of civilisation, while it is superior to that of the Australian, Bushmen, and Esquimaux. Some tribes are sunk in the lowest depths of barbarism, and are either ferocious savages, or stupid, sensual, and indolent. This is the case, for the most part, according to Pritchard, where the exaggerated Negro type is discernible, as among the Bullous, Papais, and other tribes on the coast of Western Guinea; also among the tribes near the slave coast, and in the Bight of Benin, where the slave trade has been carried on to the greatest extent. In other parts they shew a capacity for practising the arts of life. They are ingenious in the construction of their dwellings, they have some knowledge of the working of iron and other metals, they manufacture arms, dress and prepare the skins of animals, weave cloth, and fabricate numerous useful household utensils. Neither are they altogether deficient in a knowledge of agriculture. These marks of civilisation are, for the most part, apparent in the districts either wholly or partially converted to Mohammedanism. Mungo Park, in his account of Sego, the capital of Bambarra, describes it as a city of 30,000 inhabitants, with houses of two stories high, having flat roofs, mosques in every quarter, and ferries conveying men and horses over the Niger. "The view of this extensive city," he says, "the numerous canoes upon the river, the crowded population, and the cultivated state of the surrounding country, formed altogether a prospect of civilization and magnificence which I little expected to find in the bosom of Africa." All tribes of negroes appear to be passionately fond of music, and shew no little skill in the manufacture of musical instruments. They also express their hopes and fears in extempore songs. Where Mohammedanism has not been introduced, the religion of the negroes is nothing but a debased  *fetish worship*. They make fetishes of serpents, elephants' teeth, tigers' claws, and other parts of animals, at the dictation of their *fetish man*, or priest. They also manufacture idols of wood and stone, which they worship; and yet, under all this, they have some idea of a Supreme being. They believe in good and evil spirits,

and are perpetually practising incantations to ward off the baneful influence of their spiritual enemies. Their religion, in fact, is one altogether of fear; and as this generally leads to cruelty, we find them for the most part indifferent to the sacrifice of human life. In some parts they even offer up human victims to propitiate their deities. They are cruel to their enemies and prisoners, and often shed blood for the mere savage delight they experience in seeing it flow from their victims. We need only allude to the inhuman customs, as they are called, of Dahomey, and the *Yam and Adat customs* of the Ashantees, as described by Bowdich, in support of this statement.

This same indifference to human suffering, coupled with the passion of avarice, has doubtless been the mainspring of the slave-trade, carried on during so many centuries between the Negroes and European traders in the western coast of Africa. Begun by the Portuguese as early as 1503, when negro slaves were first imported into the West Indies, sanctioned by Ferdinand of Aragon in 1511, and subsequently by Charles V., legalized in England under Elizabeth, and eventually practised by every maritime nation of Europe, this infamous trade flourished under the sanction of law as late as the year 1837, when it was happily abolished by act of Parliament in Great Britain, and is now treated as piracy by almost every civilised nation. Even still, however, it is practised by lawless men, notwithstanding the humane efforts of Great Britain, France, and the United States to suppress it; and the encouragement which it has given to the petty chieftains on the slave coast, and the country behind it, to enrich themselves at the expense of their fellow-countrymen, has contributed more than anything else to retard the progress of civilisation in that part of Africa. "The region mentioned," says Pritchard, "has been the great seat of the exportation of Negro slaves, and the tribes on the coast have been reduced to the lowest state of physical and moral degradation by the calamities and vices attendant on that traffic. Throughout Negroland, and especially this part of it, the inhabitants of one district in the interior, the dwellers on one mountain, are ever on the watch to seize the wives and children of the neighboring clan, and to sell them to strangers; many sell their own. Every recess, and almost every retired corner of the land, has been the scene of hateful rapine and slaughter, not to be excused or palliated by the spirit of warfare, but perpetrated in cold blood, and for the love of gain."

The custom of polygamy prevails among all the Negro tribes, and where these are constituted into nations or kingdoms, as in Dahomey, the sovereign has often as many as two or three thousand wives, whom he occasionally disposes of as presents to his chief officers and favorites.

The languages of the various nations and tribes of Negroes are very numerous. Vocabularies of nearly 200 languages have been brought from Africa by the Rev. Dr Koelle. "A slight examination of these vocabularies," says Mr Edwin Norris, "seems to shew that there are among the Negro idioms a dozen or more classes of languages, differing from each other at least as much as the more remote Indo-Germanic language's do." To these Negro idioms Dr Krapp has given the name of *Nigro-Hamitic Languages*. These may perhaps have affinities with some of the other African tongues, but not with any of the great well-defined families of languages. For further information upon this subject, we must content ourselves with referring to Dr Pritchard's "Natural History of Man," and especially to a learned note by Mr Edwin Norris, in vol. i. of that work, page 323.

Of the condition and prospects of the Negroes in the various countries into which they have been imported during the prevalence of the slave-trade, we have scarcely room to speak. They are found in all the West India Islands, to the number of about 3,000,000; in the United States, Brazil, Peru, and other parts of South America; also in the Capo de Verde Islands, Arabia, Morocco, &c. In the British West India Islands they were emancipated from slavery in 1834, and in those belonging to France in 1843. Indeed, slavery now exists nowhere in the West Indies, with the single exception of Cuba. In the United States, the Negroes amounted in 1870 to 4,880,000. Many of these were emancipated in the course of the late unhappy civil war, all the Negroes of Secession masters being declared emancipated by proclamation of President Lincoln and act of the Federal congress; at the same time that indemnities were promised to such loyal states as of their own accord decreed emancipation. Negro slavery in the United States has been

utterly destroyed, and the great problem which used to exercise philanthropic minds, has been solved—the Negro having become a United States citizen at a fearful cost of blood and treasure to both their possessors and their liberators.

**NEGROPONT.** See EUBORA.

**NEGROS,** Isla de. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

**NEGU'NDO.** a genus of trees of the natural order *Aceraceæ* (see MAPLE), differing from the maples chiefly in the dice-ious flowers being destitute of petals, and in the pinnated ash-like leaves. The COMMON N. or ASH-LEAVED MAPLE, is a native of North America, and not now unfrequent in Britain as an ornamental tree.

**NEGUS,** a compound of either port or sherry wine and hot water sweetened with sugar and flavored with lemon-peel and spices. It is a favorite beverage in England, and derives its name from a Colonel Negus, who claimed to be the inventor.

**NEHEMI'AH,** son of Hachaliah, probably of royal descent, is first mentioned in the Bible as cupbearer to Artaxerxes Longimanus in his palace at Sushian about 444 B.C. Having learned the sad fate of the returned colonists in Jerusalem, he prevailed upon the king to send him to his brethren there with full powers "to see their welfare." For twelve years (444–432) he was untiringly engaged as "Governor" in works for their safety from within and without; fortifying the city walls, notwithstanding the hindrances and dangers that beset him on all sides; inducing people from the country to take up their permanent abode in the city, thus promoting its prosperity; and finally, and above all, rekindling the flame of ancient piety and the enthusiasm for the observance of the Law in the hearts of the rough immigrants. He then returned to Persia, trusting to the new vitality which his reforms had, as he thought, infused into the Jewish commonwealth. But not long afterwards—with a period which it is extremely difficult now to fix—he had again to obtain leave from the king, for the purpose of abolishing the many abuses that had crept in during his brief absence from Jerusalem. His energies now were chiefly directed against the foreign elements mixed up with the people, both privately and publicly. He enforced the rigorous observation of Feast and Sabbath, and rearranged the Temple service in accordance with its primeval purity, procuring at the same time the means for its proper support by inducing the people to offer the tithes as of old. His second stay at Jerusalem seems to have lasted between ten and fifteen years; but the dates, as gathered from circumstantial evidence only, are exceedingly vague. He seems to have lived to an old age, but the place and year of his death are unknown. What was the part he took in the formation and reduction of the biblical canon, cannot be investigated in this place. But there can hardly be a doubt, that among the reformatory works undertaken by him, the collection, and perhaps the edition of some of the books of the Old Testament must be included.

The Book known under his name (in 18 chapters) is believed only partly his own work. Recent investigation ascribes to him only the first six chapters, part of the seventh, and the last chapter and a half; the rest being a compilation by other hands. Its style and character are very simple, free from anything supernatural or prophetic. Its language resembles much that of Chronicles and Ezra, and is replete with Aramaisms and other foreign, partly Persian words. Originally considered a mere continuation of the Book of Ezra, it was by the Greeks and Latins at first called "The Second Book of Ezra." Gradually, however, it assumed its present independent position in the canon after Ezra. It is supposed to have been written or compiled towards the end of N.'s life.

**NEILGHE'RRY** (properly Nilgiri) Hills (Skr. *nâla*, blue, and *giri*, mountain), a remarkable group of mountains in the south of Hindustan, entirely isolated, with the exception of a precipitous granite ridge, 15 miles in width, which connects it with the high table-land of Maisur on the north. Lat.  $11^{\circ} 10'$ – $11^{\circ} 38'$  n., long.  $76^{\circ} 20'$ – $77^{\circ} 10'$ . The shape of the group is that of a triangle, of which one side faces the district of Malabar on the west. Greatest length, about 40 miles; average breadth, about 15 miles. The base of the mountains is covered by a dense and unhealthy forest, swarming with wild animals, among which are the elephant and tiger; but in the higher regions of the Hills, wood is comparatively scanty. The surface of the group is undulating, rising, in the peak of Dodabetta, near the centre to the height of 8760 feet, the greatest height, as yet ascertained, in India, south

the Himalayas. The Hills for the most part consist of granite, covered often to the depth of upwards of ten feet by a richly productive black soil. There are several morasses yielding peat, which is used for fuel. The higher lands form a fine open grass country, covered with the vegetation of the temperate zone, and inhabited by a most remarkable tribe, the *Tudas* or *Toruvans* (herdsmeu). This tribe numbers only about 2000 persons. The men are tall and handsome, with Roman noses, fine teeth, and large expressive eyes; the women are singularly beautiful. Their religion is Theism; they have no idols. Owing to their great elevation, the N. H. have a delightfully cool climate, and are much resorted to on this account by invalided Europeans. The principal station, and the only place on the Hills that deserves the name of a town, is Utakamand, situated in the centre of the Hills, at an elevation of 7800 feet above sea-level. Its climate is cold and damp during the monsoon; at other times it is intensely dry, and the mean annual temperature is 58°.

**NEILGHERRY NETTLE** (*Girardinia Leschenaultii*), a plant of the natural order *Urticaceæ*, nearly allied to the true nettles, and possessing in a high degree the stinging power which is common in them. It is frequent on all the higher ranges of the Neilgherry Hills. The bark yields a valuable fibre, which the natives obtain by first boiling the whole plant, to destroy its stinging properties, and then peeling the stalks. The fibre is of great delicacy and strength, and is worth £200 a ton in England. The cultivation of the plant is therefore thought likely to be remunerative.—Markham's "Travels."

**NEI'RA.** See MOLUCAS.

**NEI'SSE**, a town of Prussian Silesia, and a fortress of the second rank, is situated in a broad valley on the Neisse, an affluent of the Oder, 80 miles south-west of Oppeln. It consists of the town proper on the right bank, of the Friedrich's Town, and of the Prenssen Fort on the left bank. It contains two great squares, has eight Catholic and two Evangelical churches, a hospital, theatre, &c. It carries on manufactures of arms, chemical products, and tobacco, and establishments for spinning and weaving are in operation. The entire population in 1871 was 19,876. N., formerly the chief town of a principality of the same name, and the residence of a prince-bishop, has frequently been the scene of conflict.

**NELLO'RE**, a town of British India, capital of a district of the same name, in the presidency of Madras, situated on an elevation on the right bank of the Northern Pennar, 20 miles from its mouth, and 95 miles north-north-west from Madras. It is irregularly built, and the population in some places much crowded; but there are some good streets. The abundant supply of water contributes to the health of the town. N. was formerly an important fortress. It is a curious circumstance that, in the end of last century, a pot filled with Roman gold coins and medals—chiefly of Trajan, Adrius, and Faustina—was found under the ruins of a small Hindu temple at Nellore. Pop. 30,000.

**NEJI'N**, an ancient town of Little Russia, in the government of Tchernigof, on the Oster, an affluent of the Dnieper, about 80 miles north-east of Kiev. It fell into the hands of the Lithuanians in 1320, and of the Poles in 1386, but was annexed to Russia in 1654. N. is an industrious town of (1867) 20,516 inhabitants, many of whom are descendants of Greek immigrants who settled here in the reign of Catherine II. The principal branch of industry is the cultivation of tobacco. Great quantities of leaf-tobacco are sent hence to St Petersburg, Riga, and Mittau. The chief institutions are two monasteries, 25 churches, and a lyceum.

**NELSON**, Horatio, the greatest of Britain's admirals, was born on the 29th September 1758, at Burnham Thorpe, Norfolk, of which place his father, Edmund Nelson, was rector. His mother's maiden name was Suckling, and through he could claim a collateral kinship with the celebrated Sir Robert Walpole. As a child, he was feeble and sickly; and throughout life his small, frail, and attenuated frame seemed to consort but poorly with the daring and impetuous spirit which "stirred and lifted him to high attempts." At the age of 18, he entered the royal navy, commencing his career in the *Raisonnable*, 64 guns, commanded by his uncle, Captain Suckling. Then, even more than now, promotion in the first stages of the profession was determined by Admiralty interest; and fortunately for him and for England, his uncle, shortly afterwards becoming comptroller of the navy, was able to facilitate his

rise. His promotion was nearly as rapid as it could be, and before he was quite 21, he had attained the rank of post-captain, which fairly opened the way for him to the higher honors of the service. Up to this time, no opportunity had been afforded him of achieving any marked distinction, but to all who were brought into contact with him, he had already approved himself a bold and capable officer. Henceforward, for some years, he was nearly constantly employed in a variety of harassing services; and in all his conduct was such, that in no long time he had made for himself a brilliant reputation. His growing fame was as yet, however, chiefly confined to professional circles, no very signal exploit having brought his name prominently before the public. But with the advent of the war with revolutionary France, the time had come when he was to "shame amazement" on the world by a series of noble deeds, in the lustre of which all other naval glory looks pale. In his obscurer years, he seems to have been cheered under what pained him as unmerited neglect by that prescience of a grand destiny, which has so often preluded to a career of exceptional splendor. Thus, on one occasion, he writes: "They have not done me justice. But never mind. One day I'll have a gazette of my own." And subsequently the same confidence is expressed with something like the depth of a religious conviction: "One day or other I will have a long gazette to myself. I feel that such an opportunity will be given me. I cannot, if I am in the field of glory, be kept out of sight; wherever there is anything to be done, *there Providence is sure to direct my steps.*" In 1793, appointed to the *Agamemnon*, 64 guns, he took a distinguished part, among other services, in the sieges of Bastia and Calvi, in Corsica, losing an eye at the last of these; and in the celebrated action of Sir John Jervis off Cape St. Vincent with the Spanish fleet, to a manœuvre of extreme and masterly daring, executed by Nelson in defiance of orders; that officer was handsomely indebted for the splendid success obtained and the peerage with which it was rewarded. Though in the interval an expedition which he commanded against Teneriffe had failed disastrously, with loss to himself of his right arm in the assault, it was on all hands admitted that everything was done on the occasion which skill and valor in their highest combination could effect, and N., on his return to England in 1797, was received with general acclamation. He was invested with the Order of the Bath, and a pension of £1000 a year was voted to him. Being next year intrusted with a fleet, he signalledised this his first independent command of any magnitude by the stupendous victory of the Nile, memorable in naval annals as the completest annihilation of an enemy on record. See ABOUKIR. Finding the French fleet—to which his own was considerably inferior in force—skillfully moored so as to defy ordinary attack, he adopted the novel expedient of doubling on the enemy's ships, and was rewarded with success the most consummate. Of the French line of battle, two ships only escaped to be afterward captured; and it was considered that solely to a wound in the head, which in the heat of the action prostrated N., did even those owe their temporary safety. Honors were now from all quarters showered upon him; and in particular the gratitude and enthusiasm of his countrymen were signified by the title bestowed on him of Baron Nelson of the Nile, and a grant of £2000 a year for his own life, and the lives of his two immediate successors. For his services immediately subsequent, in effecting the expulsion of the French from Naples, the Neapolitan king rewarded him with the Dukedom of Bronte and a domain of £3000 a year. These last honors, however, were in one sense dearly purchased. The single suspicion of a blot on his public fame is in regard of his relations with the corrupt court of Naples, and of certain questionable acts into which by these he was led. The only flaw in his private character was his infatuated attachment to Lady Hamilton, the wife of the English ambassador, a woman of questionable antecedents, but perilous fascination, with whom he was here thrown in contact. The influence which she now obtained over him, she continued to the end to exercise. Early in life he had married, and married happily. If to the charms of an impure adventuress he sacrificed, on his return to England, the wife to whom before he had been tenderly devoted, it is not necessary to indulge in comment. Let us compassionate the one cruel frailty of a man in all else and in his proper nature, as gentle and generous as he was brave.

His next magnificent exploit was the battle of Copenhagen in 1801, in which, after a struggle of terrible severity, he shattered the naval power of Denmark, and

along with it the dreaded coalition against England of the three northern kingdoms. Never were the characteristic and heroic qualities of the man more brilliantly displayed than on this most trying occasion. In the moral courage to accept responsibility at all hazards, no man ever surpassed him. In the heat of the battle, his chief, Sir Hyde Parker, in deadly anxiety as to the issue of what at a distance seemed to be a hopeless conflict, signalled him to discontinue action. "Damn the signal!" said N., when this was reported to him. "*Keep mine for closer battle flying.*" That's the way I answer such signals. Nail mine to the mast." And with the certainty of professional disgrace and ruin staring him in the face in case of failure, he worked out his grand triumph.

Had N.'s services here ceased, his fame would still have been assured as the greatest of England's naval heroes. But a crowning glory awaited him. In the earlier part of 1805, glowing with fierce ardor and impatience, he had chased half round the world a French fleet of nearly double the force of his own, scared by the very terror of his name; and on the morning of the memorable 21st October of that year, the desire of his eyes was satisfied, when in the Bay of Trafalgar he saw before him the combined navies of France and Spain moving to meet him in frank fight. Of the glorious consummation which followed, we need not speak in detail. Ere night, the power of France upon the seas was annihilated, and her threatened invasion of England had become an abortive dream. But N. was no more. He died as such men wish to die, amid the thunders of his mightiest victory.

The character of M. was, for a man of his greatness, unusually simple and transparent. A more absolute singleness of aim and aspiration than his, it is difficult even to conceive of. Literally on fire with that ardor and passion of enthusiasm, without some tincture of which scarce any man perhaps has ever yet achieved distinction, he was driven by it imperiously in one direction. The greatest of sailors—he was a sailor and little else. Of his genius for command, it would be idle at large to speak. In coolness, foresight, promptitude, instant intuitive decision, and a daring which, even when it seemed at times to touch temerity, was yet regulated throughout by the nicest calculations of reason, he has perhaps never been quite equalled on the element. His nature was most noble and humane. His heart was as soft as a woman's, and overflowed with all liberal generousities. He had but to be known to be beloved; and of the tender chivalry of his relations with his gallant brethren in arms, it is touching to read.

NELSON, the capital of a province of the same name, in New Zealand, is situated at the north end of South Island, at the mouth of the Maitai, a small river, and at the head of a large bay called Blind Bay. The situation is very beautiful, on a flat, hemmed in by rugged hills, and amidst almost tropical luxuriance. The harbor, however, only admits vessels of 500 tons at high water, and this circumstance has much retarded the progress both of the town and the settlement. The centre of the town is a hill rising 40 feet above the surrounding streets, and laid out as a square with an Episcopal church in its centre. N. is the seat of a bishop. The city was founded in 1841. The population in 1871 was 5,34. Three newspapers are published here. The manufactures of the town comprise cloth and leather. Steamers sail to the neighboring ports.

NELU'MBO (*Nelumbium*), a genus of aquatic plants similar to Water Lilies, and often included under that name, as well as by some botanists in the natural order *Nymphaeaceæ* (q. v.); although by others constituted into a distinct order, *Nelumbinaeæ*, differing in the want of albumen in the seed, and in the distinct carpels, which are one-seeded, and buried in the cavities of a large fleshy receptacle; which eventually becomes a broad hard bed, full of holes, with the large seeds half buried in them. The flowers and leaves are very similar to those of water-lilies. The species are few, and are found in the warm parts of Asia, in the north of Africa, and in North America. They are all distinguished by the beauty of their flowers. *N. speciosum* is the EGYPTIAN BEAN of Pythagoras, the *Lotus* (q. v.) of the Hindus, held sacred by them and by the people of Thibet. It is also much esteemed and cultivated in China, and elsewhere in the East, for its seeds, roots, leaf-stalks, and flower-stalks, all of which are eaten. It has been used as food by the Egyptians from remote antiquity. The seeds are in size and shape like acorns, with a taste more delicate than that of almonds. The root contains much starch, and *Chinese arrow-root*

is said to be obtained from it. Slices of it are often served up at table in China. Great quantities are pickled with salt and vinegar, and eaten with rice. The powdered root makes excellent soup with water or milk. The flowers are generally rose-colored, seldom white. The ancient Egyptian mode of sowing this plant, by enclosing each seed in a ball of clay, and throwing it into the water, is practised at the present day in India.—*N. luteum* is a North American species, extending almost as far north as Philadelphia; with yellow flowers. The seeds are sought after by children and by Indians, and the farinaceous roots are agreeable when boiled.

**NEMATELMIA** (derived from the Gr. words *nema*, a thread, and *helmine*, an intestinal worm) is the term given by recent zoologists to a large and important class of the subdivision *Vermes* of the *Articulata*. The worms belonging to this class are of a more or less elongated cylindrical form. Their skin is thick and strong, and is usually wrinkled in such a manner as to give the body an annulated appearance, which, however, disappears if the animal is placed in water. The nervous system in the higher forms (as the *Acarida*) consists of two lateral ganglia at the anterior extremity, which are united by a slender nervous ring, and from which two lateral nervous trunks proceed to the posterior part of the body; while in the lower forms no distinct nervous system can be recognised. No special organs of the senses are met with; but a general sense of touch is probably present. The digestive organs are extremely simple. In one order (the *Acanthocephala*), no trace of an intestinal canal can be detected; in another order (the *Gordiacea*) there is a mouth, but no anus; while the higher forms are provided with mouth, intestinal canal, and anus. In the higher forms, a kind of vascular system is developed in the skin, in the shape of canals, in which the nutrient fluid is propelled by the movements of the body. No distinct respiratory organs can be detected; but in some genera there are glands whose object is not clearly known. These worms are unisexual; but the males are comparatively rarely found, and are always smaller than the females. With the exception of two families—the *Urolobidae* and *Anguillidae*, or paste and vinegar eels—all the animals of this class are parasitic; indeed, Carus, in his "Handbuch der Zoologie" (1863), vol. II. p. 458, goes so far as to say that "probably all the nematelia live as parasites, either during their whole lives or during certain stages of their existence."

The N. are sometimes termed *Round-worms*, just as the Platyelmin (tape-worms, flukes, &c.) are called *Flat-worms*. Most commonly, however, the term round-worm is restricted to the *Ascaris lumbricoides*, the most common of the human entozoa.

This class is divisible into three very distinct orders—viz., the *Acanthocephala*, which are destitute of an intestinal canal; the *Gordiacea*, which possess an intestinal canal, but no anus; and the *Nematoidea*, which possess a perfect intestinal canal, provided with two orifices.

**NEMATOIDEA** constitute the highest order of the Nematelmia, and indeed of intestinal worms generally, inasmuch as they present a distinct nervous system, a complete intestine provided with mouth and anus, and distinct sexual organs. The history of their development is not fully known; but there is no reason to believe that these animals undergo any remarkable metamorphoses, although some perforate the intestinal walls and become encysted in parenchymatous organs. The great majority of the N. are parasitic. The N. are divided by Carus into twelve families, all the members of which are known only in a parasitic state of existence, excepting certain genera of the first and second family.

Although the intestinal canal is the most common residence of these worms, some as *Trichina spiralis*, are found chiefly in the muscles; others, as *Filaria medinenensis*, in the subcutaneous cellular tissue; and others in the kidneys, lungs, &c. See ENTOZOA. For further information regarding these worms, the reader is referred to Eberth's "Untersuchungen über Nematoden" (4to, 1863).

**NE'MEA**, anciently the name of a deep and well-watered valley of Argolis, in the Peloponnesus, between Cleone and Phlius. It lies north and south, and is from two to three miles long, and more than half a mile broad. It possessed a sacred grove, with a magnificent temple of Zeus, and was celebrated for the games called the *Nemean Games*, which took place four times in two Olympiads in an adjacent woody valley. This was one of the great national festivals of the Greeks, and, according to one legend, was founded by the seven princes who were combined against Thebes;

according to another, by Hercules after his victory over the Nemean Lion. The games consisted partly of exercises of bodily skill and strength—such as chariot-racing, quoit-throwing, wrestling, running in armor, horse-racing, boxing, throwing the spear, and archery, and partly of musical and poetical competitions. The prize was originally a crown of olive twigs, afterwards of parsley. We have eleven odes by Pindar in honor of victors in the Nemean Games.

NEMERTES, a genus of marine *Annelida*, the type of a family, *Nemertidae*, remarkable for the prodigious length which some of the species attain, which, in their most extended state, is 30 or 40 feet. But the animal which stretches itself out to this length, is capable of suddenly contracting itself to three or four feet. The structure is similar to that of leeches, but there is no sucker. These annelids feed upon molluscs by sucking them out of their shells. They generally lurk in the mud or sand of the sea-coast, and are sometimes drawn up with the nets or lines of fishermen. They twine themselves into knots and coils, apparently inextricable, but without any real entanglement. The life-history of the *Nemertidae* is curious. The embryo has at first a ciliated, non-contractile, oval body; from which there issues a small actively contractile worm, leaving behind it the oval skin, and this worm grows to the size already mentioned. The larval state, however, exhibits a cleft with raised edges, which becomes the mouth of the perfect animal.

NE'MESIS, according to Hesiod, the daughter of Night, was originally the personification of the moral feeling of right and a just fear of criminal actions—in other words of the conscience. Afterwards, when an enlarged experience convinced meu that a Divine will found room for its activity amid the little occurrences of human life, N. came to be regarded as the power who constantly preserves or restored the moral equilibrium of earthly affairs—preventing mortals from reaching that excessive prosperity which would lead them to forget the reverence due to the immortal gods, or visiting them with wholesome calamities in the midst of their happiness. Hence originated the latest and loftiest conception of N., as the being to whom was intrusted the execution of the decrees of a strict retributive providence—the awful and mysterious avenger of wrong, who punishes and humbles haughty evildoers in particular. N. was thus regarded as allied to Até (q. v.), and the Eumenides (q. v.). She was sometimes called Adrastea and Rhanmusia, the latter designation being derived from Rhanmus, a village of Attica, where she had a temple. She was represented in the older times as a young virgin, resembling Venus; in later times, as clothed with the tunic and peplos, sometimes with swords in her hands and a wheel at her foot, a griffin also having his right paw upon the wheel; sometimes in a chariot drawn by griffins. N. is a frequent figure on coins and gems.

NE'NAGH, a market town of Tipperary county, Ireland, distant 95 miles southwest from Dublin; pop. (1871) 5696, of whom the Roman Catholics were twelve times as many as the Protestants of the Episcopalian Church, and there were fifty or sixty Protestants of other denominations. N. is the assize town of the North Riding of Tipperary, and is a place of more than ordinary pretensions in its public buildings. The ancient keep, called Nenagh Round, is a striking object, and the court-house, jail, barrack, and union workhouse are imposing edifices. There is a free school, and three national schools. Among the not very numerous articles manufactured at N., are woollens, tobacco, soap and candles. It is, however, a place of very considerable inland trade.

NE'OPHYTE (Gr. *neophytoς*, from *neos*, new, and *phuo*, to grow), the name given in early ecclesiastical language to persons recently converted to Christianity. The word is used in this sense by St Paul (1 Tim. iii. 6), and is explained by St Gregory the Great as an allusion to "their being newly planted in the faith" (Epp. b. v. ep. 51). It differed from Catechumen (q. v.), inasmuch as it supposed the person to have not only embraced the doctrines of the church, but also to have received baptism. St Paul, in the passage referred to, directs Timothy not to promote a neophyte to the episcopate; and this prohibition was generally maintained, although occasionally disregarded in very extraordinary circumstances, such as those of St Ambrose (q. v.). The duration of this exclusion was left for a time to the discretion of bishops; but several of the ancient synods legislated regarding it. The third council of Arles, 524, and the third of Orange in 588, fix a year as the least limit of probation. In the modern Roman Catholic Church the same discipline is

observed, and extends to persons converted not alone from heathenism, but from any sect of Christians separated from the communion of Rome. The time, however, is left to be determined by circumstance. The name neophyte is also applied in Roman usage to *newly-ordained priests*, and sometimes, though more rarely, to the novices of a religious order.

NEO-PLATONISTS, the name given to an illustrious succession of ancient philosophers who claimed to found their doctrines and speculations on those of Plato. Strictly speaking, however, the Platonic philosophy—that is, in its original and genuine form—expired with Plato's immediate disciples, Speusippus and Xenocrates, Arcesilas (q. v.), the founder of the New Academy, and at a later period Carneades (q. v.), introduced and diffused a sceptical *Probabilism*, which gradually destroyed that earnest and reverent spirit of intellectual inquiry so characteristic of the great pupil of Socrates. The course of political events in the ancient world also largely assisted in bringing about the same result. The triumphs of the Roman power had been accomplished at the expense of national liberties, and had issued in a general deterioration of moral character, both in the East and the West. Public men, especially, sought, above all things, material gratifications, and came to look upon philosophy itself as only a more exquisite kind of luxury. It was quite natural, therefore, that Scepticism and Eclecticism should become the prevalent forms of philosophy. Besides, the speculations of the older philosophers were felt to be unsatisfactory. When men began to review the long succession of contradictory or divergent systems that had prevailed since the time of Thales the Milesian, in the gray dawn of Greek history, a suspicion appears to have sprung up that reality, certainty, truth, was either not attainable, or could only be attained by selecting something from every system. Moreover, the immensely extended intercourse of nations, itself a result of Roman conquest, had brought into the closest proximity a crowd of conflicting opinions, beliefs, and practices, which could not help occasionally undergoing a confused amalgamation, and in this way presented to view a practical eclecticism, less refined and philosophical indeed than the speculative systems of the day, but not essentially different from them. This tendency to amalgamation shewed itself most prominently in Alexandria. Placed at the junction of two continents, Asia and Africa, and close to the most cultivated and intellectual regions of Europe, that celebrated city naturally became a focus for the chief religious and philosophies of the ancient world. Here, the East, and the West, Greek culture and Oriental enthusiasm, met and mingled; and here, too, Christianity sought a home, and strove to quell by the liberality of its sympathies, the myriad discordances of Paganism. "Greek Scepticism," says Mr Lewes, "Judaism, Platonism, Christianity—all had their interpreters within a small distance of the temple of Serapis." It is not wonderful, therefore, that a philosophy, which so distinctly combines the peculiar mental characteristics of the East and the West, as that promulgated by the Neo-Platonists, should have originated in Alexandria. Yet, at the same time, it is but right to notice, as does M. Matter in his "*Histoire de l'Ecole d'Alexandrie*," that it soon ceased to have any local connection with the city. Its most illustrious representatives were neither natives of Alexandria, nor members of the famous Museum, and they had their schools elsewhere—in Rome, in Athens, and in Asia.

It is not easy to say with whom *Neo-Platonism* commenced. Scholars differ as to how much should be included under that term. By some it is used to designate the whole new intellectual movement proceeding from Alexandria, comprising in this broad view, the philosophy, 1st, of Philo-Judæus and of Numenius the Syrian; 2d, of the Christian Fathers (Clemens Alexandrinus, Origen, &c.); 3d, of the Gnostics; and 4th, of Ammonius Saccas and his successors. Others, again, would exclude the second of these (though the Alexandrian divines frequently Platonic); while a third party is disposed to restrict the application of the term to the fourth. The last of these modes of regarding Neo-Platonism is the one most current, and is perhaps the most convenient and definite; yet Bouterwek, Tennemann, Lewes, &c., agree in considering Philo-Judæus (q. v.), an Alexandrian Jew, and (in part) contemporary of Jesus Christ, as the first of the Neo-Platonists—that is to say, as the first who endeavored to unite the mysteries of Oriental belief with the dialectics and speculations of the Platonicists. A similar course was at least partially pursued by the Christian fathers of Alexandria, partly from a predilection for the philoso-

phy in which they had been reared, and partly from a desire to harmonize reason and faith, and to make their religion acceptable to thoughtful and educated pagans; hence, they too may, not without reason, be classed along with Philo, though their spirit and aim are distinctively and even strongly Christian. In Gnosticism, on the other hand, speaking generally, the lawless mysticism of the East predominated, and we see little either of the spirit or logic of Plato. They may therefore be dismissed from the category of Neo-Platonists. Regarding Philo-Judeus and the Alexandrian divines, it must be noticed that they wrote and taught in the interests of their own religion, and had no idea of defending or propagating a heathen philosophy. It is this which strikingly distinguishes them from the school founded by Ammonius Saccas, and also from an independent group of pagan teachers and authors who likewise flourished in the first and second centuries after Christ, and whose main object was to popularise and diffuse the ethics and religio-philosophic system of Plato, by allegorically explaining the ancient mysteries of the popular belief in harmony with the ideas of their master, but, at the same time, blending with these many Pythagorean and Aristotelian notions. The best-known names of this group are Plutarch (q. v.) and Appuleius (q. v.). These men have a better claim to the title of Neo-Platonists than any of the others. They adhered far more closely to their great master, and were, in fact—to the best of their ability—simply popular expounders of his philosophy. Living at a time when paganism was in a moribund condition, they sought to revive, purify, and elevate the faith in which their fathers had lived. Christianity, a young, vigorous, and hostile system, was rooting itself in the hearts of men deeper and deeper every day, and these disciples of Plato—tenderly attached to their ancestral religion—felt that something must be done to preserve from going out the fires that were feebly burning on the altars of the ancient gods.

But these commentators and expositors of Plato were not remarkable for their philosophical power; a fresh stream of life was first poured into the old channels of Platonic speculation by Ammonius Saccas (q. v.) and Plotinus (q. v.), and it is this fact which gives the school which they established its best claim to the exclusive title of *Neo-Platonist*. "In no species of grandeur was the Alexandrian school deficient," as M. Salleset justly observes: "genius, power, and duration have consecrated it. Reanimating during an epoch of decline the fecundity of an aged civilisation, it created a whole family of illustrious names. Plotinus, its real founder, resuscitated Plato; Proclus gave the world another Aristotle; and in the person of Julian the Apostate, it became master of the world. For three centuries it was a formidable rival to the greatest power that ever appeared on earth—the power of Christianity; and if it succumbed in the struggle, it only fell with the civilisation of which it had been the last rampart" (Lewes's "Biog. Hist. Phil." p. 260). The essence of all the Alexandrian speculations, we have stated, consists in the blending of Platonic ideas with Oriental mysticism; the peculiarity of the *Neo-Platonists*, strictly so-called, lies simply in the novelty, audacity, and ingenuity of their reasonings. They aimed at constructing a religion on the basis of dialectics. They strove to attain a knowledge of the Highest, and the way in which they endeavored to accomplish this was by assuming the existence of a capacity in man for passing beyond the limits of his personality, and acquiring an intuitive knowledge of the absolute, the true—that which is beyond and above the fluctuations and dubieties of "opinion." This impersonal faculty is called *Kestaway*. By means of it, man—ceasing, however, it should be observed, to be individual man, i. e., *himself*—can identify himself with the Absolute (or Infinite). Plotinus, in fact, set out from the belief that "philosophy" (i. e. "Absolute truth") is only possible through the identity of the thinker, or rather of the subjective thought, with the thing thought of, or the objective thought. This intuitive grasp or "vision" of the Absolute, is not constant; we can neither force nor retain it by an effort of will; it springs from a divine inspiration and enthusiasm, higher and purer than that of poet or prophet, and is the choicest "gift of God."

The god of Plotinus and the other Alexandrians is a mystical Trinity, in the exposition of which they display a dialectical subtlety that even the most ingenious of the schoolmen never reached. The Divine Nature contains within it three Hypostases (Substances); its basis, if we may so speak, is called unity, also poetically Primitive Light, &c. The Unity is not itself any *thing*, but the principle of all things; it is absolute good, absolute perfection; and though utterly incapable of being conceived

by the understanding, there is that in man that assures him that it—the incomprehensible, the ineffable, &c. “It has neither quantity nor quality; neither reason nor soul; it exists neither in motion nor repose; neither in space nor time; it is not a numeric unity nor a point; . . . It is pure *Eesse* without Accident; . . . It is exempt from all want or dependency, as well as from all thought or will; it is not a thinking Being, but Thought itself—the principle and cause of all thing.” To the receptive “Primitive Light,” we are afraid, will not seem very luminous. From “Unity,” as the primal source of all things, emanates “Pure Intelligence” (*Nous*—the *Vernunft* of modern German metaphysics); its reflection and image, that by which it is intuitively apprehended; from pure Intelligence, in turn, emanates the “Soul of the World” (*Peyche ton pantos*), whose creative activity produces the souls of men and animals, and “Nature;” and finally from nature proceeds “Matter,” which, however, is subjected by Plotinus to such refinement of definition that it loses all its grossness. Unity, Pure Intelligence, and the World-Soul thus constitute the Plotinian Triad, with which is connected, as we have seen, the doctrine of an eternal Emanation, the necessity of which he devotes to demonstrate by the most stringent logic. Human souls, whose source is the Pure Intelligence, are—by some mysterious fate—imprisoned here in perishable bodies, and the higher sort are ever striving to reascend to their original home. So Plotinus, when in the agonies of death, said calmly to his friends: “I am struggling to liberate the divinity within me.”

The most distinguished pupil of Plotinus was Porphyrius (q. v.), who mainly devoted himself to expounding and qualifying the philosophy of his master. In him we see, for the first time, the presence of a distinctively anti-Christian tendency. Neo-Platonism, which can only be properly understood when we regard it as an attempt to place Paganism on a philosophical basis—to make the Greek religion philosophical, and Greek philosophy religious—did not *consciously* set out as the antagonist of Christianity. Neither Ammonius Saccus nor Plotinus assailed the new faith; but as the latter continued to grow, and to attract many of the most powerful intellects of the age into its service, this latent antipathy began to shew itself. Porphyry wrote against it; Iamblichus (q. v.), the most noted of his pupils, did the same. The latter also introduced a theurgic or “magical” element into Neo-Platonism, teaching, among other things, that certain mysterious practices and symbols exercised a supernatural influence over the divinities, and made them grant our desires. Magic is always popular, and it is therefore not wonderful that Iamblichus should have had numerous followers. Adversus succeeded to his master’s chair, and appears to have had also a considerable number of disciples. To the school of one of them the Emperor Julian belonged, whose patronage for a moment shed a gleam of splendor over Neo-Platonism, and seemed to promise it a universal victory. After a succession of able, but not always consistent teachers, we reach Proclus (q. v.), the last great Neo-Platonist, who belongs to the 5th c., a man of prodigious learning, and of an enthusiastic temperament, in whom the pagan-religious, and consequently anti-Christian, tendency of the Neo-Platonic philosophy culminated. His ontology was based on the Triad of Plotinus, but was considerably modified in detail; he exalted “Faith” above “Science” as a means of reaching the Absolute Unity; was a believer in Theurgy, and so naturally laid great stress upon the ancient Chaldean oracles, Orphic hymns, mysteries, &c., which he regarded as divine revelations, and of which he considered himself—as, indeed, he was—the last great “interpreter.” His hostility to the Christian religion was keen; in its success he saw only the triumph of a vulgar popular superstition over the refined and beautiful theories of philosophy; it was as if he beheld a horde of barbarians defacing the statues and records of the Pantheon. The disciples of Proclus were pretty numerous, but not remarkable for high talent. Perhaps the ablest of his successors was Damascius, in whose time the Emperor Justinian, by an arbitrary decree, closed the schools of the heathen philosophers. “The victiming,” says Cousin (“Cours d’Histoire de la Philosophie Moderne”), “of fierce retaliation, and of an obstinate persecution, these poor Alexandrians, after having sought an asylum in their dear East, at the court of Chosroes, returned to Europe (583 A.D.), were dispersed over the face of the earth, and the most part extinguished in the deserts of Egypt, which were converted for them into a philosophic Thebais.” See Fichte, “De Philosophiae Novae Platonice Origine” (Berl. 1818); Bouterwek, “Philosophorum Alexandrinorum ac Neo-Platonicorum, recensio accurata” (Göt. 1821); Matter, “Essai Historique sur l’Ecole d’Alexandrie” (3 vols.

Par. 1820); Simon, "Histoire de l'Ecole d'Alexandrie" (3 vols. Par. 1845); Barthélémy St Hilaire "De l'Ecole d'Alexandrie" (Par. 1845); Lewes, "Biographical History of Philosophy" (1857); and Ueberweg's "History of Philosophy" (Translation, Hodder and Steughton 1872).

**NEOZOIC** (Gr. new life), a term introduced by Edward Forbes to include all the strata from the Trias to the most recent deposits. They are generally divided into the two great groups of Secondary and Tertiary Rocks. This division is, however, quite arbitrary—The chief point of difference depending on the occurrence in the Tertiary deposits of species supposed to be the same as some still living. There is no paleontological nor petrological break similar to that which exists between the Permian and Trias. Forbes, accordingly, suggested the obliteration of the division between the Secondary and Tertiary series, and the division of all geological time into two epochs—the Palæozoic and the Neozoic.

**NEPA AND NEPIDÆ.** See WATER-SCORPION.

**NEPAU'L**, or Nipal, an independent kingdom of Hindustan, lying on the southern slope of the Himalayas, is bounded on the n. by Tibet, on the s. and w. by British India, and on the e. by Sikkim, a protected state. Long.  $80^{\circ} 15'$ — $88^{\circ} 15'$  e. It is 600 miles in length, by about 109 miles in average breadth. Area, 56,745 sq. m.; pop. estimated (1873) at 5,000,000. The kingdom is separated from the plains of India by the long narrow strip of land resembling an English down, but unhealthy, called the Terai, which extends along the whole southern border. North of this, and running parallel with it, is the great forest of N., from 8 to 10 miles broad. North of this strip is a tract of hilly country, and above that are two tracts of greater elevation, the first of which may be called mountainous, while the second might appropriately be called Alpine, if it did not comprise among its mountains peaks, which like Mount Everest and Dhaulagiri, attain almost twice the elevation of Mout Blanc. The principal rivers are the Kurnali, the Gogra, the Rapti, the Gunduk with its tributaries, and the Kosi. The climate, most unhealthy in the Terai, is healthy and pleasant in the hilly and mountainous districts, suggesting that of Southern Europe. In the Valley of N.—the district surrounding the capital—the heat of Bengal which is felt in the hollows, may be exchanged for the cold of Russia by ascending the slopes of the hills which enclose it. The soil is extremely rich and fruitful. Barley, millet, rice, maize, wheat, cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, pine-apple, and various tropical fruits are cultivated. Gold has not been found, but iron and copper mines are worked. The inhabitants consist mainly of two tribes—the Gurkas, whose chief occupation is war, and the Newars, who are principally artisans. The capital of the country is Khatmandu (q. v.).

**NEPENTHES**, the only known genus of a natural order of exogenous plants called *Nepenthaceæ*, consisting of herbaceous or half-shrubby plants with dioecious flowers, natives of swampy ground in India and China, chiefly remarkable for their leaves. Each leaf consists of a dilated foliaceous petiole, prolonged beyond its foliaceous part, as if it were the prolongation of the midrib of a leaf, and terminating in a pitcher (*ascidium*), from which the name PITCHER PLANT has been very generally given to the species of this order. The pitcher is terminated by a lid, which is regarded as the true blade of the leaf. The fluid found in these pitchers is a secretion of the plant itself. Insects often enter the pitcher, and are apparently there dissolved and absorbed; so that the N. would rank amongst the plants called "Insectivorous" by Mr Darwin. Pitcher plants (*N. distillatoria*) are not uncommon in our hothouses.

**NEPHELIUM.** See LITCHI.

**NEPHRITE**, a mineral which is not unfrequently called Jade (q. v.), and of which Axestone (q. v.) is very generally considered a variety. It is composed of silica, magnesia, and lime; is compact, with a coarse splintery fracture, very tenacious, sometimes translucent, greasy to the touch, and of a green or greenish color. It is found in granite, gneiss, greenstone, &c., in many parts of the world. Very fine specimens are brought from Persia, Siberia, and China, and are known as *Oriental Jade*. The kind called *Indian Jade* is olive green, and strikes fire with steel; that from China is whitish, and does not strike fire. N. is used for ornaments. The Turks make it into handles for sabres and daggers. Many imaginary virtues were

once ascribed to it, such as the cure of epileptic fits and of nephritic (Gr. *nephros*, kidney) complaints; hence its name.

**NEPHRITIS** (Gr. *nephros*, kidney), inflammation of the Kidneys. (q. v.).

**NEPOMUC.** See JOHN OF NEPOMUK.

**NE'POS**, Cornelius, a Roman historian, born in the first c. B.C., but the place and precise time of his birth are unknown. He was the friend of Cicero and Catulus. The only work of N.'s which has survived (if indeed it be his), is a series of twenty-five generally brief biographies of warriors and statesmen, mostly Greeks. These biographies are distinguished by the purity of their Latinity, the conciseness of their style, and their admirable exhibition of character, but sufficient care has not been exercised in the examination of authorities, nor in the relative importance of things duly regarded. Until the middle of the 16th c. these biographies, on the strength of the titles given in the various MSS., were generally ascribed to *Æmilius Probus*, a writer who lived in the latter part of the 4th c.; but in 1589, an edition was put out by the famous Dionysius Lambinus, who pronounced the so-called "Lives" of *Æmilius Probus* to be in reality the lost work of Cornelius Nepos, "De Viris Illustribus." His weightiest argument is drawn from the excellence of the Latin, and the chastity of the style, so unlike the corrupt and florid language of the Decline. Many critics hold that these Lives ought to be regarded as an abbreviation of the work of N. by Probus. This hypothesis is not without its difficulties, but it is perhaps the least objectionable of any. There are many editions, among which may be mentioned those of Van Staveren (Leyd. 1773), of Tzschucke (Gott. 1804), and of Bremi (Zur. 1820); and the book is in general use as a school-book. It has been very frequently translated into English and other languages.

**NE'PTUNE**, an ancient Italian god. It was doubtful whether he was originally a marine deity at all, for the old Italians were the very opposite of a maritime people, yet his name is commonly connected with *nato*, to swim; hence at an earlier period he may have borne another designation, afterwards forgotten. When the Romans became a maritime power, and had grown acquainted with Grecian mythology, they, in accordance with their usual practice, identified him with the Greek god whom he most resembled. This was *Poseidon*, also *Poteidan* (connected with *pote*, a drink, *pontos*, the sea, and *potamios*, a river). Poseidon appears in his most primitive mythological form as the god of water in general, or the fluid element. He was the son of Cronos (Saturn) and Rhea, and a brother of Jupiter. On the partition of the universe amongst the sons of Cronos, he obtained the sea as his portion, in the depths of which he had his palace near *Ægea*, in Eubcea. Here also he kept his brazen-hoofed and golden-mauled steeds, in a chariot drawn by which he rode over the waves, which grew calm at his approach, while the monsters of the deep, recognizing their lord, made sportive homage round his watery path. But he sometimes presented himself at the assembly of the gods on Olympus, and in conjunction with Apollo, built the walls of Troy. In the Trojan war he sided with the Greeks; nevertheless he subsequently shewed himself judicial to the great sea-wanderer Ulysses, who had blinded his son Polyphemus. He was also believed to have created the horse, and taught men its use. The symbol of his power was a trident, with which he raised and stilled storms, broke rocks, &c. According to Herodotus, the name and worship of Poseidon came to the Greeks from Libya. He was worshipped in all parts of Greece and Southern Italy, especially in the seaport towns. The Isthmian games were held in his honor. Black and white bulls, boars, and rams were offered in sacrifice to him. N. was commonly represented with a trident, and with horses or dolphins, often along with Amphitrite, in a chariot drawn by dolphins, and surrounded by tritons and other sea-monsters. As beffited the fluctuating element over which he ruled, he is sometimes figured asleep or reposeful, and sometimes in a state of violent agitation.

**NERBU'DDAH**, a river of Hindustan, rises in the Vindhya Mountains, at a height of from 3000 to 4000 feet above sea-level, in lat.  $29^{\circ} 40'$  n., long.  $81^{\circ} 52'$  e. It flows west, past Jhabalpur (190 miles from its source), where the great depression between the Vindhya Mountains on the north and the Satpura Mountains on the south, known as the Valley of the N., begins. The other principal towns on its banks are Hoshangabad, Burwani, and Barnich. At Hoshangabad it is 900 yards wide, and from five to six feet in depth. At Barnich it begins to expand into a wide estuary,

and after flowing 30 miles further, it falls into the Gulf of Cambay. Entire length about 800 miles, of which 55 miles are navigable for ships of considerable size.

NERCHI'NSK, an important mining town of Russia, Eastern Siberia, in the Trans-Baikal Territory, on the Nercha, a tributary of the Shilka, in lat. 51° 58' n., long. 116° 35' e., 4707 miles from St Petersburg. It was founded in 1658, and had in 1867, 3988 inhabitants. The district of which N. is the centre yields a good deal of gold yearly, together with large quantities of silver, lead, and iron, and precious stones. The only tin-mines in the empire are worked here. The soil in the vicinity is fertile, and the climate mild and agreeable.

NE'REIS, a genus, and *Nereidæ*, a family of *Annelida*, having a long slender body, a distinct head, with tentacles and eyes; the whole body covered with tubercles, and the gills lobed and tinted. They are all marine, and generally hide under rocks or in the sand. They swim actively, by rapid and undulating inflections of the body, and by the aid of numerous oars arranged along the sides; each formed of a stout footstalk, numerous bristles, and a flap. The proboscis is thick, strong, and armed with two jaws.

NE'REITES, the name given to animals which have left their impress on the Silurian Rocks, and which exhibit a form similar to the modern *Nereis*. They occur on the surface of the laminae of fine shales over which, when it was soft, the creature moved, leaving a long and tortuous trail, which is generally found to terminate in a more defined representation produced apparently by the body itself, although every trace of it has disappeared. See *ICHOLOGY*.

NERI, Philip de, a saint of the Roman Catholic Church, and founder of the Congregation of the Oratory (q. v.), was born of a distinguished family in Florence, July 21, 1515. His character, even in boyhood, foreshadowed the career of piety and benevolence to which he was destined, and he was commonly known among his youthful companions by the name of "good Philip." On the death of his parents, he was adopted by a very wealthy uncle, with whom he lived for some time at San Germano, near Monte Casino, and by whom he was recognised as his destined heir. But he relinquished all these prospects, for a life of piety and charity, and having come to Rome in 1534, he there completed his philosophical and theological studies, and won the esteem and reverence of all by his extraordinary piety, and his benevolence and activity in every good work whether of charity or of religion. Although he did not receive priest's orders till 1551, he had already been for years one of the most earnest and devoted in all the pious works of Rome for the instruction of the poor, the care of the sick, and the reclamation of the vicious; and in 1550, in unison with several of his friends, he established a confraternity for the care of poor pilgrims visiting Rome, and other houseless persons, as well as of the sick generally, which still subsists, and which has numbered among its associates many of the most distinguished members of the Roman Catholic Church. This confraternity, however, is chiefly note worthy as having been the germ of the far more celebrated CONGREGATION OF THE ORATORY (q. v.), which was founded by St Philip in concert with his friends Baronius and Turugio, both afterwards cardinals, Sabriati, and some others. Besides the general objects above indicated, and the spiritual duties designed for the personal sanctification of the members, the main object of this association was the moral instruction and religious training of the young and uneducated, who were assembled in chapels or oratories, for prayer and for religious and moral instruction. As a further means of withdrawing youth from dangerous amusements, sacred musical entertainments (thence called by the name of *oratorio*) were held in the oratory, at first consisting solely of hymns, but afterwards partaking of the nature of sacred operas or dramas, except that they did not admit the scenic or dramatic accompaniments of these more secular compositions. Religious and literary lectures also formed part of his plan, and it was in the lectures originally prepared for the Oratory that, at the instance of N., the gigantic "Church History" of Baronius had its origin. The personal character of N., the unselfish devotee of his life, his unaffected piety, his genuine love of the poor, his kindly and cheerful disposition, and, perhaps, as much as any of the rest, a certain quaint humor, and a tinge of what may almost be called drollery which pervaded many of his sayings and doings, contributed to popularise his institute, and to engage the public favor for himself and his fellow-laborers. He himself enjoyed

the reputation of sanctity and of miracles among his fellow-religionists almost beyond any of the modern saints; and he may still be described as emphatically the popular saint of the Roman people. He lived to an extreme age in the full enjoyment of all his faculties, and in the active discharge to the last of all the charitable duties to which his life had been devoted. He died at the age of 86, May 26, 1695. He was canonised by Gregory XV. in 1622. His only literary remains are his "Letters" (Svo. Padua, 1751); the "Constitutions" of his congregation, printed in 1612; some short spiritual treatises, and a few sonnets which are printed in the collection of "Rime Oneste."

**NERIA'D,** a town of British India, in the presidency of Bombay and district of Kaira, on the route from Baroda to Ahmedabad, 88 miles north-west from Baroda, on a feeder of the Sabarmati. It is the chief town of an extensive and well-cultivated tract, which produces much tobacco, and contains many prosperous towns and villages. Pop. (1871) 25,520.

**NE'RUM.** See OLEANDER.

**NE'RO,** Roman emperor from 54 A.D. to 68 A.D., was born at Antium, on the coast of Latium, 15th December 37 A.D., and was the son of Cn. Domitius Ahenobarbus and of Agrippina, the daughter of Germanicus Caesar, and sister of Caligula. His mother becoming the wife of the Emperor Claudius, Claudius adopted him (50 A.D.), and his name, originally L. Domitius Ahenobarbus, was changed to Nero Claudius Caesar Drusus Germanicus. After the death of Claudius (54 A.D.), the Praetorian Guards, at the instigation of Afranius Burrhus, their prefect, declared him emperor, instead of Claudius' son Britannicus, and their choice was acknowledged both by the senate and the provinces. His reign began with the semblance of moderation and good promise, under the guidance of Burrhus and his tutor Seneca the philosopher; but the baleful influence of his mother, together with his own moral weakness and sensuality, frustrated their efforts, and he soon plunged headlong into debauchery, extravagance, and tyranny. He caused Britannicus, the son of Claudius, to be treacherously poisoned at the age of 14, because he dreaded him as a rival, and afterwards (59 A.D.) caused his own mother Agrippina (with whom he was latterly on bad terms) to be assassinated, to please his mistress Poppaea Sabina (the wife of his principal boon-companion Otho, afterwards emperor), in order to marry whom he also divorced and afterwards put to death his wife Octavia (aged 20), the sister of Britannicus. The low servility into which the Roman senate had sunk at this time, may be estimated from the fact that it actually issued an address congratulating the hateful matricide on the death of Agrippina. N. himself, on the other hand, confessed that he was ever haunted by the ghost of his murdered mother. The affairs of the empire were at this time far from tranquil. In 61 A.D., an insurrection broke out in Britain under Queen Boudicea, which was, however, suppressed by Suetonius Paulinus. The following year saw an unsuccessful war against the Parthians in Armenia. At home, matters were not much better. The emperor was lampooned in verse; the senate and priesthood, alike venal, were also satirised by audacious malcontents; Burrhus, a valuable friend, died; and even Seneca, though not a great moralist, out of his books, thought it only decent to remove from court. In July 64, occurred a great conflagration in Rome, by which two-thirds of the city were reduced to ashes. N. himself is usually believed to have been the incendiary. It is said that he admired the spectacle from a distance, reciting verses about the burning of Troy, but many scholars are doubtful whether he really had any hand in it. At all events he laid the blame on the Christians—that mysterious sect, who, like the Jews in the middle ages, were the cause of all otherwise inexplicable calamities, and persecuted them with great fury. Moreover, he rebuilt the city with great magnificence, and reared for himself on the Palatine Hill a splendid palace, called, from the immense profusion of its golden ornaments, the *Aurea Domus*, or Golden House; and in order to provide for this expenditure, and for the gratification of the Roman populace by spectacles and distributions of corn, Italy and the provinces were unsparingly plundered. A conspiracy against him failed in the year 65, and Seneca and the poet Lucan fell victims to his vengeance. In a fit of passion he murdered his wife Poppaea, by kicking her when she was pregnant. He then proposed to Antonia, the daughter of Claudius, but was refused, whereupon he caused the too fastidious lady to be put to death, and married Statilia

Messallina, after killing her husband. He also executed or banished many persons highly distinguished for integrity and virtue. His vanity led him to seek distinction as a poet, a philosopher, an actor, a musician, and a charlatan, and he received sycophantic applause, not only in Italy, but in Greece, to which, upon invitation of the Greek cities, he made a visit in 67. But in 68, the Gallic and Spanish legions, and after them, the Praetorian Guards, rose against him to make Galba emperor, and N. fled from Rome to the house of a freedman, Phaon, about four miles distant. The senate, which had hitherto been most subservient, declared him an enemy of his country, and the tyrant ended his life by suicide, 11th June 68. One is sorry to learn that such a wretch had a taste for poetry, and was skilled in painting and modelling.

NERVA, M. Cocceius, a Roman emperor, elected by the senate after the murder of Domitian, 18th September 96. He was born 82 A.D., of a family belonging to Narbonne, in Umbria, and twice held the honor of consulship before his election to the dignity of emperor. He displayed great wisdom and moderation, rectified the administration of justice, and diminished the taxes; but finding himself, upon account of his advanced age, not vigorous enough to repress the insolence of the Praetorian Guards, he adopted M. Ulpius Trajanus, then at the head of the army of Germany, who succeeded him on his death, 27th January 98. After his decease, he obtained an apotheosis.

**NERVOUS DISEASES OF AN OBSCURE NATURE AND NERVOUSNESS.** Although the most important affections of the nervous system, as chorea, convulsions, epilepsy, hydrophobia, hypochondriasis, hysteria, neuralgia, paralysis, spasms, and tetanus, have been considered in special articles, there is an infinite variety of (often evanescent) forms which the diseases of the nervous system assume, some of which we propose now to consider.

These nervous affections are almost solely confined to women, and most of them may be regarded as modified forms of hysteria. *Simulated Pregnancy*, or, as the French physicians term it, *Nervous Pregnancy*, is an affection of not very rare occurrence. The abdomen generally enlarges, the catamenia are suppressed, and sickness, enlargement of the breasts, with the other symptoms of pregnancy, supervene (as far as they can be recognised by the non-professional observer), and it is only the non-appearance of the infant at the expected period that leads to a suspicion of the true nature of the case. The diagnosis of such a case is extremely difficult, and the most celebrated accoucheurs have been deceived. We commence with this extreme instance, as being singularly illustrative of the power which a perverted action of the nervous system may impress upon certain persons. The somewhat allied cases in which patients persist in fancying themselves pregnant in opposition to the opinion of their medical adviser (as the well-known case of Queen Mary, so admirably drawn by Froude), are far more numerous. The intestines are often implicated in cases of a deranged condition of the nervous system. The excretion of gas from the intestinal mucous membrane is often much increased in the class of patients commonly called nervous. The rattling sounds produced by the movement of the gas—scientifically known as *bomborgny*—are sometimes so loud as to prevent the patient from entering into society with comfort; and sometimes the mere fear of the occurrence of these sounds is sufficient to induce them. A depraved appetite, scientifically known as *pica*, is a common symptom of deranged nervous system both in chlorotic young women, in whom the catamenial discharge is not well established, and in pregnant women. See MORBID APPETITES. The not very rare cases of fasting women and girls belong to the same category. All these cases, however, ultimately undergo detection.

Dr Parry and other physicians have described cases of morbid sensibility of the mucous membrane of the pharynx, in which the muscles of the larynx are called into violent action if the patient takes a sip of water or other fluid. Such cases so strongly simulate hydrophobia, that they are described as hysterical hydrophobia.

Passing on to the special modifications which an abnormal state of the nervous system impresses on the organs of circulation, we have nervous palpitation of the heart, which may readily be distinguished from palpitation dependent on change of structure by due attention to symptoms. There is a peculiar form of abdominal pulsation, due solely to nervous influence, which may not very unfrequently be

felt on pressing the hand on the patient's abdomen. It has in many cases been mistaken for avenism.

The nervous symptoms implicating the respiratory organs are not only the most common of any, but are alarming and urgent, and may be readily mistaken for indications of serious inflammatory or organic disease. Nervous asthma, which is supposed to depend upon a spasmodic constriction of the bronchial tubes, is too well known to require comment. Women suffering from a deranged condition of the nervous system sometimes present symptoms of what may be termed nervous catarrh—such as a copious flow of tears, free discharge from the nostrils, and constant sneezing. Such cases are often periodic. They may be treated with preparations of iron, and are sometimes at once checked by a pinch of snuff. There are various forms of cough due mainly to nervous irritation, the difference in the character of the cough probably depending on the spot which is the seat of irritation. Thus, we hear of *spasmodic* cough, which is often accompanied by much straining and convulsive agitation, and somewhat resembles hooping-cough; *ringing* cough, accompanied by dyspnoea and hoarseness, or loss of voice; *barking* cough, often arising from irritation of the ovaries, &c. Such coughs as these are aggravated by depleting measures, ordinary cough medicines, &c., and usually disappear under the use of tonics.

The nervous affections of the motor system are conveniently grouped by Dr Laycock under three heads—(1) the first including those cases in which their is paralysis or spasm without distortion; (2) those in which distortion follows cessation of muscular equilibrium, as in the various forms of club-foot; and (3) paroxysmal affections. The best example of the first class is hysterical paralysis of the lower extremities, of which Sir Benjamin Brodie long ago wrote as follows: "I have known not a few, but very numerous instances of young ladies being condemned to the horizontal posture, and even to the torture of caustic tissues and setons, for several successive years, in whom air and exercise, and cheerful occupations would probably have procured a cure in the course of a few months." A notice of such cases as these may be found in the article HYSTERIA. Paralysis of a lateral half of the body, or of one limb only, may also be merely a manifestation of hysteria. The second class is well illustrated by the following case, which is reported by Mr Shaw. A young lady who had suffered from a train of symptoms indicative of a disturbed nervous system, had the ankle so turned round that she walked on one side of the foot. The knee was also bent outwards, and the spine was becoming distorted. Sir Charles Bell, who saw her in consultation, regarded the case as one of wilful deception, and in a year's time his diagnosis was completely established, scarcely any trace of lameness being apparent. Many of the joints—as the knee, hip, &c.—may be the seats of purely neuralgic symptoms, which so closely simulate organic disease of the cartilages, as to lead to the removal of the limb. Carmichael, Brodie, and others have recorded cases in which this terrible mistake has been made by experienced surgeons. Spinal irritation, or spinal tenderness, is a mysterious affection, whose diagnostic value is not very definite, as it may arise from a large number of distinct conditions, as, for example, disease of some part of the spinal cord, uterine disease, chronic disease of the intestinal viscera, &c.

One of the most anomalous affections of the nervous system ever recorded is described by Mr Holden in the "St. Bartholomew's Hospital Reports," 1867, vol. iii., pp. 299-305. The patient was a bright-looking boy about 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ , who, as he lay reading in bed, presented every appearance of perfect health; all that he complained of was what he called his "bump," which was about the size of a hen's egg, and lay on the right side of the neck, just above the shoulder. If the "bump" were touched, even most gently, the boy instantly lost all consciousness, and became deaf, dumb, and blind, while his body became arched like a bow, and was supported only by the back of the head and the heels, while his arms were rigidly extended. He might be pinched or pricked, but shewed no sign of sensation. After remaining in this state for somewhat less than a minute, he drew a deep long breath, which was followed by a deep sigh. Instantly the spasm ceased, and the body fell, seemingly lifeless, on the bed. After two other similar sighs, which occurred in a few seconds, the boy awoke as if from profound sleep, and in a few minutes was none the worse for what he had gone through. Whenever the bump was touched—even when the boy was fast asleep—the same phenomena occurred. (It was found that,

on touching the backbone in the dorsal region, the same series of events happened.) By continuous gentle manipulation of the bump, the boy was kept unconscious for twenty minutes. Another and even more remarkable phase of the boy's affection was his crowing and barking fit, which took place every day at the same time, almost to a minute. See the Reports above cited.

With this illustration, we close our remarks on what may be termed *Anomalous Nervous Affections*. With regard to *Nervousness*, which also stands at the end of this article, we may observe, that it is a word pertaining rather to the vocabulary of the patient (and pre-eminently of the female patient) than of the physician. It is usually understood to indicate a condition of which a restless mobility, with or without an undue excitability of the nerves of sensation, is the chief characteristic. For further information on this subject, the reader is referred to Dr Laycock's various works, and to Rönnberg "On Diseases of the Nervous System," 2 vols., translated by Dr Sieveking.

**NERVOUS SYSTEM.** The, is composed in all vertebrated animals of two distinct portions or systems—viz., the *cerebro-spinal* and *sympathetic* or *ganglionic*.

The *cerebro-spinal system* includes the brain and spinal cord (which form the *cerebro-spinal axis*), and the cranial and spinal nerves. It was termed by Bichat the nervous system of animal life, and comprises all the nervous organs concerned in sensation, volition, and mental action.

The *sympathetic system* consists essentially of a chain of ganglia connected by nervous cords, extending from the cranium to the pelvis, along each side of the vertebral column, and from which nerves with large ganglionic masses proceed to the viscera and blood-vessels in the cavities of the chest, abdomen, and pelvis. It was termed by Bichat the nervous system of organic life, since it seems to regulate—almost or quite independently of the will—the due performance of the functions of the organs of respiration, circulation, and digestion.

The essential parts of the *cerebro-spinal axis* are described in the articles **BRAIN**, **CEREBRUM** and **CEREBELLUM**, and **SPINAL CORD**. The brain and spinal cord are covered and protected by three membranes or meninges, as they are frequently termed—viz., the *dura mater*, the *arachnoid*, and the *pia mater*. The *dura mater* is a strong fibrous membrane, which supplies the cranial bones with blood in early life, and adheres firmly to their inner surface. It is less closely attached to the bony walls of the spinal canal. Inside the cranium it gives off processes (such as the *falx cerebri*, *tentorium cerebelli*, and *falx cerebelli*) which divide and support different parts of the brain; it gives a strong fibrous sheath to every nerve; and by splitting into two layers at certain points, it forms receptacles for venous blood, which are termed *SINUSES* (q. v.). The *arachnoid* (so called from its being supposed to be as thin as a spider's web) is a serous membrane, and, like all serous membranes, is a closed sac, consisting of a parietal and a visceral layer. The parietal layer adheres to the inner surface of the *dura mater*, to which it gives a smooth polished appearance; while the visceral layer somewhat loosely invests the brain and spinal cord, from direct contact with which, however, it is separated by the intervention of the *pia mater* and some loose areolar tissue. In most regions there is an interval between the visceral layer of the *arachnoid* and the *pia mater*, which is called the *sub-arachnoid cavity*, and is filled during life by the *cerebro-spinal fluid*. This fluid, which varies in quantity from two to ten ounces, keeps the opposed surfaces of the arachnoid in close contact, and affords mechanical protection to the nervous centres which it surrounds, and guards them against external shocks. It is accumulated in considerable quantity at the base of the brain, where it serves for the protection of the large vessels and nerves situated there. In fracture of the base of the skull, the draining away of this fluid, often in very large quantity, through the external auditory meatus, is often one of the most significant symptoms. It is doubtless secreted by the *pia mater*, which is the immediate investing membrane of the brain and spinal cord. This membrane consists of minute blood-vessels, held together by an extremely fine areolar tissue. It dips down between the convolutions and fissures of the brain, and is prolonged into the interior, forming the *velum interpositum* and the *choroid plexuses* of the fourth ventricle. It is by means of this membrane that the blood-vessels are conveyed into the nervous substance.

We now proceed to notice the nerves connected with the *cerebro-spinal centre* or

*axis.* These are usually described in two classes—the *spinal* and the *cranial or encephalic*. The former class consists of all those which arise from the spinal cord, and emerge from the spinal canal through the intervertebral foramina; while the latter includes those which arise from some part of the cerebro-spinal centre, and emerge through foramina in the cranium or skull.

The *Spinal Nerves* (exclusive of the spinal accessory nerve, which, from the fact that it emerges from the skull, is usually ranked among the cranial nerves) are thirty-one on either side, there being a pair for each pair of intervertebral foramina (whose formation is described in the article **VERTEBRA AND VERTEBRAL COLUMN**), and for the foramina between the atlas (the first or highest vertebra) and the occipital bone at the base of the skull. Every spinal nerve arises from the cord by two roots, an anterior and a posterior, of which the latter is distinctly the larger. Each root passes out of the spinal canal by a distinct opening in the dura mater. Immediately after its emergence, a ganglion is seen on the posterior root, and in the anterior surface of this ganglion the anterior root lies imbedded. Just beyond the ganglion, but not at all previously, the nervous fibres of both roots intermingle, and a compound nerve results. The trunk thus formed separates immediately after it has passed through the intervertebral canal into two divisions—the anterior and posterior—each of which contains filaments from both roots, and possessing, as will be immediately shown, perfectly different functions. These divisions, of which the anterior is considerably the larger, proceed to the anterior and posterior parts of the body respectively, and are distributed to the skin and the muscles. The anterior branch communicates with the sympathetic nerve. The mode of connection of the roots of the nerves with the cord is noticed in the article **SPINAL CORD**. These nerves are arranged in classes, according to the regions of the spine in which they originate, and we thus speak of eight cervical, twelve dorsal, five lumbar and six sacral nerves on either side.

The discovery of the separate functions of the anterior and posterior roots of the spinal nerves, which has been characterised as the first important step towards a right understanding of the physiology of the nervous system, was made by our distinguished countryman Sir Charles Bell, although there is reason to believe that Magendie, without any knowledge of Bell's experiments, arrived at similar conclusions at nearly the same time. The original experiments consisted in laying open the spinal canal in rabbits, and irritating or dividing the roots of the spinal nerves. It was observed that irritation of the anterior roots caused muscular movement, and that the posterior roots might be irritated without giving rise to any muscular action; while division of the posterior roots did not impair the voluntary power over the muscles. Hence it was inferred that the anterior roots were motor (or conveyed motive power to muscles), and the posterior roots not motor; but it was not fully determined what degree of sensibility remained in parts supplied from the divided roots. Numerous physiologists arrived at similar results to those of Bell; but the most conclusive experiments are those of Müller, who operated on frogs; in which, from the great width of the lower part of the spinal canal, the roots of the nerves can be exposed with great facility. In these experiments, it was found that irritation of the anterior root always excited muscular contraction, while no such effect followed irritation of the posterior root; that section of the anterior root caused paralysis (or loss of power) of motion, while section of the posterior root caused paralysis of sensation; and that when the anterior roots of the nerves going to the lower extremity were cut on one side, and the posterior roots, on the other, voluntary power without sensation remained in the latter, and sensation without voluntary motion in the former. The obvious conclusion to be derived from these experiments is, that the anterior root of each spinal nerve is *motor*, and the posterior *sensitive*. (In place of the terms *sensitive* and *motor*, the terms *aferent* and *efferent* are now frequently used. The functions of the nerves being to establish a communication between the nervous centres and the various parts of the body, and vice versa; an *aferent* nerve communicates the impressions made upon the peripheral nervous ramifications to the centres, while an *efferent* nerve conducts the impulses of the nervous centres to the periphery.)

The *Cranial Nerves*, although twelve in number on either side, were arranged by Willis ("Cerebri Anatome; cui accessit Nervorum Descriptio et Usus," 1664), whose system is still generally adopted, in nine pairs, which, taken from before backwards

in the order in which they are transmitted through the foramina at the base of the skull, stand as follows: 1st, Olfactory; 2d, Optic; 3d, Motore Oculorum; 4th, Pathetic; 5th, Trifacial; 6th, Abducentes; 7th, Portio Dura or Facial, Portio Mollis or Auditory; 8th, Glossopharyngeal, Par Vagum or Pneumogastric, Spinal Accessory; 9th, Hypoglossal.

They may be subdivided into three groups, according to their functions—viz. *Nerves of Special Sense*—the Olfactory (See Nose), Optic (see Eye), and Auditory (q. v.); *Nerves of Motion or Afferent Nerves*—the Motores Oculorum, Pathetic, Abducentes Facial, and Hypoglossal; and *Compound Nerves*—the Trifacial, Glossopharyngeal Pneumogastric, and Spinal Accessory.

The reason why no nerve of Taste is included in the above arrangement amongst the nerves of special sense will be subsequently seen; and we proceed briefly to notice the functions of the motor cranial nerves.

The 3d, 4th, and 6th pairs—the Motores Oculorum, Pathetic, and Abducentes—together make up the apparatus by which the muscles of the orbit (the four Recti, the superior and inferior Oblique, and the Levator palpebrae) are called into motion, and are sufficiently noticed in the article EYE.

● The *Facial Nerve*, or the *Portio Dura* of the 7th pair, is divisible into three stages. The first stage is the intercaval, from its origin to its exit from the cranial cavity, in association with the *Portio Mollis* or *Auditory Nerve* (q. v.), at the internal auditory meatus. The second stage is contained in the *Aqueduct of Fallopia*, a bony canal lying in the petrous portion of the temporal bone. In this stage it anastomoses with other nerves, and thus *sensory fibres* are introduced into it from the 5th pair and other sources, which make irritation of some of its branches to cause pain. The third stage commences with the emergence of the nerve through the stylo-mastoid foramen. The nerve now lies in the parotid gland, and after giving off the *posterior auricular*, and a few smaller branches, finally divides into the *temporal, facial, and cervical* branches. This diverging distribution of the nervous branches over the face forms the *per anserinus* of the older anatomists, from the supposed resemblance to the expanded foot of a goose. Careful dissection of this nerve shews that the great majority of its fibres are distributed to muscles; and indeed, if we except the muscles of mastication, which receive their motor power from the 3d division of the 5th pair, this may be regarded as the general motor nerve of the face. "The muscles which are supplied by the facial nerve are chiefly those upon which the aspect of the countenance and the balance of the features depend. The power of closing the eyelids depends upon this nerve, as it alone supplies the orbicularis palpebrarum; and likewise that of frowning, from its influence upon the corrugator supercilii. Anatomy indicates that this nerve is the motor nerve of the superficial muscles of the face and ear, and of the deep-seated muscles within the ear. This conclusion is abundantly confirmed by comparative anatomy. For wherever the superficial muscles of the face are well developed, and the play of the features is active, this nerve is large. In monkeys it is especially so. That extremely mobile instrument, the elephant's trunk, is provided with a large branch of the facial as its motor nerve. In birds, on the other hand, it is very small."—Todd and Bowman, "Physiological Anatomy and Physiology of Man," vol. ii. p. 107.

Before Sir Charles Bell commenced his experiments on the functions of the nerves, it was believed that the facial was the nerve of sensibility of the face, and it was on several occasions divided with the view of relieving tic-douloureux, of which it was supposed to be the seat. But the operation, of course, yielded no relief, and always inflicted a permanent injury, since it was succeeded by paralysis of the facial muscles, with total loss of control over the features and over the closing of the eye, on the side on which the operation was performed.

The treatment of facial palsy, which is often, especially if it arises from cold, a very temporary affection, although usually a very alarming one to the patient and his friends, is described in the article PARALYSIS.

The *Hypoglossal Nerve* (derived from the Greek words *hypo*, under, and *glotta*, the tongue) escapes from the cavity of the skull by the anterior condyloid foramen, and passes outwards and forwards around the pharynx to the interior surface of the tongue, where it breaks up into its terminal branches, which supply the muscular structure of that organ with motor power. This nerve communicates with the pharyn-

**mogastic nerve, with the sympathetic (by branches derived from the superior cervical ganglion), and with the cervical plexus, soon after its emergence from the cranium; and subsequently, as it curves round the occipital artery, it gives off the long anastomosing branch known as the *Descendens noni*.**

Experiments on living animals, comparative anatomy, and pathological investigations, alike indicate that this is the motor nerve of the tongue. In cases of paralysis of this nerve, the power of articulation is much injured or totally destroyed; and this is often one of the first symptoms which lead the physician to apprehend serious cerebral lesion.

We now proceed to the consideration of the **Compound Nerves**, beginning with the *Trifacial or Fifth Nerve*. This nerve, as was first pointed out by Sir Charles Bell, presents a remarkable resemblance to the spinal nerves in its mode of origin; for it arises by two roots, one large and the other small, and on its larger root, as on the posterior and larger root of the spinal nerves, is a distinct ganglion; the two roots being quite distinct until after the formation of the ganglion, when the lesser one coalesces with the lowest branch, which emerges from the ganglion to form the inferior maxillary nerve. This ganglion, which is known as the *Gasserian Ganglion*, and which is formed upon the larger root of the nerve, lies upon the upper surface of the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and is of somewhat triangular form, with its base directed forwards and outwards. From this base there proceed three nerves—viz., the ophthalmic, on the inside; the superior maxillary, in the middle; and the inferior maxillary, externally. The first two of these nerves consist exclusively of fibres from the ganglionic root, while the third—the inferior maxillary—is composed of fibres from both roots, and is therefore a compound nerve. From the mode of distribution, as well as from that of origin, it is inferred that the ophthalmic and superior maxillary are purely sensory, while the inferior maxillary is a motor and sensory nerve. Experiments on living animals confirm the inference that have been drawn on anatomical grounds. Division of the ophthalmic or of the superior maxillary nerve, induces loss of sensibility without any serious impairment of muscular power; but when the inferior maxillary nerve, on either side, is divided, the power of mastication is destroyed on that side, and the sensibility of the tongue and of the lower part of the face on that side is lost.

The lingual or gustatory branch of the inferior maxillary is distributed to the mucous membrane and papillæ at the fore part and sides of the tongue, where it acts both as a nerve of common sensibility and of taste. (The consideration of the respective parts which this nerve and the glossopharyngeal play in the sense of taste, is considered in the articles **TONGUE** and **SENSE OF TASTE**.)

The trifacial nerve is the seat of the affection known as *tic-douloureux*, and described in the article **NEURALGIA**. It is in the dental branches of this nerve that toothache is situated; and in the process of teething in young children, the irritation of these branches, consequent upon the pressure of the teeth, often gives rise to convulsions, by being conveyed to the medulla oblongata, and exciting motor nerves by reflex action.

The **Glossopharyngeal Nerve** is principally an afferent or sensory nerve, but has a small motor root. It escapes from the cranium in association with the pneumogastric and spinal accessory nerves, through the same foramen as that through which the jugular vein emerges. It then descends by the side of the pharynx, and after anastomosing with the facial and pneumogastric nerves, and giving off a branch to the tympanum of the ear, terminates in branches to the mucous membrane of the base of the tongue, of the palate, tonsils, and pharynx, and in twigs to the digastric and stylopharyngeal muscles; so that its distribution is almost entirely to sentient surfaces. From a careful examination of the investigations of Dr John Reid and others regarding the functions of this nerve, Todd and Bowman, arrive at the following conclusions: 1. "It is the sensitive nerve of the mucous membrane of the fauces and of the root of the tongue, and in the latter situation it ministers to taste and touch, as well as common sensibility; and being the sensitive nerve of the fauces, it is probably concerned in the feeling of nausea, which may be so readily excited by stimulating the mucous membrane of this region." 2. "Such are its peripheral organisation and central connections, that stimulation of any part of the mucous membrane in which it ramifies, excites instantly to contraction all the facial muscles supplied by the pneumogastric and the facial nerves; and the permanent irrita-

tion of its peripheral ramifications, as in the case of sore throat, will affect other muscles supplied by the facial nerve likewise. It is therefore an excitor of the movements necessary to pharyngeal deglutition."—"Op. cit." vol. ii. p. 119.

The *Pneumogastric Nerve* or *Par Vagum*, is distributed to so many important organs (the larynx, heart, lungs, stomach, &c.), and is of such great physiological importance, that a special article is devoted to its consideration.

The *Spinal Accessory Nerve* is more remarkable for its peculiar course than in any other respect. It rises from the spinal cord at the level of the fifth or sixth cervical nerve, passes upwards between the anterior and posterior roots of the cervical nerves into the skull, and emerges from the cranial cavity with the two preceding nerves. It is chiefly distributed to the trapezius muscle.

In the above remarks on the cranial nerves, we have omitted all notice of their points of origin, as that subject is sufficiently noticed in the article BRAIN.

We shall now briefly notice the mode in which the extremities receive their nerves. These nerves are derived from the spinal nerves, through the intervention of what is termed in anatomy a *plexus*. Four or five nerves proceed from the spinal cord for a certain distance, without any communication with each other. They then divide, and from the conjunction of the adjacent branches new nerves result, which again subdivide and interchange fibres. From the net-work or plexus thus formed nerves emerge, each of which is composed of fibres derived from several of the original branches. The most important of these plexuses are found in the regions of the neck, the axilla, the loins, and the sacrum, and are known as the cervical, brachial, lumbar, and the sacral plexuses.

The *Brachial Plexus* is formed by communication between the anterior roots of the last four cervical nerves and the first dorsal nerve. These nerves are nearly equal in size. The branches emerging from this plexus supply the shoulder and the arm.

The *Lumbar* and *Sacral Plexuses*, with the nerves of the lower extremity, include the first four lumbar nerves which, with the branch from the last dorsal, form the lumbar plexus; the four upper sacral nerves, which, with the last lumbar, form the sacral plexus; the anterior crural or femoral nerve; its branches; its terminal branch, the long or internal saphenous; the gluteal nerve; the lesser ischiatic nerve; the greater ischiatic or sciatic nerve (the largest nerve in the body), dividing at about the lower third of the thigh, the popliteal nerve, the peroneal nerve; muscular branches of the popliteal, given off in the posterior region of the knee; the posterior tibial nerve, dividing into the internal and external plantar nerves, which are distributed to the sides of the toes, in precisely the same manner as the median and ulnar nerves are distributed to the fingers; the external saphenous nerve; and the two terminal branches of the peroneal nerve—viz., the anterior tibial and the musculo-cutaneous nerves.

The general arrangement of the *sympathetic system*, or, as it is sometimes termed, the *sympathetic nerve*, has been already noticed at the beginning of this article. Its cephalic portion consists of four ganglia on either side—viz., (1) the Ophthalmic, or Lenticular Ganglion; (2) the Spheno-palatine, or Meckel's Ganglion; (3) the Otic, or Arnold's Ganglion; and (4) the Submaxillary Ganglion. They are all closely connected with the branches of the trifacial nerve. The cervical portion contains three ganglia, the dorsal twelve, the lumbar four, the sacral five, and the coccygeal one, which, instead of lying on the side of the vertebral column, is placed in front of the coccyx, and forms a point of convergence for the two ganglionated cords which run from the cervical to the sacral region parallel to one another. Each ganglion may be regarded as a distinct nervous centre, from which branches pass off in various directions. In addition to the cords of communication between the ganglia, certain sets of nerves may be usually traced—viz. (1) *visceral* nerves, which generally accompany branches of arteries to the viscera (the lung, heart, kidneys, liver, spleen, and intestine, &c.); (2) *arterial* branches, distributed to arteries in the vicinity of the ganglia; and (3) branches of *communication* with the cerebral and spinal nerves.

The only nerve that our limited space will permit us to notice is the *great splanchnic*. This nerve arises by separate roots from the 5th, 6th, 7th, 8th, and 9th thoracic ganglia. These roots unite to form a large round cord, which passes obliquely downwards and forwards, and after entering the abdomen by piercing the dia-

phragm, ends in a large and complex ganglion, the *semilunar ganglion*, which lies upon the side and front of the aorta, at the origin of the cœlial axis. The semilunar ganglia, with the nerves entering and emerging from them, combine to form the *solar plexus*, which, from the mass of nervous matter which it contains, has been termed the *abdominal brain*. It is in consequence of the existence of this great nervous centre, that a blow in the region in which it lies always inflicts a severe nervous shock, and not unfrequently causes death.

Experiments and clinical observations lead to the conclusion, that the sympathetic system supplies motor power to many of the internal viscera, especially the heart and the intestinal canal; that it also contains sensitive fibres, as is shown by the sufferings of patients during the passage of a gall-stone or a renal calculus through a duct, whose sole nervous energy is derived from this system; that it presides over the process of secretion in the most important gland; and that it operates on the blood-vessels in causing them to contract, while the cerebro-spinal nerves produce the opposite effect.

On examining different parts of the nervous system under the microscope, we find that the nervous matter is distributed in two forms, the *vesicular* and the *fibrous*. The vesicular matter is gray in color, and granular in texture, contains uncelated nerve cells, and is largely supplied with blood; it is immediately associated with mental actions, and is the seat in which the force manifested in nervous action originates. The fibrous matter is, in most parts, white and composed of tubular fibres, though in some parts it is gray and consists of solid fibres; it is less vascular than the former, and is simply the conductor of impressions made upon it. When these two kinds of matter are united together into a mass they form a *nervous centre*, such as the brain or spinal cord, while the nerves passing to and from them are composed of threads of fibrous matter. The nervous matter of both kinds is a soft, inelastic substance, with very slight tenacity; the softness being in a great measure due to the large quantity of water which it contains.

The *fibrous* form is the most extensively diffused throughout the body. It forms a large portion of the nervous centres, and is the main constituent of all the nerves. It occurs in two varieties—viz. as the *tubular fibre*, or the *nerve tube*, and the *gelatinous fibre*, the latter being of comparatively rare occurrence, and being found chiefly in the sympathetic system.

When a *tubular fibre* is viewed by reflected light, it presents a beautiful pearly lustre, and appears to be homogeneous. But if viewed by transmitted light, with a sufficient magnifying power, indications of structure become visible. Externally, there is the *tubular membrane*, a homogeneous and probably very delicate elastic tissue, according to Todd. Within the edge of the tubular membrane, on either side, are seen two thicker and darker lines, which appear to mark the outer and inner limits of the structure known as the *white substance of Schwann*, which forms a tube within the tubular membrane; and within the white substance of Schwann is a transparent material occupying the axis of the nerve tube, and commonly known as the *axis cylinder*. By the application of reagents, it is seen that the chemical composition of the white substance is different from that of the axis cylinder, and hence the functions of these two parts are doubtless different; the latter is in general soft and pulpy. The nerve-tubes are cylindrical in form, and lie parallel to one another, without any incapsulation, if we except their frequent terminations in loops. Their average diameter is about 1-3000th of an inch.

The *gelatinous fibres* are flattened, soft, and homogeneous in appearance, and contain numerous round or oval nuclei. Their diameter is about 1-5000th of an inch. In appearance they much resemble the fibres of unstriped muscle.

The *vesicular* form of nervous matter is of a dark reddish-gray color, is found only in the nervous centres, is always well supplied with capillaries, and consists essentially of nucleated cells or vesicles, which are most commonly globular or ovoidal, but often present one or more tail-like processes, when they are termed *candate*. These candate vesicles present great difference in shape and size. The processes are very delicate, and readily break off close to the vesicle. They probably either serve to connect distant vesicles, or else become continuous with the axis cylinders of the tubular fibres.

We may now consider the way in which the nerves and nervous centres are made up of these anatomical elements.

A nerve is composed of a bundle of tubular fibres surrounded and connected by areolar tissue, which forms a sheath known as the *neurolemma*, whose office is to protect the delicate tubes, and to support the capillaries from which they derive their nourishment.

The nervous centres exhibit a union of the vesicular and fibrous textures, which may be variously arranged. In the Brain (q. v.) the vesicular matter lies externally, forming the gray or cineritious substance; in the spinal cord, on the other hand, the vesicular or gray matter lies in the central portion, and the fibrous or white matter is external to it; while in the ganglia the two structures are more or less uniformly associated.

From the observations which have been made in an earlier part of this article on the functions of individual nerves, it is sufficiently obvious that it is through the instrumentality of the nervous system that the mind influences the bodily organs, as when volition or emotion excites them to action; and that, conversely, impressions made on the organs of the body affect the mind, and excite mental perceptions through the same channel. "In this way," to quote the words of Dr Todd, "the nervous system becomes the main agent of what has been called the life of relation; for without some channel for the transmission of the mandates of the will to the organs of motion, or some provision for the reception of those impressions which external objects are capable of exciting, the mind, thus completely isolated, could hold no communion with the external world." The nature of the connection between the mind and nervous matter is, and must ever be, the deepest mystery in physiology, and one into which the human intellect can never hope to penetrate. There are, however, many actions of the body in the production of which the mind has no share. Of this kind are the nervous actions, which are associated with the functions of organic life, such as digestion, respiration, and circulation. Again, there is another class of actions for which two nerves (an afferent or excitator, and a motor) and a nervous centre are necessary. These are the actions known as *reflex* or *excito-motor*, for the full investigation of which physiology is especially indebted to the labors of the late Dr Marshall Hall. For example, the movement of the oesophagus in propelling the food onwards to the stomach, is caused by the stimulus of the food acting on the excitator or afferent nerves, which, through the spinal cord, excite the motor or efferent nerves, and thus give rise to the necessary muscular action. When the edge of the eyelid is touched, the excitator nerve (a branch of the ophthalmic division of the fifth or trifacial nerve) conveys the impression of the stimulus to the nervous centre, and the eye is at once closed by the motor influence, which is transmitted by a branch of the facial nerve to the orbicular muscle. In such cases as these—and they form a very numerous class—the mind takes no part. In some of them it is conscious of the application of the stimulus, as well as of the muscular act which follows; but even in these cases no effort of the will could modify or interrupt the sequence of the phenomena.

It has been already shewn that the stimuli, by which the action of nerves is commonly excited, are of two kinds, mental and physical, and the change which these stimuli produce in a nerve develops the power known to physiologists as the *vis nervosa*, or nervous force. "The nervous force," says Dr Sharpey, in his "Address on Physiology" in 1862, "has long been likened to electricity, but rather through a vague perception of analogy than from any rigorous comparison. It is true that electric force is developed in the nerves, and even exhibits modifications connected with different conditions of nervous action. Still, it must be borne in mind that the evolution of electricity is a common accompaniment of various processes involving chemical change, whether within the living body or in external nature; and the tendency of recent speculation is not towards the identification of the nerve force with electricity, but rather to suggest that the two stand related in the same way as electricity and other physical forces are related to each other—that is, as manifestations of a common force or energy, of which they, severally, are the special modifications." The velocity with which impressions are transmitted by the nerves has been recently made the subject of investigation, but it is doubtful how far the observations are to be depended on, in consequence of the various sources of fallacy by which such experiments are beset. According to Hirsch, the velocity is 84 metrs.<sup>s</sup>, or about 113 feet per second in man; while Helmholtz fixes it at 150 feet per second in the frog.

The description of the nervous system given in the foregoing pages is applicable, with slight modifications, to all the Vertebrates; the main differences being in the degrees of the development of the brain—a point which has been already noticed at the commencement of the article BRAIN. For a sufficient notice of the plan of the nervous system in the Invertebrate animals, the reader is referred to the articles ARTICULATED ANIMALS, MOLLUSCA, and RADIA. It is only in the lowest subdivision of the Animal Kingdom, the PROTOZOA, that no traces of a nervous system can be detected.

For further information on the subject of this article, the reader is referred to Dr Carpenter's works on "Human" and "Comparative Physiology," to Dr Todd's article on "The Nervous System" in "The Cyclopaedia of Anatomy and Physiology," to Todd and Bowditch's "Physiological Anatomy and Physiology of Man," and to Funke's "Lehrbuch der Physiologie."

NESS (identical with Eng. *nose*, A.-S. *næs*, Ger. *nase*, Ice. *nes*, Lat. *nasus*, Fr. *nez*), a geographical termination, signifying promontory. Names in -ness abound among the Orkney and Shetland Islands, and on the Coast of Caithness; and they occur, though less frequently, along the east coast of Great Britain, as far as Dungeness in Kent. As the corresponding Scandinavian termination -naes prevails in the names of promontories in Norway, Sweden and Denmark (e. g. Lindnesnaes, in south of Norway), the existence of names in -ness in Britain is held as an evidence of Scandinavian and Danish colonisation. Grisnez, on the north coast of France, points to the same source.

NESS. Loch, a long narrow lake in Inverness-shire, Scotland, extends north-east and south-west, and is 23 miles in length and  $1\frac{1}{4}$  mile in average breadth. Its north-east extremity reaches a point 6 miles south-west of the town of Inverness. It receives the Morriston, the O'ch. the Foyers, and other streams, and its surplus waters are carried off to the Moray Firth by the River Ness. It lies in the valley of Glenmore, and is enclosed by mountain masses averaging 1000 feet in height; but the scenery on its banks is not strikingly picturesque. In many places it is about 180 fathoms in depth, and owing to the length of time which this immense body of water takes to cool down to the freezing-point, ice never forms to any considerable extent.

NEST-BUILDING APES. Reference was made, but with some hesitation in the article GORILLA, to certain new species of apes of the same genus with the chimpanzee and gorilla, said to have been discovered by M. du Chaillu in Western Africa. The complete vindication which has since taken place of that traveller's reputation as a truthful and trustworthy observer, makes it necessary to give some further notice of these now unquestioned discoveries, exceedingly remarkable on account of the habits of some of the animals. To protect themselves from the rain, they construct nests, or rather umbrellas, among the branches of the trees, of long branches and leaves laid one over the other very carefully and thickly, so as to be "capable of shedding water." The branches are fastened to the tree in the middle of the structure by portions of the stems of twining shrubs, abundant in these forests. When the leaves dry, so that the structure no longer keeps out the rain, the owner builds another shelter; and Du Chaillu says this happens once in ten or fifteen days. The nest-building ape (*Troglodytes calvus*, called Nshiego Mbouye by the natives) is nearly four feet in length. Du Chaillu supposes this ape to rest all night on a projecting branch under its nest or umbrella, with an arm round the stem of the tree for security. The nests are generally constructed about 15 or 20 feet from the ground, and invariably on a tree which stands a little apart from others, and which has no limbs below the one in which the nest is placed, probably in order to safety from serpents and other animals. These apes inhabit the most lonely parts of the forests. The nests are never congregated together, so that this ape does not seem to be gregarious. It feeds on fruits.—Du Chaillu discovered a second species of nest-building ape, on his second visit to the Ogobui, very similar to the *Troglodytes calvus*, but which constructs its nest in a somewhat different fashion. It is called Nshiego Nkengo by the natives. It makes its nest or shelter at the height of about 20 or 30 feet from the ground, by bending over and intertwining a number of the weaker boughs, the foliage of which forms its protection from rain.

**NESSELRODE.** Karl Rob, Count, one of the most eminent diplomats of modern times, was born, 14th December 1790, at Lisbon, where his father, a descendant of an ancient noble family on the Lower Rhine, was then Russian ambassador. He early devoted himself to a diplomatic career, gained in a high degree the esteem and confidence of the Emperor Alexander, and in 1813 was one of the representatives of Russia in the important negotiations which took place between the powers who combined against France. In 1814, he accompanied the Russian Emperor to France, and on 1st March signed the treaty of the Quadruple Alliance at Chaumont. He was also one of those who concluded the treaty with Marshal Marmont for the surrender of Paris. He continued to take a principal part in all the negotiations which ended in the Peace of Paris; and was one of the most prominent and active of the plenipotentiaries in the Congress of Vienna. He was one of the most active diplomats of the Holy Alliance, and accompanied the Emperor Alexander to the Congresses of Aix-la-Chapelle, Troppau, Laibach, and Verona. The Emperor Nicholas reposed in him the same confidence, and under his reign he conducted the Russian policy in the affairs of Greece and Turkey. Amidst the European convulsions of 1848 and 1849, Russia, under his guidance, refrained from interference, till opportunity occurred of dealing a deadly blow to the revolutionary cause in Hungary; and at the same time, of bringing Austria very much under Russian influence. Being one of the chiefs of the German or moderate party in Russia, N. is supposed to have exerted himself strenuously to preserve peace with the Western Powers; and after the war had broken out in 1854, and the ill success of Russia was manifest, he undoubtedly strove for the re-establishment of peace, and for the assembling of a congress to settle all disputes. After the accession of Alexander II. he retired from the direction of foreign affairs, and was succeeded in that department by Prince Alexander Gortchakov, but retained the dignity of chancellor of the empire, and a seat in the ministerial council. He died at St Petersburg, 23d March 1862.

**NESTOR,** according to ancient Grecian legend, the son of Neleus and Chlora, born in the Messenian Pylos, escaped destruction when Hercules slew all his brothers, being then a dweller among the Geroinians, with whom he was brought up. He married Eurydice, by whom he became the father of a numerous family. In his youth he was distinguished for valor in war with the Arcadians, Eleans, and the Centaurs, and in his advanced age for wisdom. Although he was an old man when the expedition against Troy was undertaken, he joined it with his Pylians in sixty ships. Homer makes him the great counsellor of the Grecian chiefs, and extols his eloquence as superior even to that of Ulysses. His authority was even considered equal to that of the immortal gods. N. returned in safety to his own dominions after the fall of Troy, along with Menelaus and Diomedes, and continued for long to rule over the people of Pylos.

**NESTORIANS,** a sect of the 5th c., so-called from its founder **NESTORIUS**, under whose head their distinctive doctrine, as well as their history up to the time of its condemnation, are sufficiently detailed. Of the later history it will be enough to say that, even after the Council of Ephesus, Nestorianism prevailed in Assyria and Persia, chiefly through the influence of the well-known school of Edessa. Although vigorously repressed in the Roman empire, it was protected, and probably the more on that account, by the Persians, and ultimately was established by King Pherozes as the national church, with a patriarch resident at Seleucia; its fundamental doctrine, as laid down in the synod of Seleucia in 496, being the existence of two distinct persons as Christ, united solely by a unity of will and affection. Under the rule of the califs, the N. enjoyed considerable protection, and throughout the countries of the East their community extended itself. Of their condition in Central Asia during the medieval period, some account will be found under the head of **PRESTER JOHN**. In the middle of the 12th c., their church reckoned no fewer than 90 bishops under regular metropolitans, together with 58 others, whose special dependencies are unknown; but in the destructive career of Tamerlane, they shared the common fate of all the representatives of the eastern civilisation. In the 16th c., a great schism took place in this body, of which a portion renounced their distinctive doctrine, and placed themselves under the jurisdiction of the Roman pontiff, to whom,

under the title of Chaldean Christians, they have since remained faithful. The others still maintain their old creed and their ancient organisation. Their chief seat is in the mountain ranges of Kurdi-tan. They are at present a poor and illiterate race, numbering about 140,000, and subject to a patriarch residing at Diz (who is always chosen from the same family, and takes invariably the name of Schannin, or Simon) and 16 bishops. All these are bound to observe celibacy, but marriage is permitted to the priests and inferior clergy. Their liturgical books recognise seven sacraments, but confession is infrequent, if not altogether disused. Marriage is dissoluble by the sentence of the patriarch; communion is administered in both kinds; and although the language of the liturgy plainly implies the belief of transubstantiation, yet, according to Lazard, that doctrine is not popularly held among them. The fasts are strict, and of very long duration, amounting to very nearly one half of the entire year. They pray for the dead, but are said to reject the notion of purgatory, and the only sacred image which they use or reverence is that of the cross. The N. of Kurdistum, like the Christians of the Lebanon, have suffered much from time to time through the fanaticism of the wild tribes among whom they reside. In a massacre in 1843, and again in 1846, many fell victims, and even still they owe much of their security to the influence exercised in their favor by the foreign representatives at the Turkish and Persian courts.

There is another body of N. who have existed in India from the period of the early migrations of the sect, and who are called by the name of Syrian Christians. Their chief seat is in Travancore, where they number about 100,000. Among both bodies of N., European missionaries, Catholic and Protestant, have of late years endeavored to effect an entrance. See Perkins's "Residence of Eight Years in Persia, among the Nestorian Christians" (Andover, 1848); "Anderson's Oriental Churches" (1872); and Den Stanley's "History of the Eastern Church."

NESTO'RIUS, a native of Germanicla, a city of Northern Syria, in the patriarchate of Antioch, was probably a disciple of the celebrated Theodore of Mopsuestia; and having received priest's orders at Antioch, became so eminent for his fluency, if not eloquence, as a preacher, and for grave demeanor and exemplary life, that on occasion of a dispute about the election of a patriarch at Constantinople he was selected by the emperor, in 428 A.D., to fill the vacant see. Soon after his consecration a controversy arose as to the divine and human natures of our Lord, in which N. took a leading part. One of the priests, who followed N. to Constantinople, Anastasius, having in a sermon, which was by some ascribed to N. himself, denied that the Virgin Mary could be truly called the "Mother of God," being only in truth the mother of the man Christ, N. warmly defended Anastasius, espoused this view, and elaborated it into the theory which has since been known by his name, and which equivalently, if not in formal terms, exaggerated the distinction of two natures in our Lord into a distinction of two persons—the human person of Christ and the Divine Person of the Word. An animated controversy ensued, which extended from Constantinople to the other patriarchates, and drew from Cyril, patriarch of Alexandria, a formal condemnation of the doctrine of N. in twelve anathemas still preserved, and a similar condemnation, accompanied by a threat of deposition and excommunication, from Celestine, bishop of Rome, unless he would withdraw the obnoxious doctrine. N. remaining firm in his opinions, a general council was convened at Ephesus in 431, at which Cyril took the most active and prominent part, and in which, notwithstanding the absence of the patriarch of Antioch and his bishops, N. was condemned and deposed. Considerable opposition was offered to this judgment for a time, but ultimately N. was confined in a monastery near Constantinople, whence, after four years, still persisting in his views, he was banished to the Greater Oasis in Upper Egypt, and after several changes of his place of confinement, died in exile. The account given by Evagelius, that his death was caused by a disease in which his tongue was eaten by worms, rests, according to Evagelius himself, on a single and unnamed authority. The more probable narratives ascribe his death to the effects of a fall. The date of this event is uncertain. It was after 439, when Socrates wrote his history ("Hist. Ecc." vii. 84), but there is little doubt that he was already dead in 450, when the Eutychian controversy first began to attract notice.

NESTS (Lat. *nidus*, Gael. *nead*; allied to Ger. *nähen*, Sax. *nestan*, Lat. *nectere*,

to sew, bind, or tie) are the structures which animals prepare for the rearing of their young. They are very different, not only when the creatures which construct them belong to widely separated divisions of the animal kingdom, but often when the animals are of the same class, or even when they are nearly allied; and whilst some construct very simple nests, and those of others are very curious and elaborately framed, some make no nest at all. Among MAMMALS, the only nest-builders are certain rodents, as mice, dormice, squirrels, &c. The signatures of some of the species are as artfully contrived and as beautiful as the nests of birds. It is among BIRDS that nest-making is most general; although there are not a few species which merely scrape a hole in the ground, and many sea-fowls lay their eggs on ledges of naked rock. The situations chosen by birds for their nests are very various, each species affecting some particular kind of situation, as each species also exhibits a uniformity in choice of materials and in form and mode of structure; these particulars, however, being all liable to modification—within certain limits—according to circumstances. Some birds' nests consist merely of a few straws or leaves collected together; some, of such materials as twigs, straws, moss, hair, &c., very nicely interwoven, and often with a lining finer than the framework; some, as those of swallows, are made of clay or other soft material, which hardens as it dries. Birds' nests are generally open at top, but some, as those of swallows, are so placed under a projection of rock or of a building, as to be covered, and have the opening at the side; whilst others are vaulted, and have the opening at the side. Some are situated in holes excavated in clayey, loamy, or sandy banks. The nests of troupials, baltimores, weaver-birds, &c., are remarkable for the ingenious contrivance displayed in them; and a very singular nest is that of the tailor-bird, made by sewing together the edges of leaves. These are noticed in the articles on these birds. Many birds are as solitary as possible in their nidification; whilst others, as rooks and herons, congregate in large communities.

No REPTILES are known to construct nests; their utmost approach to it being to make a hole for their eggs in sand, or in some other suitable situation.—The nests of FISHES have recently attracted much attention of naturalists. It is supposed that the ancients were acquainted with the nest-building instinct of some fishes; but it was unknown to modern naturalists till 1838, when Mr Edwards discovered it in a species of Stickleback (q. v.). It now gives interest to many a fresh-water aquarium. Not many fishes are yet known as nest-builders. Among them are gobies and the goramy. Many are known not to construct nests. The salmon and others exhibit an approach to the nest-building habit, in making a place for their eggs in the sand or gravel which they choose for a spawning-bed.—Many INSECTS—a small proportion, however, of the whole number, and mostly Hymenoptera—construct nests, as bees, wasps, and ants. The nests of the social bees and wasps are also their ordinary habitations, but the nests of solitary bees are entirely devoted to their young. A few insects, not hymenopterous, as some weevils, may also be said to make nests; but among insects provision for the wants of the young is usually made in very different ways. Certain spiders, amongst which may be named the water-spider, construct nests.—The instinct of nest-making, connected as it is with the instinctive care for their young which the Creator has made so important a part of the nature of so many animals, is by no means an index either of that care or of the affection with which, in many cases, it is conjoined; and some of the animals which construct no nests are among those in which affection for their young is exhibited in the highest degree.—The nest-making instincts of animals seem to be a very essential part of their constitution; and even in the most perfect domestication are still retained and exhibited; although the accommodation to circumstances which is also manifested shews something—and that not inconsiderable—of reason.

NESTS, edible, an important article of commerce between the Eastern Islands and China, and of luxury in China, are the nests of several species of Swallow (q. v.), of the genus *Collocalia*. The best known of these birds, *C. esculenta*, is about  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches in length, 11 inches in expanse of wing, dusky black above, pale ash-color beneath. The nest is shaped like that of the common swallow, and adheres to a rock; vast numbers being found together—often in absolute contiguity—in caves of the Eastern Archipelago; as those of the same and allied species are in other islands of the East Indies. The nests themselves are formed of grass, sea-weed fibres, small leaves, &c., and are attached to the rock by a sort of bracket, made of a

gelatinous substance, which is the part really eaten. This was formerly thought to be made of sea-weeds, but is now known to consist of saliva, which the swallow exudes from the salivary glands under the tongue. The nests are collected by means of ladders, and often by-means of ropes, which enable the gatherers to descend from the summit of a precipice, like the rock-fowlers of the North. The gathering of the nests takes place after the young are fledged, thrice in a year. In the Chinese market the nests are sold for from £2 to £7 per lb., according to the quality, and they are of course used only by the most wealthy, chiefly for thickening rich soups. The imports at Canton are reckoned at 120,000 piculs, or 168,000 lbs., representing about 8,400,000 nests. The nests are very wholesome and nourishing, but quite devoid of the peculiar properties which the Chinese ascribe to them. Five caverns at Carung Bollong, in Java, contain 330,000 swallows, and yield annually about 500,000 nests. The Dutch export them to China. The nests weigh about half an ounce each.

**NETHERLANDS.** The Kingdom of, lies between  $50^{\circ} 43'$  and  $58^{\circ} 26'$  n. lat., and  $30^{\circ} 22'$  and  $7^{\circ} 16'$  e. long., is bounded on the n. by the North Sea, e. by Hanover and the western part of Prussia, s. by Liège, Belgian Limburg, Antwerp, East and West Flanders, w. by the North Sea. Its greatest length from north to south is 195 English miles, and its greatest breadth from the west, on the North Sea, to the extremity of Overijssel, on the east, 110 English miles. It contains 12,597 square miles. Pop., including the grand duchy of Luxemburg, 8,835,111. The following table gives the population, 1st January 1872, the area of the provinces, including the reclaimed Haarlem Lake, and the provincial capitals :

| Provinces.                           | Area in Sq. Miles. | Pop. 1872.       | Provincial Capitals. |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------|------------------|----------------------|
| North Brabant.....                   | 1960               | 485,262          | 's Hertogenbosch.    |
| Gelderland.....                      | 1949               | 436,029          | Arnhem.              |
| South Holland.....                   | 1162               | 700,499          | The Hague.           |
| North Holland.....                   | 1050               | 591,38-          | Haarlem.             |
| Zeeland.....                         | 665                | 181,532          | Middelburg.          |
| Utrecht.....                         | 532                | 175,037          | Utrecht.             |
| Friesland.....                       | 1253               | 300,25-          | Leenwarden.          |
| Overijssel.....                      | 1274               | 256,681          | Zwolle.              |
| Groningen.....                       | 896                | 228,583          | Groningen.           |
| Drenthe.....                         | 1017               | 105,713          | Assen.               |
| Limburg.....                         | 849                | 225,352          | Maastricht.          |
|                                      | 12,597             | 3,637,583        |                      |
| <b>Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.....</b> | 987                | 197,523          | <b>Luxemburg.</b>    |
| <b>Total .....</b>                   | <b>13,584</b>      | <b>8,835,111</b> |                      |

The pop. (Jan. 1, 1875) had, exclusive of Luxemburg, increased to 8,715,676, averaging 295 to the square mile. In Drenthe it is 105, and in S. and N. Holland rises to 632 and 591; Utrecht, Limburg, and Zeeland being the next densely peopled. In 1871, the births amounted to 128,305, of which 4599 were illegitimate. The average was 1 to 27.90. In N. Brabant, 1 to 44.38; Gelderland, 1 to 30.04; S. Holland, 1 to 22.78; N. Holland, 1 to 24.28; Zeeland, 1 to 26.80; Utrecht, 1 to 21.43; Friesland, 1 to 36.24; Overijssel, 1 to 45.07; Groningen, 1 to 22.54; Drenthe, 1 to 32.03; Limburg, 1 to 37.44.

The leading places are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Dordrecht, Alkmaar, Middelburg, Schiedam, Leyden, Delft, Gouda, Utrecht, Amersfort, Groningen, Meppel, Zwolle, Kampen, Deventer, Arnhem, Nymegen, Tiel, Gorinchem, 's Hertogenbosch, Tilburg, and Breda.

**Physical Aspect.**—The land is generally low, much of it being under the level of the sea, rivers, and canals, especially in North and South Holland, Zeeland, the southern part of Gelderland, and Friesland. Along the west coast, the low lands are protected from the sea by a line of sand-hills or dunes; and where that natural defence is wanting, strong dykes have been constructed, and are maintained at

great expense, to keep back the waters. The greatest of these dykes are those of the Helder and of West Kapelle, on the east coast of Walcheren (q. v.), which require, each, upwards of £6000 annually to keep them in order. Engineers, called the officers of the Waterstaat, take special charge of the dykes and national hydraulic works, the expense of which is reckoned at about half a million sterling. A hilly district stretches from Prussia through Drenthe, Overijssel, the Veluwe or Arnhem district of Gelderland, the eastern part of Utrecht, into the Betuwe or country between the Maas and the Waal. This tract of country has many pretty spots, is of a light sandy soil, well watered, and when not cultivated, is covered with heath or oak-coppice. The greatest part of the N. is very fertile, the low lands and drained lakes, called Polders (q. v.), being adapted for pasturing cattle, and the light soils for cereals and fruits; but in some districts there are sandy heath-clad plains, extensive peat-lands, and undrained morasses, which industry is rapidly bringing under cultivation.

*Islands, Rivers, Canals, &c.*—The islands may be divided into two groups, of which the souther, formed by the mouths of the Schelde and Maas, contains Walcheren, South and North Beveland, Schouwen, Duveland, Tholen, St Philipsland, Goeree, Voorne, Putten, Beyerland, Yselmonde, Rozenburg, and the island of Dordrecht. The northern group contains the islands at the entrance of the Zuider Zee and along the coasts of Groningen and Friesland, as Wieringen, Texel, Vlieland, Terschelling, Ameland, Schiermonnikoog, and Rottum. In the Zuider Zee are Marken, Urk, and Schokland.

The chief rivers are, the Rhine, Maas, and Schelde. Important branches of these are the Waal, Lek, Ysel, Roer, &c.

Water-ways are more numerous than in any other European country, the immense tracts of meadow-land and the fertile polders being girdled by large canals, and cut in all directions by smaller ones for drainage and communication. Those of most importance to the national trade are, the North Holland Canal, constructed 1819—1825, to connect the port of Amsterdam with the North Sea; the Voorne Canal, from the north side of Voorne to Hellevoetsluis, which shortens the outlet from Rotterdam; the South Willemsvaart, through North Brabant, Dutch and Belgium Limburg, from 's Hertogenbosch to Maastricht, being 71½ English miles in length, and having 24 locks. Besides these, there are numerous important canals, connecting rivers, and cutting the kingdom into a net-work of water-courses. To improve the entrance to the Maas, the Hoek of Holland has lately been cut. A new canal through the Y peninsula of Holland, was opened, Nov. 1, 1876. It is nowhere less than 80 yards broad, with sluices nearly 400 feet in length, and a depth of nearly 23 feet. This has reduced the distance from Amsterdam to the sea to about 16 miles, and provides a safe way for large ships. The harbor, in 52° 29' n. lat. and 4° 36' e. long., is formed by piers of concrete built into the North Sea. The expense, including the recovery of 15,000 acres of sand from the Y, amounted to about two millions sterling.

Railways have been constructed to the extent of about 1015 miles, forming lines of communication between the principal cities of the N., and with Prussia to the south-east, and Belgium to the south-west. The receipts of the three main lines in 1872 amounted to £696,585. These belong to companies. The state railways realised £445,966, and carried 3,188,443 passengers. The two oldest companies gave dividends of 6½ and 8½ per cent.

*Climate, Agriculture, Produce, &c.*—The climate of the N. is variable, chilly colds often closely succeeding high temperatures, inducing various forms of fever and ague, and requiring peculiar care as to clothing, &c. In summer, the thermometer sometimes rises above 80°, and even to 90° F. in the shade, and a winter of great severity usually occurs every fifth year, when carriages and heavily-laden wagons cross the rivers and the Y on the ice, and thousands enjoy the national pastime of skating.

The farms are generally small and well cultivated, though the implements are old-fashioned and clumsy. Much progress is being made in reclaiming the sandy wastes, in Drenthe and Overijssel, by planting them with fir and oak, and sowing buckwheat, oats, and rye. The best implements are also being gradually introduced from England, and the steam-plough was, in 1862, put in operation on the lands of the

drained Haarlem Lake. The following table shews the agricultural products, with their values, for 1872, according to government returns:

|                            |             |
|----------------------------|-------------|
| Wheat to the value of..... | £2,848,500  |
| Rye.....                   | 4,422,750   |
| Barley.....                | 1,092,583   |
| Oats.....                  | 2,217,500   |
| Beans.....                 | 650,250     |
| Pease.....                 | 436,416     |
| Buckwheat.....             | 815,583     |
| Colza.....                 | 675,666     |
| Potatoes.....              | 4,309,916   |
| Madder.....                | 277,583     |
| Chicory.....               | 69,666      |
| Flax.....                  | 903,000     |
| Hemp.....                  | 45,883      |
| Beet.....                  | 393,666     |
| Tobacco.....               | 169,153     |
| Various.....               | 21,849      |
| Total.....                 | £19,840,164 |

In 1874 the total value of agricultural products was about £17,500,000. In 1872, wheat occupied 211,960 acres; rye, 493,689 acres; barley, 111,811 acres; oats, 246,-651 acres; potatoes, 812,329 acres; flax, 46,846 acres.

In 1872, the N. possessed 247,900 horses, 1,377,000 head of cattle, 855,900 sheep, 139,500 goats, and 320,100 pigs. The leading agricultural products of Zeeland are wheat and madder; in South Holland, madder, hemp, butter and cheese; in North Holland, butter and cheese are extensively made, and cattle, sheep, and pigs reared and exported. The horses of Friesland, Zeeland, and Gelderland are of first-rate quality. The exportation of butter from Holland and Friesland, and of Edam, Leyden, Gonda, and Frisian cheese is large; in 1873 the value of the exports of cheese was £1,013,238, of butter, £1,453,-875. Fruit is abundant, and in several provinces, as Gelderland, Utrecht, and Drenthe, much attention is paid to bees. In Haarlem and neighborhood, tulips and hyacinths are much cultivated, realising a large annual amount. In 1874, the foreign trade in bulbs reached, in the district, £37,500. The inland sales realised £47,833. Wild ducks, snipes, plovers, and hares are plentiful; and there are also conies, partridges, pheasants, and deer—game forming an article of export.

*Geology, Mineralogy, &c.*—The N. are of recent formation, and consist of an alluvial deposit, chiefly of deep, rich clayey soil, superimposed on banks of sand, marine shells, and beds of peat and clay. It appears that at some distant period there had been a depression of the land below its former level, enabling the sea to burst through its sand-banks, submerge the land, and form new deposits. The higher districts are composed of sand-drift, mingled with fertile earths, and resting on a bed of clay. Coal is worked in Limburg; and a soft sandstone, which becomes fit for building purposes after having been some time exposed to the atmosphere, is quarried in the southern part of that province, which has also pipe and other clays. Valuable clays for pottery, tile and brick making, abound in the various provinces.

*Manufactures, Industries, &c.*—The chief manufactures are linen, woollen, cotton, and silk fabrics; paper, leather, glass, &c. Leyden and Tilburg are famed for woollen blankets, wool-dyed pilot, fine cloths, and frizes; 's Hertogenbosch for linens and rich damasks; calicoes, shirtings, drills, tablecloths, striped dimities are made at Almelo, Amersfort, and in the leading towns of Overysel. Good imitation Smyrna and Scotch carpets, and carpets of hair and wool, are manufactured at D'vleter, Delft, Arnhem, Hilversum, Utrecht, and Breda; Turkey-red yarns, dyed silks, and silk stuffs at Roermond, Utrecht, Haarlem, &c.; leather, glass, firearms, at Maastricht and Delft; iron-founding, rolling and hammering of lead and copper, cannon-founding are carried on at the Hague, &c.; and powder-mills at Muiden: Oudenkerk, Middelburg, 's Hertogenbosch, Amsterdam, Nymegen, &c., have important breweries, those of 's Hertogenbosch and Amsterdam manufacturing v

large quantities. Wnalwyk, Hesden, and surrounding districts, manufacture boots and shoes, of which Hesden sends to North and South Holland 1,000,000 pairs yearly. Gin is distilled at Schiedam, Delft, Rotterdam, and Weesp. Amsterdam has the largest diamond-cutting trade in the world, 10,000 persons depending on that branch of industry. Sugar-refining is largely carried on at Amsterdam, Rotterdam, and Dordrecht, from all of which sugar is exported to Russia, the Levant, and countries of Europe. Paper is chiefly made in Holland and Gelderland. The leading letter-type founders are at Amsterdam and Haarlem. Manufactures of every kind are being rapidly increased in number, and adding to the material prosperity of the Netherlands. The chief motive power is the windmill, which forms a never-failing element in the scenery; but of late years, steam is becoming more general. In 1854, the steam-engines employed in factories were 464, with 7980 horse-power; and in 1872, they amounted to 1822, of 21,403 horse-power, and the increase has since been going on.

Many people are employed in the immense inland shipping-trade which the canal network has fostered, there being, when the previous census was taken, 6,684 ships inhabited by families, or one inhabited ship to 81 houses. The houses were 542,295; families, 668,911. Fishing, not only in the inland waters, the coasts, and bays of the North Sea, but also on the coast of Scotland, is vigorously pursued. In 1873, the total value of the herrings taken in the North Sea was £127,360, 102 vessels having been employed; on the N. coasts, to the value of £77,784; and in the Zuider Zee and coasts were taken 87,331,950 herrings. The anchovy take, almost exclusively in the Zuider Zee, amounted to 30,000 ankers, valued at about £58,50. There are productive oyster beds, besides extensive fishings of cod, ling, turbot, flounders, soles, shrimps, haddock, &c.; and from the rivers, salmon, eels, perch, &c.

*Exports, Imports, Shipping, &c.*—The N. is peculiarly a mercantile as well as agricultural country; its merchants not only importing and exporting the products of their colonies and the surplus of their own country, but also those of other lands. The general imports (1875) were 6,520,217 tons; exports, 8,900,944 tons. The value of goods imported for use was £59,320,520, and of exports, £44,914,242, home produce; both less than in 1873. The leading exports are: cheese, butter, refined sugar, flax, cattle, sheep, pigs, gin, garancine, &c.; the imports, manufactured goods, unrefined sugar, coffee, grain, iron, yarns, cotton, rice, gold, silver, tin, tea, indigo, silk and woollen fabrics. The trade with Great Britain is large and varied, and carried on chiefly by steam vessels.

In 1875, the laden ships which cleared in-bound amounted to 11,093, having a tonnage of 4,762,381; those in ballast being 571 ships, of 204,165 tons. Of the laden vessels, 2877 were Dutch, of 1,119,547 tons. Cleared out-bound, laden, 8029 ships, of 3,889,580 tonnage; in ballast, 3779, of 1,661,012 tons burden. The trade along the rivers, by Belgian and German ships, is large. In 1873, the goods passing up the Rhine amounted to 844,191 tons, and from Germany down, 1,538,060. This trade consists largely of grain, timber, and coal. Wheat carried up, 110,263 tons, and rye, 116,774 tons; down, 4834 tons of wheat, and 10,365 of potatoes. Timber upwards, 86,042 tons; downwards, 56,087 tons. Coal, 1,026,119; and iron, 81,119 tons.

*Religion, Language, Education, &c.*—At the last census (1869) there were 2,193,281 Protestants, 1,313,052, Roman Catholics, 68,008 Jews, and 5193 to small sects. There were (Jan. 1, 1875) 2034 Protestant ministers, of whom 1598 were Dutch Reformed; 2062 Roman Catholic priests; and 168 Jewish congregations. The budget of 1875 contained £118,979 for the Dutch Reformed Church; for the Roman Catholic, £49,-879; and the Jews, £2966.

There are five dialects spoken respectively in Groningen, Friesland, Gelderland, Holland, and Zeeland. These differ considerably from each other, and the Frisian is not at all understood by natives of the other provinces. The written language is the Dutch, that branch of the great Teutonic stock which preserves more of its original character than the rest of the same family. It possesses numerous words the same as Lowland Scotch, and bears a strong affinity to the Old Saxon English, as the following Dutch proverb shews:

Als de wyn is in den man,  
Is de wysheid in de kan.

The kingdom of the N. has produced many great names in all branches of litera-

tne and science. Coster (q. v.), according to his countrymen, invented printing, Leeuwenhoek the microscope, and Huygens applied the pendulum. Out of a long list of distinguished names, may be mentioned those of Erasmus, Scaliger, Heinsius, Hugo de Groot (Grotius), Huygens, Leenwenhoek, Vitringa, Boerhave, and the poets Hooft, Vondel, and Cats; whilst the writings of Van der Palm, Van Lennep, Des Amorie van der Ho:ven, Haafner, Stuart, Van Kampen, and those of the poets Bilderdijk, Da Costa, De Bull, Van den Berg, ter Haar, and Hofdyk, shew that literature is not waning. Exclusive of newspapers, there are 226 magazines and periodicals published in the N., of which 67 are religious, 42 on art, belles-lettres, and general literature, and 7 on antiquity, history, &c. Leading painters of the old Dutch school were Rembrandt, Gerrit (Gerard) Dou, Gabriel Meitzen, Jan Steen, Paul Potter, Rynsdaal, Van der Helst; and among those of the present century, Ary Scheffer, Kockkoek, Schelfhout, Piemans, Krugeman, Van Os, Craeyvanger, ten Kate, Israels, Bles, Louis Meyer, Roeloff, Springer, &c., have distinguished themselves.

There are universities at Leyden, Utrecht, and Groningen; *athenaeums* or colleges at Amsterdam, Deventer, and Maastricht, the students attending which must be examined for degrees at one of the universities. Latin schools are in all the leading towns. The universities and athenaeums have faculties of theology, medicine, philosophy, law, and letters. There are also the Royal Military and Naval Academy at Breda, and that for engineers and the India civil service at Delft; seminaries in several places for the training of the Roman Catholic clergy; and others, especially in Amsterdam, for those of the smaller Protestant sects; and many literary, scientific, and agricultural institutes.

Each community or parish must have, at least, one elementary school, supported from the local public funds, in which reading, writing, arithmetic, history, geography, &c., are taught. A higher class of schools includes also foreign languages. All are under government inspectors, and the teachers must undergo stringent examinations on all the branches before obtaining permission to teach. Many society or subscription schools are being erected all over the land, with a normal school at Nymegen, not under government surveillance, and including religious instruction, which is excluded from the national public schools. The members of these societies pay a yearly subscription and a small fee for each pupil sent by them to the school, a select number acting as managers. There are national normal schools at 's Hertogenbosch, Haarlein, and Groningen, the pupil-teachers boarding themselves, and receiving, at 's Hertogenbosch, £21 a year, and at Haarlein, £24. The attendance at school is about 1 to 8 of the population in winter, and 1 to 10 in summer. In January 1872, 253,489 boys and 226,779 girls; in July, 237,686 boys and 218,728 girls were at public and private elementary schools, with 8838 male and 2251 female teachers.

*Army, Navy, &c.*—The strength of the army, in Europe (1872) was 2060 officers and 60,550 men; of the Indian army, 1480 officers and 37,800 men. It is composed of volunteers, and of one man for every 500, drawn by lot for five years' service. There is also a local force, called the Schuttery, drawn by lot from those between 25 and 34 years of age, to assist in keeping order in peace, and in case of war, to act as a mobile corps, and do garrison duty. If attacked on the land-side, 90,000 men are required for the defences, and if by land and sea, 106,000. The first, or Maas line of defence, if formed by Maastricht, Venlo, Grave, 's Hertogenbosch, Woudrichem, Geertruidenberg, Willemstad, Breda, and Bergen-op-Zoom. The second line is formed by Nymegen, Forts St Andries and Loevestein and Gorinchem. The inner line of Utrecht is formed by various forts from Naarden, Utrecht to Gorinchem, which, by inundations, can make the provinces of North and South Holland into an island. There are many other forts, batteries, and strengths at the mouths of the rivers and along the leading ways, and a new line of defence was agreed upon in 1874.

The royal navy consisted (July 1, 1872) of 99 steamers carrying 400 guns, and 16 sailing vessels with 103. The sailors and marines numbered 8476 officers and men, including 701 native East Indians. A large double-turret ship, with four 35-ton Armstrong guns, was added in 1872 to the iron-clads. Prince Frederic, uncle of the king, is admiral; the Prince of Orange, vice-admiral; and his majesty is commander-in-chief of the land and naval forces.

*Revenue, Expenditure, &c.*—The revenue of 1872 was estimated at £8,589,530, and the expenditure at £9,849,941, the difference to be met from accumulated surpluses and the regular increase. The principal receipts are from direct taxes, excise, in-

direct taxes, import and export dues. Among items of expenditure are £383,300 for public works, chiefly railways; £2,250,000 for interest of the national debt; and £333,300 to improve the defences. The India revenue for 1878 was estimated at £12,000,478; the expenditure equals the revenue. The East India colonies, which were a burden in the earlier years of the kingdom, have long been a source of profit.

From 1850 to and with 1874, there has been paid off £25,376,218 from the national debt, lessening the annual interest by the sum of £784,709. The interest payable on the debt amounted in 1879 to £2,225,000. The material prosperity of the N. is rapidly increasing, and a sum of probably not less than 300 million pounds is invested by N. capitalists in the funds of other nations.

The chief colonies are Java, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, the Spice Islands, and Papua or new Guinea, in the East; and Surinam, Curacao, and its dependencies, in the West Indies, with factories on the coast of Guinea. Colonial pop. estimated at 24,386,991.

*Government, Franchise, &c.*—The government of the N. is a limited constitutional monarchy, hereditary in the male line, and by default of that in the female. The crown-prince bears the title of Prince of Orange, and attains his majority at 18, when he takes his seat in the council of state. The executive is vested in the king, with a council of state composed of twelve members, nominated by his majesty, and the ministers of the Interior, Foreign Affairs, Finance, War, the Colonies, Marine, and Justice, the last-named taking charge of ecclesiastical affairs through two administrators, or under-secretaries of state, for the Protestant and Roman Catholic Churches. The legislative power is shared by the king and the two chambers of the States-general; the first chamber having 89 members, elected for nine years, by the provincial states, one-third of their number retiring every three years. The second chamber has 80 members chosen by electors numbering, in 1874, 103,813, above 28 years of age, who pay from £1, 14s. to £13, 12s. of direct taxes, according to the size and importance of the electoral district. These are elected for four years, one half of the chamber retiring every two years. For members of the town-councils, the electoral qualification is half the above sum. The members of both chambers must be 30 years of age before the day of election, and those eligible for the first chamber are the nobility. This exceedingly high franchise, which, in Amsterdam, is a higher direct tax than the rental qualification of Great Britain, makes an election a thing of no interest except to a few. In 1871, only 36·2 per cent. of the electors of North Holland gave their votes, and the maximum in any place was 66·9 per cent. in Limburg, 62·5 in North Brabant, the average being 46·6.

The king nominates the governors of provinces, the burgemeesters of every city, town, or village, and a host of other officials. The cities, towns, and rural parishes are governed by a council, burgemeester (mayor or provost), and wethouders (aldermen or bailiffs). The council consists of from 7 to 89 members, according to the population, who are chosen for six years, one-third part retiring every two years. The council selects out of their number from 2 to 4 wethouders for six years, one-half retiring every third year. These with the burgemeester, form the local executive. The law departments are the High Council, the provincial courts of justice, those of the arrondissements and cantons; appeal in many cases being open from the lower to the higher courts.

*History.*—Nothing is known regarding the original inhabitants of the N.; but about a century and a half before our era, the people known as the Batavi came out of Hesse, where they were living in hostility with their neighbors, and settled down between the Rhine and the Waal. At this time, the Frisians occupied the country north of the Rhine to the Elbe. The Batavi and Frisians differed little in appearance, manner of life, and religion. They clothed themselves with skins, lived by fishing, hunting, and pasturing cattle, possessing horses, cows, and sheep; were faithful, open-hearted, chaste, and hospitable. The songs of the bards composed their literature and history. Warlike and brave, they selected their leader for his courage and prowess, were armed with the bow and a short spear. They worshipped the sun and moon, and held their meetings in consecrated woods.

The Romans having subdued the Belgæ, next attacked the Frisians, who agreed to pay a tribute of ox-hides and horns, but continued restless and rebellious. The Batavi became allies of Rome, paying no tribute, but supplying a volunteer contingent, chiefly of cavalry, which decided the battle of Pharsalia in favor of Caesar, and

formed a gallant band of the Roman armies in all parts of the empire. About 70 A.D., Claudio Civilis, a Batavian, whose original name has not been preserved, made a bold effort to overthrow the Roman power in Rhenish or Germanic Gaul, but he was finally compelled to sue for peace. Towards the close of the 3d c. began the inroads of the Franks, followed by the Saxons and other races; and in the 5th c., the Batavi had ceased to exist as a distinct people. The Franks continued to spread, and with them the Christian religion, Dagobert I., one of their princes, erecting a church at Utrecht, which, 695, became the seat of a bishopric. The Frisians were opposed to, and the last to embrace, Christianity, to which they were forcibly converted by Charles Martel. At the end of the 8th c., all the Low Countries submitted to Charlemagne, who built a palace at Nymegen, on the Waal. The feudal system now began to develop itself and expand into dukedoms, counties, lordships, and bishoprics, which the dukes, counts, and bishops, especially the counts of Holland and bishops of Utrecht, endeavored to enlarge and to rule over with as little submission to their superior as possible. The Crusades weakened the power and drained the resources of the nobles and priesthood, so that, during the middle ages, cities began to assume importance, strengthen themselves with walls, choose their own rulers, and appear in the state meetings. In 1384 the county of Flanders passed, through marriage, to the Duke of Burgundy, whose grandson, Philip the Good, made it his special life-effort to form the N. into a powerful kingdom. He bought Naar, inherited Brabant with Limburg, and compelled Jacoba of Bavaria to resign Holland and Zeeland. Charles V., as heir of the house of Burgundy, inherited and united the N. under his sceptre, and the country attained to prosperity, through the encouragements which he gave to commerce and shipping. Philip II., who succeeded his father, 1555, by his harsh government and persecution of the Reformers, excited the N. to rebellion, which, after a struggle of 80 years, resulted in the firm establishment of the Republic of the United Provinces. The founder of the independence of the N. was William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, called in history the Silent, who freely sacrificed his own property, and put forth every effort to unite the discordant states of the South with those of the North in resisting the Spanish yoke. Retiring to Holland, and banding together several provinces for mutual defence, by an agreement made at Utrecht, 1579, he perseveringly opposed the efforts of Spain; and in 1609, the independence of the United Provinces (the boundaries of which nearly coincided with those of the present kingdom of the N.), was virtually acknowledged by the Spanish king, an armistice for twelve years being signed at Antwerp, April 9 of that year. The struggle was renewed and carried on till 1648, when all the powers acknowledged the independence of the United Provinces by the treaty of Munster, while the Belgic provinces, divided among themselves, remained submissive to Spain and to the Roman Catholic Church.

Prince William the Silent did not live to see his efforts for freedom crowned with success. Excited by religious fanaticism, and the hope of a great reward, Balthazar Gerard or Guion, 1584, shot the prince in his house at Delft, from a narrow passage, as he was stepping from the dining-room to ascend an adjoining stair which led to the second floor. With the 17th c., the United Provinces began to advance in power and wealth, their ships visiting all parts of the world. Meanwhile, the contest between the Arminians and Calvinists broke out, and raged with fury for many years; Grotius and others fleeing to other lands, and the statesman Oldenbarneveld suffering on the scaffold at the age of 72. The United Provinces were presided over by the Princes of Orange till the troubles at the end of the 18th c. began the long European war, which the battle of Waterloo brought to a close. The National Convention of France having declared war against Great Britain and the Stadtholder of Holland, 1793, French armies overran Belgium, 1794; and being welcomed by the so-called patriots of the United Provinces, William V. and his family, January, 1795, were obliged to escape from Scheveningen to England in a fishing junk, and the French rule began. The United Provinces now became the Batavian Republic, paying eight and a half millions sterling for a French army of 25,000 men, besides giving up important parts of the country along the Belgian frontier. After several changes, Louis Bonaparte, 5th June, 1806, was appointed king of Holland, but, four years later, was obliged to resign because he refused to be a mere tool in the hands of the French emperor. Holland was then added to the Empire, and formed seven departments. The fall of Napoleon I., and dismemberment of the French Empire, led

the recall of the Orange family, and the formation of the Southern and Northern Provinces into the ill-assorted Kingdom of the N., which in 1830 was broken up by the secession of Belgium. In 1839, peace was finally concluded with Belgium; but almost immediately after, national discontent with the government shewed itself, and William I., in 1840, abdicated in favor of his son. The N. being moved by the revolutionary fever of 1848, King William II. granted a new constitution, according to which new chambers were chosen, but had scarcely met when he died, March 1849, and the present king, William III., ascended the throne. The nation is prosperous, and on the 11th May 1874, the twenty-fifth anniversary of the present king's reign was celebrated with great rejoicing.

A bill for the emancipation of the slaves in the N. West India possessions passed both chambers, 8th August 1862, and received the royal assent. It decreed a compensation of 300 guilders for each slave, except those of the island of St Martin, who were to be compensated for at 30 guilders each. The freed negroes may choose the place to labor, but must be able to satisfy the government officers that they are employed somewhere. This surveillance to continue during ten years. The law came into force 1st July 1863, and in Surinam and all the other colonies the day passed quietly over. Those, however, interested in agriculture have sent an address to the minister of the colonies, protesting against the high-wages tariff as hostile to the successful carrying on of their operations. The rate, however, is not higher than the planters in the neighboring British colony of British Guiana are accustomed to pay. In the budget for 1863, provision was made for the extraordinary expenses connected with the emancipation to the amount of £1,065,366, of which £367,000 as compensation for the slaves of Surinam, and £21,250 as premiums for free labor. For Curaçao and its dependencies, £166,090 of compensation money, fully £12,000 being for various other outlays connected with the change. The number of slaves set free may be stated in round numbers to be 42,000, of whom 35,000 are in Dutch Guiana.

On 16th July 1863, a treaty was signed at Brussels by all the naval powers for the buying up of the toll levied, under treaty arrangements, by the king of the N., on vessels navigating the Schelde (q. v.), the king of Belgium binding himself also to reduce the harbor, pilot, and other charges on shipping within that kingdom.

The N. have suffered much from floods, either caused by the breaking in of the sea, or by the descent of masses of water from Germany, while the rivers of the Rhine delta were blocked up with ice. The Zuyder Zee (q. v.), which contains 1365 square miles, was of trifling extent till the flood of All Saints' Day, 1247, when the North Sea swallowed up a large tract of country. In 1277, the Dollart Gulf, in Groningen, was formed at the mouth of the Emis, by floods in the spring and autumn of that year, which destroyed 33 villages and 190,000 people. The immense waste of waters, known as the sunken South Holland Waarde, or Blesbosch, arose out of the breaking of one of the dykes, 1421, by which 72 villages were laid under water, only 34 of them reappearing. In modern times, great floods, but fortunately with only temporary results, have occurred in 1809, 1825, and 1855. That of 1855, which placed the town of Veenendaal, in Gelderland, and an extensive tract of country under water, was caused by a rapid thaw in the high lands of Germany pouring down torrents of water into the N. while the rivers were ice-locked after a winter of unusual severity.—See the "Allgemeene Statistiek van Nederland;" "Nederland-Geographisch-Historisch Overzigt," by Luit. L. G. Beusser; "Statistiek Jaarboek" (Witkamp, Amsterdam), an excellent book of reference, which is published yearly up to the present time; the "Provincial Annual Reports," &c.

NETHERLANDS TRADING COMPANY, a chartered joint-stock association, with limited liability, formed to aid in developing the natural resources of the Dutch East Indian possessions. The Company possesses peculiar privileges, acting exclusively as the commission-agents of the Netherlands government in importing and selling the produce of the colonies, as well as doing a large business as merchants. Private enterprise having failed to develop the trade of Java, after that island was restored to the Netherlands, King William I. in 1824, erected the Trading Company, with a capital of upwards of 3 millions sterling, not only becoming a large shareholder, but guaranteeing an interest of 4 per cent. on the paid-up capital. The early transactions were unprofitable, and in 1827 the king had to pay a part, and in 1830 the whole of the guaranteed interest. From that date, it has prospered and handed over, from the trade of Java (q. v.), large surplus balances into the

national revenue. The head office of the directors is at Amsterdam, with agents at Rotterdam, Middelburg, Dordrecht, and Schiedam; the principal factory at Batavia, with agencies at the chief ports in Java and the other Netherlands possessions in the Eastern Archipelago. Formerly the company sent large quantities of goods to the colonial markets for the account of the Dutch government; but since the beginning of 1875, the business for the government has been confined to colonial produce, which is placed in factories, forwarded to Holland, and disposed of at the company's sales in Amsterdam, Rotterdam, &c. In 1875, they sold for the government 756,959 bales of coffee, which realised £4,378,292; 136,768 blocks of Banca and 2956 of Billiton tin, at £376,548; 432 packages of cinchona bark and powder at £5977. On the company's account, colonial produce was sold to the value of £761,267; and calicoes, yarns, woollen stuffs, various goods, precious stones, and money, to the value of £214,688, were sent to Netherlands-India, Singapore, British India, China, Japan, and Surinam. The company also advance money to planters and manufacturers in the colonies, who bind themselves for a number of years to consign their produce. They are also owners of a large sugar plantation, Resolute, in Surinam. The present capital is 86,140,000 guilders, or £8,011,666. The commission paid by government is a chief source of profit. For 1875, the net gain was £180,354, from which the shareholders received 5 4-5 per cent. The result would have been more favorable had not heavy loss been sustained in the Japan trade.

The success of the Trading Company depends mainly on the culture system, which was introduced into Java in 1830. Under the native rule, the land belonged to the princes, and the cultivators paid one-fifth of the produce, and one-fifth of their labor as ground-rent. The Dutch, by conquest, are now the proprietors of the greater part of the island, and exact the old produce rent, relaxing the labor to one-seventh, and causing the holders of crown-lands to plant one-fifth of their cultivated fields with the crop best adapted for the soil and required for the European market. The government also has supplied, free of interest, enterprising young men with the capital necessary to erect and carry on works for the preparation of the raw materials, to be repaid in ten yearly instalments, beginning with the third year. The land-holders of a certain district allotted to a sugar-mill were bound to supply a fixed quantity, receiving advances upon the crop to enable them to bring it forward. The rule of fixed quantity was relaxed in 1860, and has caused great discontentment among the contractors. The European residents and their assistants, the native princes, chiefs, and village head-men, receive a percentage according to the quantity which is manufactured from the produce delivered, so that all are interested in taking care that the lands are cultivated and the crops cared for. Sugar, tobacco, and tea are prepared by contractors; indigo, cochineal, coffee, cinnamon, and pepper by the natives under European surveillance, all passing into the Trading Company's factories for shipment to the Netherlands. The objections to the system are, that it does not leave the labor of the native free, and that the passing of so much of the export and import trade through one favored company injures the general merchant. On the other hand, it must be said that the Dutch government only carries out the old law, and it is therefore not regarded by the peasantry as an infringement of their rights; and the merchants and capitalists of the Netherlands did not of themselves put forth sufficient efforts to work out the natural capabilities of Java when it returned under Dutch rule.

NE'TLEY, Royal Victoria Hospital at, is a superb building, on the shore of Southampton Water, for the reception of invalids from the army on foreign service, and from among the troops serving in the adjoining military districts. In times of peace, it is only necessary to use a portion of the vast structure; but in the event of a European war, in which the British army should take part, the exigencies of the service would probably tax its accommodation to the utmost. There is provision for 1000 patients, with power to increase the number if necessary. The medical staff of course varies in proportion to the work to be done; but at present it consists of a governor, an adjutant, a paymaster, an assistant-commandant, and medical officers, and officers of orderlies of various ranks. The total cost of the construction of this hospital, which was commenced in 1855, has been about £350,000. Attached is the Medical School for candidates for the army medical department, the students having the best means of practical instruction in the wards of the hospital. N. is also the headquarters of the female nurses of the army, who are under the con-

trol of a lady stationed here as superintendent. Complete arrangements have been made for the landing of wounded men in front of the hospital, and for conveying them thither with the least disturbance. There is no doubt as to the convenience of this great hospital for its purposes; but some questions have been raised, under high sanitary authority, as to the salubrity of the site, adjacent as it is to the wide banks of mud which Southampton Water uncovers at low tide.

NETS are fabrics in which the threads cross each other at right angles, leaving a comparatively large open space between them; the threads are also knotted at the intersections. In this respect, netting differs essentially from weaving, where the intersecting threads simply cross each other. The open spaces in nets are called meshes, and these correspond in size with an instrument used in net-making, consisting of a flat piece of wood or other hard substance, usually about the shape and size of a common paper-knife. In addition to this, a peculiar kind of needle is used, upon which a large quantity of the thread is placed, by winding it from end to end between the forked extremities; the holes are used to insert the end of the thread, to prevent it slipping off at the commencement of the winding. The art of net-making has been practised from the earliest times by the most savage as well as the most civilised nations. Even where the art of weaving was quite unknown, as in some of the South Sea Islands when first discovered, that of netting was well understood; and it is easy to see that the human race could not help learning the value of this art from seeing how frequently land and water animals get entangled in the shrubs and weeds through which they attempt to pass; hence we find amongst savage tribes, almost universally, nets are used not only for fishing, as with us, but also for entrapping land animals. We have ample illustrations of the uses of nets for both purposes in the bas-reliefs of Assyria, Greece, and Rome, and in the mural paintings of Egypt.

Until recently, nets have been always made by hand, and generally the thread has been a more or less thick twine of hemp or flax, the thickness of the twine and the size of the mesh depending upon the kind of fish for which it was made; recently, however, great improvements have been made in the manufacture of nets, and machinery of a most beautiful automatic kind has been introduced by Messrs Stuart of Musselburgh, whose manufactory is of vast extent. This establishment commences with the raw materials, which are hemp, flax, and cotton, the last having been extensively employed for herring and sprat nets of late years. Hemp, however, is the chief material for net-making; and in order to prepare it, it is first passed in long rolls through a machine consisting of two rollers with blunt ridges, the upper of which is kept down on the material by means of a hanging weight, consisting of a loaded box suspended to a chaku from the axle of the roller. After the fibre has passed through this, it is much more supple than before, and is then hackled; this process is also done by machinery, which was first introduced into this manufactory for hemp-hacking, and succeeds admirably. It subsequently passes through the carding, roving, and spinning processes, as in all other kinds of yarn, and is finally twisted into threads or twines of the required thickness. Messrs Stuart have in one room 4000 spindles at work, besides the carding and twist machines. Of their patent loom they have 200 at work, the largest of which makes nets 430 meshes in width. It would be useless to attempt to describe these ingenious looms, which are worked by hand, otherwise than by saying that their leading features are like the stocking-frames; a series of siukers push forward, pull down, and pass in and out the thread, which is carried from one side of the web to the other by long iron needles, which act as shuttles passing not over-quickly from a long box on each side of the loom. This simple yet most effective contrivance is worked by wheels and jointed rods, and might be advantageously applied to many other purposes. After the net comes from the loom, it goes to the finishers, who, by hand, make the addition of a kind of selvage, consisting of several thicknesses of twine, to give strength to the edges. The nets are then ready for use, and are sent in vast numbers to all parts of the world. Machine net-making is now becoming general.

A great variety of nets are in use amongst fishermen, but the principal are the *seine*, *trawl*, and *drift-nets*. The seine is a very long but not very wide net, one side of which is loaded with pieces of lead, and consequently sinks; the other, or upper, is buoyed with pieces of cork, and consequently is kept up to the surface. Seines

are sometimes as much as 190 fathoms in length. When stretched out, they constitute walls of network in the water, and are made to enclose vast shoals of fish. The trawl is dragged along the bottom by the fishing-boat; and the drift-net is like the seine, but is not loaded with lead; it is usually employed for mackerel fishing.

Various kinds of nets are used in bird-catching, one of which is noticed in the article CLAP-NET. Nets are used in catching quadrupeds, chiefly for the purpose of enclosing spaces within which they are, but sometimes also for throwing upon them to confuse and entangle them.

Nets are used by gardeners to protect crops from birds; also to protect the blossoms of trees from frost, and it is wonderful how well this object is accomplished, even when the meshes are pretty wide, and the sun's rays have very free access.

NETTING, Naval. A *boarding-netting* is formed of strong rope, and stretched above the bulwarks of a ship, over the port-holes, &c., to a considerable height, for the purpose of preventing the entrance of boarders from hostile boats. In positions where boat attacks are feasible, ships are thus protected at night, and at other times when attempts at boarding are anticipated.

The *hammock-netting* is in the bulwarks of a ship, usually in the waist, and its purpose is to keep the hammocks of the crew when stowed there during the day; thus netted together, the hammocks form a valuable barrier against bullets.

*Hatchway-nettings* are of inch rope, and are placed over the open hatchways during fine weather, to prevent persons from falling through.

NETTLE (*Urtica*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Urticeæ*, having unisexual flowers, the male and female on the same or separate plants; the male flowers with a 4-parted perianth, and four stamens; the female flowers with a 2-parted perianth and a tufted stigma; the fruit an acheneum. The species are herbaceous plants, shrubs, or even trees, many of them covered with stinging hairs, which pierce the skin when touched, and emit an acrid juice, often causing much inflammation and pain. When a N. is grasped in such a way as to press the hairs to the stem, no stinging ensues; but the slightest inadvertent touch of some of the species produces very severe pain. The stinging of the native nettles of Europe is trifling in comparison with that of some East Indian species. *U. crenulata* is particularly notable for the severity of the pain which it produces, without either pustules or apparent inflammation. The first sensation is merely a slight tingling, but within an hour violent pain is felt, as if a red-hot iron were continually applied, and the pain extends far from the original spot, continues for about twenty-four hours and then abates, but is ready to return in its original intensity on the application of cold water, and does not cease for fully eight days. Cold water has a similar effect in increasing or renewing the pain of all kinds of nettles. Still more formidable than this species is *U. urensissima*, the *Devil's Leaf* of Timor. Of British species, the most venomous, but the most rare, is the ROMAN N. (*U. pilulifera*); next to it is the

SMALL N. (*U. urens*), frequent about towns and villages, and in waste and cultivated ground; whilst the least venomous is the most common and only perennial species, the GREAT N. (*U. dioica*), everywhere abundant, but particularly near human habitations, or their former sites, the desolation of which it may be said to proclaim. The roots of nettles, boiled with alum, afford a yellow dye; and the juice of the stalks and leaves has been used to dye woollen stuffs of a beautiful and permanent green. The young shoots of *U. dioica* are used in some parts of Scotland and other countries as greens, and their peculiar flavor is much relished by some, although, in general, the use of them is confined to the poor; which, however, is probably the result of mere prejudice. Whatever it is that gives nettles their stinging power, is dissipated by boiling. The high value of nettles as food for swine is well known to the peasantry of many countries; the Great N. is cultivated in Sweden for fodder of domestic animals; nettles are also highly esteemed as food for poultry, particularly for turkeys. The seeds are extremely nutritious to poultry; and are given to horses by jockeys, in order to make them lively when they are to be offered for sale. The stalks and leaves of nettles are employed in some parts of England, for the manufacture of a light kind of beer, called *N. beer*, which may be seen advertised at stalls, and in humble shops in Manchester and other towns. The bast fibre of nettles is useful for textile purposes. Yarn and cloth, both of the coarsest and finest descriptions, can be made of it. The fibre of *U. dioica* was used by

the ancient Egyptians, and is still used in Piedmont and other countries. When wanted for fibre, the plant is cut in the middle of summer, and treated like hemp. The names *N. Yarn* and *N. Cloth* are, however, now commonly given in most parts of Europe to particular linen and cotton fabrics.—The fibre of *U. cannabina*, a native of the south of Siberia and other middle parts of Asia, is much used; and from that of *U. Whitlowii*, both fine lace and strong ropes can be manufactured. The fibre of *U. Japonica* is much used in Japan, and that of *U. argentea* in the South Sea Islands; that of *U. Canadensis* is used in Canada.—The seeds and herbage of *U. membranacea* are used in Egypt as emmenagogue and aphrodisiac; and somewhat similar properties are ascribed to *U. divisa*.—*U. tuberosa* produces tubers, which are nutritious, and are eaten in India, raw, boiled, or roasted.—Australia produces a magnificent tree-nettle, *U. gigas*, abundant in some parts of New South Wales, ordinarily from 25 to 50 feet high, but sometimes 120 or 140 feet, with trunk of great thickness, and very large green leaves, which, when young, sting violently. In some places, it forms scrub forests, and its stinging leaves form a great impediment to the traveller.

NETTLE-RASH, or *Urtica'ria* (*Lat. urtica*, a nettle), is the term applied to a common form of eruption on the skin. The eruption consists of wheals, or little solid eminences of irregular outline, and either white or red, or most commonly both red and white, there being a white centre with a red margin. The rash is accompanied with great heat, itching, and irritation; the appearance on the skin and the sensation being very much like the appearance and feeling produced by the stinging of nettles; and hence the origin of its name.

The disease may be either acute or chronic. In the acute form, feverishness usually preceded the rash by a few hours, although sometimes they commence together. The disorder is always connected with some derangement of the digestive organs, and it may often be traced to the imperfect digestion of special articles of food, such as oatmeal, the kernels of fruit, strawberries, cucumbers, mushrooms, and especially oysters, mussels and crabs, which are eaten with perfect impunity by most persons. An hour or two after the offending substance has been swallowed, there is a feeling of nausea, with oppression about the pit of the stomach; the patient often complains of giddiness, and the face frequently swells; the skin then begins to tingle, and the eruption breaks forth; vomiting and diarrhoea often supervene, and act as a natural cure; but even when they do not occur, the violence of the rash usually subsides in a few hours, and the disorder altogether disappears in a day or two.

The chronic form is often very troublesome, and frequently comes on periodically in the evening. Cases are reported in which persons have been afflicted for ten years continuously by this form of the disease. Patients have left off all their customary articles of diet, one by one, without in all cases meeting with relief; and hence it may be inferred, that although the disease depends in all cases on a disordered condition of the digestive organs, it is not always the consequence of some special offending article having been swallowed.

The main treatment of the acute form consists in expelling the offending matter by an emetic and by purgatives, and the cure is thus usually completed. In the chronic form, the patient should, in the first place, determine whether the rash is caused by any particular article of diet, and if this seems not to be the case, an attempt must be made to improve the state of the digestive organs. A few grains of rhubarb taken daily, just before breakfast and before dinner, will sometimes effect a cure. If this simple remedy fails, Dr Watson recommends the trial of a draught composed of the infusion of serpentaria (about an ounce and a half), with a scruple each of the carbonate of magnesia and soda. He adds, that although external applications are usually of little avail, he has found that dusting the itching surface with flour sometimes affords temporary relief; and that a still more useful application is a lotion composed of a drachm of the carbonate of ammonia, a drachm of the acetate of lead, half an ounce of lardanum, and eight ounces of rose-water.

NETTLE-TREE (*Celtis*), a genus of deciduous trees of the natural order *Ulmaceæ*, with simple and generally serrated leaves, considerably resembling those of the Common Nettle, but not stinging. The genus is distinguished chiefly by its fruit, which is a fleshy, globose, or sub-globose 1-celled drupe. The Common or European N. T. (*C. Australis*) is a native of the south of Europe, the west of Asia, and the north of

**Africa.** It grows to the height of 30—40 feet, and is a very handsome tree, often planted along public walks in the south of France and north of Italy. The wood is very compact, very durable, and takes a high polish. It was formerly much imported into Britain for the use of coachmakers. It is used in Italy by musical-instrument makers for flutes and pipes. The flowers are inconspicuous, axillary, and solitary; the fruit black, resembling a small wild cherry, not eatable till after the first frosts, and then very sweet. The kernel yields a useful fixed oil. The tree succeeds well in the south of England.—*C. occidentalis*, is a native of North America from Canada to Carolina, sometimes there called the N. T., sometimes the SUGAR BERRY. Its leaves are much broader than those of *C. Australis*, its fruit very similar. It is a much larger tree, attaining a height of 60—80 feet.—Another American species, *C. crassifolia*, often called HACKBERRY or HAGBERRY, and Hoop Ash, is very abundant in the basin of the Ohio and westward of the Mississippi. It grows to a great height, but the trunk is not very thick. The wood is not much valued, but is said to make very fine charcoal. The fruit is black, and about the size of a pea.—The inner bark of *C. orientalis*, consisting of reticulated fibres, forms a kind of natural cloth, used by some tribes of India.—A number of other species are natives of the warm parts of America and of Asia.

**NEU-CHWANG,** or Ying-Tsze, a town of the Chinese Empire, in Manchuria. It stands on the left bank of the river Liaou, about 25 miles from its mouth, and in lat.  $41^{\circ}$  n., and long.  $122^{\circ} 30'$  e. The Liaon, which falls into the Gulf of Liaou-tong, at the head of the Yellow Sea, is navigable for sea-going vessels to N.; and N. is therefore regarded as a seaport, and is one of those opened to foreign trade by the treaty of Tientsin. A British consul resides here; but the trade is as yet considerable, and only to Chinese ports.

**NEU-BRANDENBURG,** a town of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, the prettiest and, after the capital, the largest in the duchy, is situated on Lake Tollens, 17 miles north-north-east of Neu-Strelitz. It is regularly built, contains two churches, a castle, &c., is the centre of a picturesque district, and the seat of considerable industry. Pop. (1871) 7245.—About half a league from N., on a rock overlooking Lake Tollens, stands the ducal pleasure-castle of Belvedere, commanding, it is said, the most beautiful prospect in Mecklenburg.

**NEU'BURG,** an ancient town of Bavaria, is picturesquely situated on the right bank of the Danube, 29 miles north-north-east of Augsburg. It contains a handsome pa'ace, the châtan of the Dukes of Bavaria of the line of Pfalz-Neuburg, who resided here from 1596 to 1742. The palace contains a collection of ancient armor. Brewing and distilling are carried on, and there is a considerable commercial trade on the Danube. Pop. (1871) 6390.

**NEUFCHATEL,** or Neuchâtel, known also as *Neuenburg*, a canton in the west of Switzerland, between Lake Neufchâtel and the French frontier, in lat.  $46^{\circ} 52'$ — $47^{\circ} 10'$  n., and long.  $6^{\circ} 26'$ — $7^{\circ} 5'$  e. Area, 304 sq. miles. Population, 97,284, at the close of 1870. N. lies in the midst of the Jura Mountains, four chains of which, running from north-east to south-west, traverse the canton, and are separated by elevated longitudinal valleys. The most easterly of these is a broken chain, running parallel to the lake of Neufchâtel, on whose banks, and on the second and lower ranges beyond it, the vine is carefully cultivated. This second chain has five principal passes, the highest of which, La Tourne, has an elevation of about 4000 feet. The third and fourth ranges, abutting on France, consist for the most part of barren hills, separated by elevated valleys; but here and there these high lands are well wooded and fruitful, producing corn, good pasture, fruits, &c. The greater number of the numerous streams which water the canton flow into the Rhine. Among these mountain torrents, the principal are the Reuse, the Seyon, and the Serrière, the two former of which, together with the rivers Orbe and Broie, are the feeders of the Lake of Neufchâtel, known also as the Lake of Yverdun. The Thiele serves as its outlet, and carries its waters into the neighboring lake of Biéne, and into the river Aar. The lake is 25 miles long, and from 3 to 5½ miles wide. Its level above the sea is 1420 feet, and it has a depth of 400 or 500 feet.

The natural products are iron ores, coal, asphalt, fruit, including grapes—from which good red and white wines are made—timber and corn, although the latter is not grown in sufficient quantity for the demands of the home consumption. The

rearing of cattle constitutes an important branch of industry, and large quantities of cheese are exported; but the specialty of the canton is watch-making, which occupies from 18,000 to 20,000 persons, and is prosecuted in detail at the homes of the work-people in the rural districts, where some families manufacture only special parts of the machinery, while others are engaged solely in putting together the separate portions that have been manufactured by others; and the watches thus prepared are exported in large quantities to every part of Europe and America. Muslin printing employs upwards of 10,000 persons, and lace is extensively made by the country-women of the Val de Travers.

The climate of N. varies greatly with the locality, being temperate on the shores of the lake, cooler in the valleys, and severe on the mountain-sides. The population, with the exception of between 9000 and 10,000 Catholics, belongs to various Protestant denominations.

The history of N. was identical with that of Burgundy till the 11th c.; and after the principality had been for a time incorporated with the territories of the Counts of Châlons, to whom it had been granted in 1238 by Rudolph of Hapsburg, it passed to the House of Longueville. In 1707, on the extinction of the N. branch of the latter family, 15 claimants came forward to advance more or less valid pretensions to the N. territory. Frederick I. of Prussia, who based his claim to the principality of N. on the ground of his descent from the first Prince of Orange, a descendant of the House of Châlons, was the successful candidate; and from his time it continued associated with Prussia till 1806, when Napoleon bestowed it upon General Berthier; but in 1814, it was restored to the House of Brandenburg. This connection with the Prussian monarchy has been wholly dissolved since 1857, and N. is now a member of the Swiss Confederation.

**NEUFCHATEL**, or Neu'enburg, is the chief town of the canton, and occupies a magnificent site on the north-west shore of the Lake of Neufchatel, and is noted for its many charitable institutions, and for the beauty of its charmingly situated environs. Pop. (1870) 13,921.

**NEU'HAUS**, a town of Bohemia, on the Nescharka, about 70 miles south-south-east of Prague. Its palace, belonging to Count Czerny, is a splendid edifice. Cloth, paper, and chemical products are manufactured. Pop. (1869) 8620.

**NEU'HAUSEL** (Hung. *Eresek-Ujvár*), a town of Hungary, on the right bank of the Neutra, 74 miles north-west of Pesth, by the Vienna and Pesth Railway. It was formerly strongly fortified, and played an important part in the Turkish wars. No traces of its fortifications now remain. Pop. (1869) 9483, chiefly engaged in agriculture and the rearing of cattle.

**NEUILLY** (sometimes called **NEUILLY-SUR-SEINE**, to distinguish it from several much less important places of the same name), a town of France, in the dep. of Seine, on the right bank of the river Seine, immediately to the north of the Bois de Boulogne. N. may now be regarded as a suburb of Paris, with which it is connected by several streets, or roads, lined with numerous villas. Here, near the Seine, and in a large and beautiful park, formerly stood the Château de Neuilly, built by Louis XV., and the favorite residence of Louis Philippe, which was burned at the revolution in 1848. The park was also then divided into lots for sale, the consequence being a rapid increase of the number of houses in Neuilly. N. has manufactures of porcelain and starch, chemical works and distilleries. Pop. (1872) 15,466. When Louis Philippe abdicated, and took refuge in England, he assumed the title of Count de Neuilly.

**NEU'MÜNSTER**, a prosperous manufacturing and market town of Holstein, on the Schwale, one of the head-waters of the Stör, and on the railway between Altona and Kiel, 19 miles south-by-west from Kiel. There are large woollen and linen factories, tanneries, dye-works, and breweries. Pop. (1875) 10,124.

**NEURA'LGLIA** (Gr. *neuron*, a nerve; *algos*, pain) is a term employed to designate pain of a purely nervous character, usually unaccompanied by inflammation, fever, or any appreciable change of structure. The pain, which occurs in paroxysms, usually followed by complete remissions, is of every possible degree and character, being described in different cases as piercing, tearing, burning, &c. These paroxysms may occur at intervals of a few seconds only, or they may take place daily

or on alternate days, or they may be separated by much longer intervals, which are often, but by no means always, of a regular length. With the pain, there is frequently spasmoidic twitching of the adjacent muscles. The duration of the disease is very uncertain. The patient may have only a single attack, or he may be liable to recurring attacks for months, years, or even for his whole life; it is, however, very seldom that the disease occurs but once. Death scarcely ever results directly from this affection, but the pain may, by its severity and persistence, gradually undermine the constitution.

The disease may attack any part of the body where there are nerves; but in no part does it occur so frequently as in the face, when it is popularly known as *Tie Doulourenx*; its seat being in the facial branches of the fifth pair of nerves (the trifacial nerves). The following graphic description of the ordinary varieties of this form of neuralgia is borrowed from Dr Watson's "Lectures on the Principles and Practice of Physic": "When the uppermost branch of the trifacial nerve is the seat of the complaint, the pain generally shoots from the spot where the nerve issues through the superciliary hole; and it involves the parts adjacent, upon which the fibrils of the nerve are distributed—the forehead, the brow, the upper lid, sometimes the eyeball itself. The eye is usually closed during the paroxysm, and the skin of the forehead on that side corrugated. The neighboring arteries throb, and a copious gush of tears take place. In some instances, the eye becomes blood-shotten at each attack; and when the attacks are frequently repeated, this injection of the conjunctiva may become permanent.

"When the pain depends upon a morbid condition or morbid action of the middle branch of the nerve, it is sometimes quite sudden in its accession, and sometimes comes on rather more gradually; being preceded by a tickling or pricking sensation of the cheek, and by twitches of the lower eyelid. These symptoms are shortly followed by pain at the infra-orbital foramen, spreading in severe flashes (so to speak) over the cheek, affecting the lower eyelid, ala nasi, and upper lip, and often terminating abruptly at the mesial line of the face. Sometimes it extends to the teeth, the antrum, the hard and soft palate, and even to the base of the tongue, and induces spasmodic contractions of the neighboring muscles.

"When the pain is referrible to the inferior or maxillary branch of the fifth pair of nerves, it darts from the mental foramen, radiating to the lips, the alveolar processes, the teeth, the chin, and to the side of the tongue. It often stops exactly at the symphysis of the chin. Frequently it extends in the other direction, to the whole cheek and to the ear. During the paroxysm, the features are liable to be distorted by spasmoidic action of the muscles of the jaw, amounting sometimes to tetanic rigidity, and holding the jaw fixed and immovable.

"The paroxysms of suffering in this frightful disease are apt to be brought on by apparently trivial causes—by a slight touch, by a current of air blowing upon the face, by a sudden jar or shake of the bed on which the patient is lying, by a knock at the door, or even by directing the patient's attention to his malady, by speaking of it or asking him questions about it. The necessary movements of the face in speaking or eating are often sufficient to provoke or renew the paroxysm. At the same time, firm pressure made upon the painful part frequently gives relief, and causes a sense of numbness to take the place of the previous agony" (vol. i. pp. 723, 724).

*Tie doulourenx* is the form of severe neuralgia which is by far the most commonly met with; the reason probably being, that the trifacial nerve, lying superficially, and being distributed over a part of the surface which is usually unprotected by any artificial covering, is very liable, for that reason, to be affected by exposure to atmospheric influences, which are undoubtedly to be included among the exciting causes of this disease. Amongst other seats of neuralgia may be mentioned the arm, especially the forearm, the spaces between the ribs, especially between the sixth and ninth, and the lower extremity, where it most frequently affects the sciatic nerve, giving rise to the affection known as *SCIATICA*, which, however, not always being pure neuralgia, will be noticed in a separate article.

The causes of neuralgia are various. Excluding inflammation of the nervous trunk or *neuritis*, the pain may be excited by a tumor pressing on the nerve, or originating in its substance; or by roughness of a bony surface with which the nerve may be in contact, as when it passes through a foramen; or it may be due to tumors

within the cranium, or a morbid state of the spinal cord. Sometimes, again, irritation applied to one branch of a nerve will give rise to pain at the extremity of another branch of the same nerve, the sensation being reflected along the branch which is not directly exposed to the irritation. In this way we may explain the pain in the shoulder which often accompanies disease of the liver; the pain in the thigh, which is often associated with irritation of the kidney; the pain in the left arm, which is often coincident with disease of the heart, &c. Persons suffering from debility, anaemia, and a gouty or rheumatic constitution, are so especially liable to neuralgia, that these conditions—as also exposure to malarious influences—must be placed among the predisposing causes. Amongst the exciting causes, exposure to cold and wet, or to a cold dry east wind, is the most frequent; but fatigue, strong mental emotions, the abuse of tea, coffee, tobacco, and alcoholic drinks, a wound or bruise, the retrocession of gout, rheumatism, or cutaneous eruptions, &c., occasionally suffice to excite the disease.

The resources of the *materia medica* have been exhausted in searching for remedies for this cruel disease. Dr Elliotson believes that "in all cases of neuralgia, whether exquisite or not, unaccompanied by inflammation, or evident existing cause, iron is the best remedy," and there can be no doubt that when the disease is accompanied with debility and paleness, no remedy is likely to be so serviceable. If the digestive organs are out of order, the neuralgia may not unfrequently be removed or alleviated by correcting their unhealthy state. "Dr Righy tells us that having suffered in his own person an intense attack of tic douloureux, which opium did not assuage, he swallowed some carbonate of soda dissolved in water. The effect was almost immediate; carbonic acid was eructed, and the pain quickly abated. In this case, the pain depended upon the mere presence of acid in the stomach. More often the cause of offence appears to lie in some part of the intestines; and purgatives do good. Sir Charles Bell achieved the cure of a patient upon whom much previous treatment had been expended in vain, by some pills composed of cathartic extract, croton oil, and galbanum. He mixed one or two drops of the croton oil with a drachm of the compound extract of colocynth; and gave five grains of this mass, with ten grains of the compound galbanum pill, at bedtime. Other cases have been since reported, both by Sir Charles and by others in which the same prescription was followed by the same success."—Watson, *op. cit.* p. 727.

When the disease occurs in a rheumatic person, iodide of potassium (from three to five grains taken in solution three times a day before meals) sometimes gives great relief. When the paroxysms, occur periodically—as, for example, with an interval of 24 or 48 hours—sulphate of quinine in doses of from 10 to 20 grains between the paroxysms, will usually effect a cure; and if the disease resist comparatively small doses, the quantity may be increased to half a drachm, or a drachm if necessary. Arsenic acts in the same manner as quinine in these cases, but less effectually.

The inhalation of chloroform will sometimes give permanent relief, and always gives temporary ease, and shortens the period of suffering.

The injection of a certain quantity of a solution of miriate of morphia, by means of a sharp-pointed syringe, into the cellular tissue beneath the skin over the painful spot, very often gives immediate relief. For the discovery of this mode of treating neuralgia, we are indebted to Dr Alexander Wood of Edinburgh. At one time—about half a century ago—it was a common practice to divide the trunk of the painful nerve, with the object of cutting off the communication between the painful spot and the brain; but in many instances the operation signally failed, and it is now never resorted to. A much simpler operation, namely, the extraction of a canine tooth, has often been found to give permanent relief in cases of facial neuralgia, and in such case a careful examination of the teeth should usually be made.

Local applications can be of no permanent service in cases where the pain results from organic change, or from general constitutional causes; they will, however, often give considerable temporary relief. Amongst the most important local applications may be mentioned laudanum, tincture of aconite (or aconitina ointment, in the proportion of one or two grains to a drachm of simple ointment or cerate), belladonna-plaster, and chloroform (which should be applied upon a piece of linen saturated with it, and covered with oiled silk, to prevent evaporation).

Lastly, neuralgia being a purely nervous affection, is often influenced by means

calculated to make a strong impression on the mind of the patient; and hence it is that galvanic rings, electric chairs, mesmeric passes, homeopathic globules, and other applications, which, like these, act more upon the mind than upon the body of the patient, occasionally effect a cure.

**NEURI'TIS** is the term applied to inflammation of the nerves. The disease is rare, and not very well defined. The symptoms closely resemble those of neuralgia. Rheumatism seems, in most cases, to be the cause of the disease, which must be treated by bleeding, leeching, purging, and low diet. Anodynes are also required for the relief of the pain; and of these, Dover's Powder, in tolerably full doses, is perhaps the best.

**NEURO'PTERA** (Gr. nerve-winged), an order of mandibulate insects, having four nearly equal and membranous wings, all adapted for flight, divided by their nervures into a delicate net-work of little spaces, and not covered with fine scales, as in the *Lepidoptera*. The wings are often extended horizontally when at rest, nearly as in flight; but the position is various. The form of the wing is generally somewhat elongated. The body is generally much elongated, particularly the abdomen. The head is often large, the compound eyes very large, and there are often also simple or stemmatic eyes. The habits are predaceous, at least in the larva state; often also in the pupa and perfect states, the food consisting of other insects, often caught on the wing. The power of flight is accordingly great in many. The larvae and pupae are often aquatic. The females have no sting, and only a few have an ovipositor. The metamorphosis is complete in some, incomplete in others. Dragon-flies, May-flies, scorpion-flies, ant-lions, and termites, or white ants, belong to this order.

**NEU'SATZ** (also *Neoplanta* or *Uj-Vidék*), a town of the Austrian empire, in the Hungarian province of Bács, is situated on the left bank of the Danube, opposite Peterwardein. Its origin dates from the year 1700, and by the year 1849 it numbered nearly 20,000 inhabitants. A bridge, 840 feet in length, extends between N. and the town and fortress of Peterwardein. N. is the seat of the Greek non-united Bishop of Bács. On the 11th June 1849, it was taken from the Hungarian insurgents by the imperial troops, and was almost wholly destroyed. It has been rebuilt in excellent style. N. is a station for steamers on the Danube, and carries on an important and active trade. Pop. (1869) 19,119.

**NEUSE**, a river of North Carolina, United States of America, rises near the middle of the northern boundary of the state, and, after a south-easterly course of 250 miles, falls by a broad channel into Pamlico Sound, which communicates by several inlets with the Atlantic Ocean. It forms the harbor of Newbern.

**NEU'SIEDL**, Lake (Hung. *Ferto-tava*), a small lake on the north-west frontier of Hungary, 22 miles south-east of Vienna. It is 23 miles in length, and about 6 miles in average breadth, with a mean depth of 13 feet. Its waters are light-green in appearance, and are brackish in taste. The slopes of the Leitha Mountains in the vicinity produce excellent wine.

**NEU'SOHL** (Hung. *Beszterce-Bánya*), a beautiful and thriving town of Hungary, the chief place of the richest mining district in the country, is situated in a hill-enclosed valley on the right bank of the Gran, about 85 miles north of Pesth. N., consisting, as it does, of the town proper and five suburbs, contains a population, in all, of (1869) 11,780, who are employed in the copper and iron mines of the vicinity, in the smelting houses, and in the manufacture of beet-root sugar, paper, colors, &c. It is the seat of a bishop, and contains a beautiful cathedral, a bishop's palace, and two evangelical churches, and several other handsome edifices.

**NEUSS**, a fortress and flourishing manufacturing town of Rhenish Prussia, near the left bank of the Rhine, with which it is connected by the river Erft, 4 miles south-west of Düsseldorf. Its church of St Quirinus, a beautiful edifice, and a notable specimen of the transition from the round to the pointed style, is supposed to have been built in 1209. N. is the principal grain-market of the province, and carries on manufactures of woollen and other cloths, ribbons, hats, vinegar, &c. It is supposed to be the *Noxerium* of the Romans, sacked by Attila, in the year 451. Pop. (1875) 16,563.

NEU'STADT (Polish, *Prudnitz*), a town of Prussian Silesia, 29 miles south-west of Oppeln. It is the seat of considerable manufacturing industry, woollen and linen fabrics being the staple goods manufactured. Damask-weaving alone employs 660 hands, and 880 looms. Pop. (1875) 12,615.

NEUSTADT, or Wieuern-Neustadt, one of the most beautiful towns of Lower Austria, called, from its loyalty, "the ever-faithful town" (*ewig getreue Stadt*), is situated 28 miles south of Vienna, on the Vienna and Glöggauz Railway, and is also connected with the capital by a canal. It is surrounded by a broad and deep ditch, and by a fortified wall pierced by four gates. The town is overlooked by the large old castle of the Dukes of Babenberg, now a military academy for the preparatory instruction of officers of the line. It accommodates from 400 to 500 pupils. The castle contains a fine Gothic chapel (date, 1480), rich in painted windows. It is the burial-place of the Emperor Maximilian I. On the 14th September 1834, the whole town, with the exception of fourteen houses, was destroyed by a dreadful conflagration, which involved the loss of many lives. The new town has been laid out with great taste and regularity. The canal (40 miles in length) and the railway to Vienna, and the converging roads from Styria and Hungary, are the sources of the prosperity of the town. In N. machinery is extensively constructed; and sugar-refining and manufactures of silk, velvet, and cotton fabrics, fayence, leather, &c., are carried on. Pop. (1869) 18,070.

NEUSTADT AN DER HARDT, a small town of Rhenish Bavaria, charmingly situated on the Speyerbach, at the foot of the Hardt Mountains, 12 miles north of Landau. Its church, with several curious monuments of the Counts Palatine, and with some ancient fresco-paintings, was finished in the 14th century. It carries on manufactures of paper, cloth, oil, brandy, &c. Pop. (1875) 10,224.

NEU'STADT-E'BERSWALDÉ (since 1876 called officially *Eberswalde* only), a town of Prussia, in the province of Brandenburg, 28 miles north-east of Berlin. It is well known on account of its mineral springs, and carries on extensive manufactures in steel, iron, copper, brass, paper, and porcelain. Pop. (1875) 10,069.

NEU'STADTL AN DER WAAG, a town near the north west frontier of Hungary, 83 miles north-north-west of Neutra. Here excellent red wine is grown, and there is a good trade in grain, wool, sheep-skins, and wax. Pop. (1869) 5451, nearly half of whom are Jews.

NEUSTET'TIT'N, a town of Prussia, in the province of Pomerania, 92 miles south-west from Danzig, on the southern shore of the Vilm See. It is the capital of a circle, and a place of some importance. Pop. (1875) 6971.

NEU-STRE'LITZ, the capital and the residence of the court of the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, pleasantly situated in a hilly district, between two lakes, 60 miles north-north-west of Berlin. It was founded in 1733, is built in the form of an eight-rayed star, and contains the ducal palace, with a library of 70,000 vols., and having magnificent gardens attached. Pop. (1875) 8525, supported chiefly from the expenditure of the court, and by brewing and distilling. A mile south of the town is Alt-Strelitz, with the largest horse-market in the duchy.

NEU'STRIA, or West France (*Francia Occidentalis*), the name given in the times of the Merovingians and Carlovingians to the western portion of the Frank empire, after the quadruple division of it which took place in 511. N. contained three of these divisions. It extended originally from the mouth of the Scheldt to the Loire, and was bounded by Aquitania on the s., and by Burgundy and Austrasia (*Francia Orientalis*) on the e. The principal cities were Soissons, Paris, Orleans, and Tours. Bretagne was always loosely attached to Neustria, of which the strength lay in the Duchy of France. After the cession of the territory afterwards called Normandy to the Normans in 912, the name Neustria soon fell into disuse.

NEU'TITSCHEIN, a small manufacturing town of Moravia, on the Titsch, 80 miles north-east of Brünn. It contains an old castle, and carries on manufactures of cloth and woollen goods, dyeing, and wagon-making. Pop. (1869) 8645.

NEU'TRA, a town of Hungary, the capital of a county of the same name, on a river of the same name, 72 miles north-north-west from Pesth. N. is a very old town, having been the residence of a Moravian prince in the 9th c., before the

Mágyar invasion. Weaving is carried on to some extent, and N. being not far from the Moravian frontier, has a considerable transit-trade. Pop. (1869) 10,683.

**NEUTRAL AXIS**, the name given to an imaginary line through any body which is being subjected to a transverse strain; and separating the forces of extension from those of compression. If the ratio of resistances to extension and impression were the same for all substances, and depended merely on the form of the body, then in all bodies of the same form the neutral axis would have a definite geometrical position; but it has been satisfactorily proved, by Mr Eaton Hodgkinson, that this ratio has a separate value for each substance. In wood, where the ratio is one of equality, the neutral axis in beam supported at both ends, whose section is rectangular, passes lengthwise through the centre of the beam; while in cast-iron, in which the resistance to compression is greater than that to extension, it is a little above, and in wrought iron, in which the contrary is the case, it is a little below, the centre.

**NEUTRAL SALTS.** See SALTS.

**NEUTRALS**, nations who, when a war is being carried on, take no part in the contest, and evince no particular friendship for, or hostility to, any of the belligerents. As a general rule, neutrals should conduct themselves with perfect impartiality, and do nothing which can be considered as favoring one belligerent more than another.

The duties and obligations of neutrals at sea have given rise to many complicated questions. It is allowed on all hands that a neutral state forfeits her character of neutrality by furnishing to either belligerent any of the articles that come under the denomination of Contraband of War (q. v.). If she does so, the other belligerent is warranted in intercepting the succors, and confiscating them as lawful prize. Contraband of war, besides warlike stores, has sometimes been held to include various other articles, a supply of which is necessary for the prosecution of the war; and it has been doubted how far, in some circumstances, corn, hay, and coal may not come under that category.

An important question regarding the rights of neutrals is, whether enemies' goods not contraband of war may be lawfully conveyed in neutral bottoms. The principle that free ships make free goods, was long resisted by this and other maritime countries, and the general understanding has been, that belligerents have a right of visiting and searching neutral vessels for the purpose of ascertaining—1st, whether the ship is really neutral, as the hoisting of a neutral flag affords no absolute security that it is so; 2d, whether it has contraband of war or enemies' property on board. Neutral ships have therefore been held bound to provide themselves with passports from their government, and such papers as are necessary to prove the property of the ship and cargo, and it is their duty to heave to when summoned by the cruisers of either belligerent. It has been considered that a neutral ship which seeks to avoid search by crowding sail or by open force, may be captured and confiscated. When a merchant-ship is sailing under convoy of a vessel of war, it has been said that the declaration of the officer in command of the convoy that there is no contraband of war or belligerent property on board, is sufficient to bar the exercise of the right of search.

A declaration having important bearings on the rights of neutrals, was adopted by the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia, Russia, Sardinia, and Turkey, assembled in congress at Paris, on April 16, 1856. By its provisions, 1. Privateering is abolished. 2. A neutral flag covers enemies' goods, with the exception of contraband of war. 3. Neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, are not liable to capture under the enemy's flag. 4. Blockades, in order to be binding, must be effective, that is, maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the coast of the enemy.

It has sometimes been proposed to exempt private property at sea from attack during war—such a project, however, seems inexpedient. There may be a propriety in respecting the property of individuals on land, in a time of war, because its destruction, however injurious to the persons immediately concerned, can have little influence on the decision of the contest. But at sea, private property is destroyed because those from whom it is taken, being purveyors or carriers for the community at large, its loss must seriously affect the public, and have no small influence in bringing the contest to an end. See BLOCKADE, PRIVATEER.

NEU'WIED, a town of Rhenish Prussia, on the right bank of the Rhine, 5 miles below Coblenz. It is the capital of the principality of Wied, now mediatised and attached to Prussia, and is the seat of the princes of Wied, with a beautiful castle. It was founded in the beginning of the 18th c. by Prince Alexander of Wied-Newweid, who, offering perfect toleration in religious matters, as an inducement, invited colonists of whatever persuasion to settle here. The town is well built, with wide, straight streets, running at right angles to each other, and contains the churches of Protestants, Catholics, Jews, Herrnhuters, &c. The inhabitants are well conditioned and industrious. Pop. (1871) 8664, who carry on manufactures of hosiery, woollen and cotton fabrics, iron-wares, leather, and tobacco.

NE'VA, a river of Russia, in the government of St Petersburg, flows westward from the south-west corner of Lake Ladoga to the Bay of Cronstadt, in the Gulf of Finland. Its length, including windings, is about 40 miles, 9 miles of which are within the limits of the city of St Petersburg; and in some places it is 2100 feet broad, and about 56 feet deep; although at Schlusselburg, where it issues from the lake, and at St Petersburg, where it enters the sea by several branches, it is shallow. From Cronstadt, goods are brought to St Petersburg in lighters or in small steamers. By the Ladoga Canal, the N. communicates with the vast water-system of the Volga, and thus it may be said to join the Baltic with the Caspian Sea. Its current is very rapid, and the volume of its waters is immense. It is covered by drift-ice for upwards of five months—from about the 25th November to the 27th April. An extensive traffic is carried on on its waters, both from the interior and from the Baltic.

NEVA'DA, one of the states of North America, is bound on the w. by California; on the s. by California and Arizona; on the e. by Utah and Arizona; and on the n. by Oregon and Idaho. Lat. 35°—42° n.; long. 114°—120° w. Area, 104,125 square miles. The population in 1870 was 42,491 (including 3152 Chinese), besides 4000 tribal Indians. The chief river is the Humboldt. The principal lakes are the Mud Lakes, Pyramid Lakes, and the Walker and Carson Lakes. N. is the centre of that elevated basin which reaches westward from the Rocky Mountains to the Sierra Nevada, at a mean altitude of about 4000 feet above the level of the sea. Numerous mines, of either gold or silver, have been discovered. The whole country is rich in mineral wealth. Besides gold and silver, quicksilver, lead, and antimony are found. The territorial capital is Carson City (pop. 3042), but the principal town is Virginia City (pop. 7048). The product of silver in N. during the decade 1869—1869 was valued at 137,382,000 dollars; in 1874 its value was about 25,500,000 dollars.

NEVERS, a town of France, capital of the department of Nièvre, and formerly the capital of the province of Nivernais, is built on a hill in the midst of fertile plains, at the confluence of the Loire and the Nièvre, 140 miles south-south-east of Paris. Highly picturesque, as seen from a distance, its interior shews steep, winding, and badly paved streets. It contains a beautiful cathedral of the 10th c., and a fine public garden; the large cavalry barrack, the fine bridge of 20 arches over the Loire, and the triumphal arch, erected in 1746, to commemorate the battle of Fontenoy, are also worthy of mention. N. is the see of a bishop, contains a public library, and has numerous educational, scientific, and benevolent institutions, and an arsenal. There is here an important canon-foundry, and the principal manufactures are porcelain and earthenware, glass, brandy, iron cables and chains, and anvils. Pop. (1872) 19,314.

N., the *Noviodunum* of the Romans, existed prior to the invasion of Gaul by Julius Caesar. It has been the seat of a bishop since the beginning of the 6th c., when it was called Nevirnum, became a county in the 10th c., and was erected into a duchy by Francis I. in 1538.

NEVIA'NSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Perm, 50 miles north from Ekaterinburg. It is on the eastern or Siberian side of the Ural Mountains, and stands on the Neiva, the waters of which flow by the Tobol and the Irtysh to the Obi. The district around N. is famous for its mineral wealth, particularly for its productiveness of gold, copper, and platinum. N. has a min., the tower of which is remarkable as leaning even more than the celebrated tower of Pisa. Pop. 18,000.

NE'VILLE'S CROSS. See BRUCE, DAVID.

NE'VIS, a small island of the West Indies, belonging to Great Britain, forms one

of the group of the Lesser Antilles, and lies immediately south-east of St Christopher's, from which it is separated by a strait called the Narrows, two miles wide. It is circular in form, rises in a central peak to the height of about 2,000 feet, and has an area of 20 square miles. Pop. (1870) 11,735, of whom very few are white. The rest w<sup>r</sup>, a seaport, with a tolerable roadstead, situated on the south-west shore of the island, is the seat of government, consisting of a government council and general assembly. The soil is fertile, and the principal products are sugar, molasses, and rum. In 1875 the revenue of N. was £10,691; and the expenditure £9,526. The imports for 1873 were valued at £52,293; and the exports at £83,225. The value of the sugar exported was £72,342, more than double the value of the year before, but only about £6,000 more than in 1851. The tonnage of vessels entering and clearing in 1873 amounted to 24,429.

**NEW ALBANY**, a city in Indiana, U. S., on the north bank of the Ohio River at the foot of the falls, opposite Portland, and 2 miles below Louisville, Kentucky; a finely situated, well built town, having 22 miles of streets, 6 ship-yards, 6 tanneries, 30 churches, and is the site of Asbury College and a college-institute. It has a large river-traffic and railway connections with Indiana and Kentucky. Pop. (1870) 15,396; (1874) 22,246.

**NEW BEDFORD**, a seaport city of Massachusetts, U. S., on Buzzard's Bay, 55 miles south of Boston. Since 1835, it has been the chief centre of the American whale fisheries. The value of this industry has been for many years on the decline. The trade was at its height in 1853—4, when there were in the district 410 whalers of 132,966 tons, which brought home 44,923 barrels of sperm oil, 115,672 barrels of whale oil, and 2,838,800 lbs. of whalebone. In 1873, N. B. possessed 128 whalers, wh ch brought home 30,961 barrels of sperm oil, 25,729 barrels of whale oil, and 150,598 lbs. of whalebone. It has oil and candle factories, cotton mills, iron mills, copper and glass works, 30 churches, 6 banks, 2 daily and 2 weekly newspapers, a public library of 30,000 volumes, city-hall, custom-house and almshouse. Pop. (1870) 21,320.

\* **NEW BRITAIN**, a manufacturing town in Connecticut, United States, 10 miles south of Hartford, engaged in the production of stockinet goods, locks, jewellery, hooks and eyes, and various kinds of hardware. It has six churches. The water supply is from a reservoir of 175 acres, with a head of 200 feet, supplying public fountains with jets of 140 feet, and dispensing with fire-engines. Pop. (1870) 9480.

**NEW BRITAIN**, the name of one principal, and of several subsidiary islands in the Pacific Ocean, in lat. between  $4^{\circ}$ — $6^{\circ}$   $30' s.$ , and long. between  $148^{\circ}$ — $159^{\circ} 30' e.$  The principal island, 300 miles in length, and having an area of 12,000 square miles, lies east of New Guinea, from which it is separated by Dampier's Straits. The surface is mountainous in the interior, with active volcanoes in the north, but along the coast are fertile plains. Forests abound in the island, and palms, sugar-cane, breadfruit, &c., are produced. The inhabitants, the number of whom is unknown, are described as a tribe of "oriental negroes," and are well formed, active, and of a very dark complexion. They are further advanced in civilisation than is usual among the Polynesians, have a formal religious worship, temples, and images of their deities. N. B. was first seen by Le Maire and Schouten in 1616, but Dampier, at a later date, was the first to land.

**NEW BRUNSWICK**, a city of New Jersey, U. S., is on the south bank of the Raritan River, at the head of navigation, 15 miles from its mouth, 30 miles southwest of New York, on the New Jersey Railway, and the Delaware and Raritan Canal. It has extensive manufactures of cotton, leather, india-rubber, paper-hangings, iron, and machinery, 17 churches, 2 banks, and 4 newspapers. It is the seat of Rutgers College and a theological seminary. Pop. (1860) 11,265; (1870) 15,068.

**NEW BRUNSWICK**, a province of the Dominion of Canada, in North America, is bounded on the n. w. by Canada and the Bay of Chaleur, on the n. e. by the Gulf of St Lawrence and the Strait of Northumberland, on the s. by Nova Scotia and the Bay of Fundy, and on the s. w. by the State of Maine. It has an area of 21,710 square miles, or 17,734,400 acres (rather more than the area of Scotland), and a population, in 1871, of 285,594. The coast-line is 500 miles in extent, and is indented by spacious bays, inlets, and harbors, which afford safe and commodious

anchorage for shipping. The chief are Fundy, Chignecto, and Cumberland Bays, the last two being merely extensions of the first; Passamaquoddy Bay in the south; Verte, Sheldiac, Cocagne, Richibucto, and Miramichi Bays on the north-east, and the Bay of Chaleur, 50 miles long by 27 broad, in the north-west. The province of N. B. abounds in rivers. The principal are the St John and the St Croix, the former 450, and the latter 100 miles in length, and both falling into the Bay of Fundy; and of the rivers that flow eastward into the Gulf of St Lawrence, the Richibucto, the Miramichi, and the Restigouche. The province contains numerous lakes, one of which, Grand Lake, is 100 square miles in area. Most of the others are much smaller. The surface is for the most part flat or undulating. With the exception of the district in the north-west bordering on Canada and the river Restigouche, no portion of N. B. is marked by any considerable elevation. Here, however, the country is beautifully diversified by hills of from 500 to 800 feet in height. These elevations, which form an extension of the Appalachian range, are interspersed with fertile valleys and table-lands, and are clothed almost to their summits with lofty forest-trees. In this district the scenery is remarkably beautiful. In the south of the colony the surface is broken up by great ravines, and the coast is bold and rocky. The shores on the east coast, and for twenty miles inland, are flat. The soil is deep and fertile. Of the whole acreage, 14,000,000 acres are set down as good land, and 3,600,000 acres as poor land. N. B. contains a rich and extensive wheat-producing district; but the inhabitants, dividing their time between farming, lumbering, fishing, ship-building, and other pursuits, and following no regular system of tillage, have not till quite recently attempted to keep pace with modern agricultural improvements. The farming has not been judicious; many parts of the country have been allowed to become exhausted; and, although signs of improvement begin to be manifest, still there is prevalent a deplorable lack of knowledge of the principles of scientific agriculture. Several cheese-factories have been established in the province within the last few years. In one year, one of these has manufactured as much as 25,000 lbs. The crown-lands are at present being disposed of under the Act 31 Vict. cap. 7, 1868. This act provides that certain portions of eligible land shall be reserved for actual settlers, and not be disposed of to speculators, or for lumbering purposes. A male of 18 years of age or upwards may obtain 100 acres, either by payment, in advance, of 20 dollars (about £4, 2s.), to aid in the construction of roads and bridges in the vicinity of his location; or upon his performing labor on such roads and bridges, to the value of 10 dollars a year, for three years. He must also, within two years, build a house on his land of not less dimensions than 16 feet by 20, and clear two acres. After a residence for three years in succession, he receives a deed of grant, if he has paid the 20 dollars in advance, or cultivated 10 acres. The receipts of the crown-lands department of the provincial government, for the year ending October 31, 1868, amounted in value to 3,393,109 dollars. During 1870, no less than 925 grants of land were issued. The climate is remarkably healthy, and the autumn—and especially the season called the Indian summer—is particularly agreeable. In the interior, the heat in summer rises to 80°, and sometimes to 95°; and in winter, which lasts from the middle of December to the middle of March, the mercury sometimes falls as low as 40° below zero. At Fredericton, the capital, situated on St. John's River, 65 miles from the south, and 130 miles from the north coast, the temperature ranges from 35° below to 95° above zero, and the mean is about 42°.

The north-western portion of the province is occupied by the upper Silurian formation. Next are two belts of lower Silurian. Small patches of the Devonian, Huronian, and Laurentian systems are found on the Bay of Fundy. A large part of the province is occupied by carboniferous strata. The mineral coal is for the most part impure or in thin seams, and is hardly worked; but the so-called Albertite of Albert county is the most valuable deposit of bituminous matter on the American continent. It yields 100 gallons of crude oil per ton. Gold and silver occur in N. B.; copper and iron ore of excellent quality, abound; gypsum, plumbago, and limestone are very abundant, and the freestone of the province, unsurpassed for beauty and durability, commands a high price in the States. Wild animals abound in the province; the lakes and rivers are well stocked with fish, and along the coasts, cod, haddock, salmon and other fish are caught in great plenty. The number of schools in N. B. during the winter of 1869 was 828, in which 29,764 pupils were en-

rolled. The value of the imports for 1873-4 was 10,228,871 dollars; of exports, 6,504-, 394-dollars. The number of vessels entering the ports was 2784, of 775,638 tons; clearing, 2662, of 799,265 tons. The number of men employed in the fisheries was 6656; number of vessels, 181, of 2618 tons; number of boats, 3351: value of catch, 2,635,795 dollars. In 1871 the total value of manufactured products was 17,367,687 dollars. In 1874, there were in operation 455 miles of railway. Around the coasts and along the banks of the rivers there are excellent public and coach roads. Chief towns, the city of St John and Fredericton, the political capital.

The province of N. B., together with that of Nova Scotia, originally formed one French colony, called Acadia, or New France. It was ceded to the English in 1713, and was first settled by British colonists in 1764. In 1784 it was separated from Nova Scotia, and erected into an independent colony. It joined the Dominion of Canada in 1867.

**NEW CALEDO'NIA**, an island of the South Pacific Ocean, belonging to France, and lying about 720 miles east-north-east of the coast of Queensland, in Australia, in latitude  $20^{\circ}$ - $22^{\circ} 30'$  s., long.  $164^{\circ}$ - $167^{\circ}$  e. It is about 200 miles in length, 30 miles in breadth, and has a population estimated at 60,000. It is of volcanic origin, is traversed in the direction of its length, from north-west to south-east, by a range of mountains, which in some cases reach the height of about 8000 feet, and is surrounded by sand-banks and coral-reefs. There are secure harbors at Port Balade and Port St Vincent, the former on the north-east, the latter on the south-west part of the island. In the valleys the soil is fruitful, producing the cocoa-nut, banana, mango, bread-fruit, &c. The sugar-cane is cultivated, and the vine grows wild. The coasts support considerable tracts of forest, but the mountains are barren. The inhabitants, who resemble the Papuan race, consist of different tribes, some of which are cannibals. N. C. was discovered by Captain Cook in 1770. In 1858 the French took possession of it, and it has since 1872 been used by the French authorities as a penal settlement. Missionaries have been established on the island, and many of the natives are said to have embraced Christianity.

**NEW'CHURCH**, a very thriving town of Lancashire, England, 19 miles north from Manchester, in Rosendale, not far from the source of the Irwell. It has recently and rapidly risen to its present importance. There are numerous cotton and woollen manufactures, employing many operatives. Coal is also wrought in the neighborhood, and there are numerous large quarries of excellent freestone. Pop. about 4000. The neighborhood is very populous, abounding in manufactures and other public works.—Not much more than a mile to the west of N., is Rawtenstall, a large village, now almost a town, and rapidly increasing.

**NEW COLLEGE**, Oxford. The College of St Mary of Winchester, in Oxford, commonly called New College, was founded by William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester and Lord High Chancellor in 1386. The buildings are magnificent, and the gardens of great beauty. The most remarkable peculiarity of New College is its connection with Winchester School, another noble foundation of Wykeham. After the kin of the founder (to whom a preference was always given), the fellows were to be taken from Winchester. The late practice was that "two founders," as they were called, were put at the head of the roll for Winchester, and two others at the head of the roll for New College. In 1851, the college consisted of a warden and 70 fellows (elected in this way from Winchester), 10 chaplains, 8 clerks, and 16 choristers. By the ordinances under 17 and 18 Vict. c. 81, considerable changes were introduced, but the connection of the college with Winchester was in great measure preserved. The number of fellows was fixed at 30. Of these, 15 are open only to those who have been educated at Winchester, or who have been for 12 terms members of New College. The other 15 are open without restriction. The value of the fellowships is not to be more than £200 per annum, so long as their number is less than 40. There are also to be 30 scholarships, tenable for five years, of value not less than £80 per annum, inclusive of rooms, to be appointed by the warden and fellows of New College, by the election of boys receiving education at Winchester School. No conditions of birth are to be regarded in the election either of fellows or scholars. By a subsequent statute, the chaplains are made 3 in number, and from 8 to 10 choral scholars are added, to be upon an equality with the other scholars. This college presents to 40 benefices, and elects the warden of Winchester College.

NEW ENGLAND, a collective name given to the six eastern states of the United States of America—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut—including an area of 65,000 square miles. The people distinctively known as Yankees, and mostly descended from an English Puritan and Scottish ancestry, are engaged in commerce, fisheries and manufactures, and are celebrated for industry and enterprise. This region was granted by James I. to the Plymouth Company in 1606, under the title of North Virginia, and the coast was explored by Captain John Smith in 1614. See accounts of the several States.

NEW FOREST, the name of a district in Hampshire (q. v.), triangular in shape, and bounded on the w. by the river Avon, on the s. by the coast, and on the n. e. by a line running from the borders of Wiltshire along the Southampton Water. Area about 64,000 acre. This triangle appears to have been a great wooded district from the earliest times, and its present name dates from the Norman Conquest, when it was regularly afforested. Since that period it has remained a possession of the crown, subject to rights of "pannage," vert (greenwood) and turf-cutting, claimed by various estates in or near the Forest. During the "pannage" month, which commences at the end of September, and lasts for six weeks, the borderers drive in h'ds of swine to feed on the mast in the Forest, and this right they obtain by paying a small annual fee in the Stewarts Court at Lyndhurst, which is considered the capital of the Forest. Formerly, this district was the haunt of numerous "squatters," but their huts are now rarely to be seen. Gipsies, however, still congregate here in considerable numbers. In 1854, a commission was appointed to examine the extent and nature of the rights of pannage, &c., claimed by the foresters and borderers, and in a large majority of cases the claims were confirmed. The principal trees in the forest are the oak and beech, with large patches of holly as underwood. The oaks have been much used as timber for the British navy. Tracts of exquisite woodland scenery are everywhere to be met with. The afforestation of this district by the Conqueror, enforced by savagely severe Forest laws, was regarded as an act of the greatest cruelty, and the violent deaths met by both of his sons, Richard and William Rufus—both of whom were killed by accidental arrow-wounds in the Forest—were looked upon as special judgments of Providence. A small breed of pony lives wild under its shelter.

NEW GRANADA, since Sept. 1851, has been officially styled *The United States of Colombia*. This federative republic was formed at the convention of Bogota at the date specified, and consists of nine "states," Panama, Santander, Cauca, Boyacá, Cundinamarca, Antioquia, Tolima, Bolívar, Magdalena. It is bounded on the n. by the Caribbean Sea; on the w. by Costa Rica, a republic of Central America, and by the Pacific; on the s. by Ecuador and Brazil; and on the e. by Venezuela. Area, 513,783 square miles; pop. (1970) 2,594,992, of whom nearly a half are of European descent. By a constitution dated May 1863, the executive authority is vested in a president elected for two years, while the legislative power rests with a Senate and a House of Representatives. The federal army of this republic consists of 3000 men on the peace footing, but in a time of war each state is bound to furnish a contingent of one in a hundred of its population. The revenue in 1878 was 4,838,800 dollars, and the expenditure 7,271,938. The public debt in the same year was close on 16,000,000 dollars. The total imports in 1876-7 had a value of 6,709,109 dollars; the exports, 10,349,071. Besides the railway across the Isthmus of Panama, there is another short line; and about 1250 miles of telegraph are in operation.

The country is intersected by three great ranges of the Andes, which spread out like the rays of an open hand from the plateau of Pasto and Túquerrez in the south (14,000 feet high), and are known as the Western, Central, and Eastern Cordillera. Between these chains lie the long and beautiful valleys of the Cauca and the Magdalena. The Central Cordillera is the highest chain, rising in Nevada de Tolima to a height of 18,020 feet, and from one of its peaks, near the frontiers of Ecuador, called Paramo de las Papas, descend the two principal rivers of N. G., the Magdalena and its tributary the Cauca, flowing north into the Caribbean Sea, besides several affluents of the Amazon in the east, and one or two streams flowing westward into the Pacific. The Eastern Cordillera is by far the largest chain, and consists of a series of vast table-lands, cool and healthy, where the white race flourishes as vigorously as in Europe. This temperate region is the most densely peopled

portion of the Confederation, being, in some places, at the rate of 2600 to the square league. Bogota (q. v.), the present capital, is situated on one of these plateaux, at an elevation of 8694 feet. Eastward from this Cordillera stretch enormous plains as far as the Orinoco, the greater part of which belongs to N. G., and through which flow the Meta, the Guaviare, and other tributaries of the Orinoco. The geology of the country is very extraordinary. "Everywhere," we are told, "are found traces of stupendous cataclysms, and a disarrangement and intermixture of primitive and sedimentary rocks, which seem to put all classification at defiance." In the course of one day's journey, the traveller may experience in this country all the climates of the world. Perpetual snow covers the summits of the Cordilleras; while the rich vegetation of the tropics covers the valleys. With its great variety of levels and climates, N. G. yields naturally an equally great variety of production: cattle, horses, wheat, and other European grains, maize, tobacco, coffee, plantains, cotton, cacao, sugar, cedar, mahogany, cinchona bark, ipecacuanha, gold, silver, copper, iron, and lead, coal, emeralds, pearls, and rock-salt.

By the constitution, complete toleration in matters of religion and worship, the freedom of the press, a system of parish-schools, with gratuitous primary education, and many other important helps to civilisation and liberty have been established. The inhabitants rank first among the South Americans in point of literary and scientific culture. There are at present about 1000 public schools in the country, many seminaries and colleges for higher and professional instruction; there are printing establishments, periodicals, and numerous literary, scientific and benevolent institutions.

The chief aborigines of the country, called *Chibchas* or *Muyacas*, held a high rank among the semi-civilised nations of the New World. They are said to have been frugal and industrious, with a well-organised government and a very passable religion—for heathens. They were conquered by Ximenes de Quesado (1586-1587), and their descendants are now "Christians," and speak the Spanish language. Several of the other tribes still maintain a savage mode of life; and some, as the *Mesayos*, are even said to be cannibals. In 1718, N. G. was erected into a vice-royalty by Spain. In 1819, it became independent, and then joined with Ecuador and Venezuela to form the republic of Colombia; but the union was dissolved in 1829-1830, and N. G. was organised as a separate republic in 1832. After several changes in the constitution (in 1848, 1851, 1858), a complete fundamental change was made in 1858, by which the separate "provinces" were changed into "states," associated under a federal government like the "United States" of North America, but self-governing in all internal affairs. In 1860, another revolution broke out, and for more than two years, the country was devastated by civil war. Finally, on the 29th September 1861, a convention was concluded between the Conservatives, or Federalists, and the "Liberals," which put an end to the strife. As the victory lay with the latter, certain changes have again been made in the constitution, and the country is now, as stated above, officially designated the "United States of Colombia." The first president under the new form of the constitution commenced his term of office on April 1, 1864.

#### NEW GU'NEA. See PAPUA.

NEW HAMPSHIRE, one of the original thirteen United States of America, in lat. 42° 41'-45° 11' n., long. 70° 40'-72° 28' w., is 176 miles long, and on an average 45 miles wide, having an area of 9280 square miles, or 5,959,200 acres. It is bounded n. by Canada, e. by Maine and the Atlantic Ocean, s. by Massachusetts, and w. by Vermont, from which it is separated by the Connecticut River. It has ten counties; the chief towns are Manchester, Portsmouth, Dover, Nashua, Keene, and Concord, the capital. The population, except the recent influx of Irish in the manufacturing towns, is almost entirely descended from the original English and Scottish settlers. It has 18 miles of sea-coast, and one seaport, Portsmouth, at the mouth of the Piscataqua River, with a deep and commodious harbor. Its other chief rivers are the Connecticut and the Merrimack. It is a state of mountains and lakes, much visited by tourists, and called "The Granite State" and "The Switzerland of America." The White Mountains lie in the north central region. Their highest summits are Mount Washington, 6285 feet; and Mount Lafayette, 5500 feet. A notch in the White Mountains, 2 miles long, and in the narrowest part only 22 feet wide, affords

passage to a road and mountain stream, and is much visited. The lakes and rivers of N. H. occupy in all about 110,000 acres. Lake Winnepesaukee is 25 miles long by 1 to 10 miles wide with 360 islands, from a few yards to many acres in area, mostly covered with evergreens. The rocky strata consist of metamorphic rocks, mica and talcose slates, quartz, granular limestones, granite, gneiss, and contain magnetic and specular iron ores, beryls, tourmaline, mica, graphite, and steatite or soap-stone. The soil, except in the fertile valleys, is better adapted to pasture than culture. The winters are long and cold, so that in the mountainous regions mercury sometimes freezes. In the forests are oak, maple, pine, hemlock, spruce, &c. The chief agricultural products are maize, rye, oats, apples, potatoes, and products of the dairy. Numerous waterfalls give motive-power to many cotton factories, woollen, iron, and paper mills, &c. The state has 915 miles of railway, 45 national and 65 savings banks, a college (at Dartmouth), 700 churches, 50 newspapers, an excellent system of free schools, and government and judiciary similar to all the American states. N. H. was settled in 1623 by colonists from Hampshire in England, who suffered during the colonial period from Indian wars and depredations. The state was organised in 1776. It has furnished a multitude of emigrants to the newer and more fertile western states. Pop. (1810) 214,360; (1840) 284,574; (1870) 318,300.

NEW HA'RMONY, a village of Indiana, first settled in 1815 by a German community of religious socialists, called Harmonists, under the leadership of George Rapp. In 1824, the village and domain was purchased by Robert Owen, for an experimental community on his system. After the speedy failure of this society, the property was bought by William Maclure for a School of Industry. It is now a flourishing western village, of (1870) 836 inhabitants.

NEW HA'VEN, the chief city and seaport of Connecticut, U. S., at the head of a bay, 4 miles from Long Island Sound, 76 miles east-north-east of New York. Its broad streets are shaded with elms, and the public squares, parks, and gardens, with its handsome public and private edifices, make it one of the most beautiful of American cities. It is the seat of Yale College (q. v.), which has more than a dozen large buildings and a Gothic library, 150 feet long. There are a handsome custom-house, state-house, hospital, 51 churches, academias and schools, 9 banks, 5 daily papers, and 3 ornamental cemetaries. There are large manufactorys of carriages, clocks, and leather, iron and india-rubber works. It has railway and steam-boat connection with New York, &c. Pop. (1870) 50,840.

NEW HE'BRIDES, a group of islands in the Pacific Ocean, to the n.e. of New Caledonia, and to the w. of the Fijis, in s. lat. between  $14^{\circ}$  and  $20^{\circ}$ , and in e. long. between  $167^{\circ}$  and  $170^{\circ}$ . Total area estimated at 2500 sq. m. They are regarded as the most easterly point of the western division of Polynesia. The group embraces Espiritu Santo (65 miles long by 20 broad), Malicollo (60 miles long by 28 broad), Vati Ambrym, Annatom, Erromango, and Tanna, with an active volcano. Aurora, one of the most fertile of the group, disappeared in 1871, leaving no trace. Most of the group are hilly and well wooded, some even mountainous. The most important woods are ebony and sandal; the principal edible products, yams, bananas, cucumbers, cocoa-nuts, and sweet potatoes; and the only animal of consequence, a diminutive species of hog, which, when full-grown, is no bigger than a rabbit. The inhabitants, who number about 200,000, are fierce, but excessively dirty and unintelligent. Erromango is a well-known name in missionary history, being the scene of the barbarous massacre of the Rev John Williams—generally called the Martyr of Erromango.

NEW HO'LLAND, the former name for Australia (q. v.).

NEW INN HALL, Oxford. This Hall, with certain gardens adjoining, was presented to the warden and fellows of New College, by William of Wykeham in 1392. The first principal on record occurs in 1438. During the Civil War it was used as a mint for Charles I. It was restored to the purposes of instruction by Dr Crainer, the late principal, who erected a handsome building for the use of the students.

NEW I'RELAND, a long narrow island in the Pacific Ocean, lying to the north-east of New Britain (q. v.), from which it is separated by St George's Channel; lat.  $2^{\circ} 40'$ — $4^{\circ} 52'$  s., long.  $150^{\circ} 30'$ — $152^{\circ} 50'$  e. Length about 200 miles; average breadth, 12 miles. The hills rise to a height of from 1500 to 2000 feet, and are richly wooded. The principal trees are coccos on the coast, and in the interior forests of areca-palm.

The chief products are sugar-cane, bananas, yams, cocoa-nuts. Dogs, pigs, and turtles abound. The natives are apparently of the same race as the inhabitants of Australia; but our information about them is extremely scanty.

**NEW JERSEY.** one of the original thirteen U. S., in lat.  $38^{\circ} 55' - 41^{\circ} 21'$  n., and long.  $73^{\circ} 58' - 75^{\circ} 29'$  w., 168 miles long, with a breadth which varies from 59 to 32 miles, containing an area of 8320 square miles, or 5,824,800 acres; bounded n. by New York, e. by the Hudson River and the Atlantic Ocean, s. by the Ocean and Delaware Bay, and w. by Delaware Bay and River, which separate it from Delaware and Pennsylvania. It has 21 counties. The chief towns are Trenton (the capital), Newark, Paterson, Jersey City, Elizabeth, Camden, Hoboken. Its coast-line is 120 miles, or, including bays, 540 miles. Besides its bordering rivers, the Hudson and Delaware, its principal streams are the Passaic, Hackensack, and Raritan. The northern portion of the state is hilly and mountainous. The Palisades, a wall of perpendicular trap-rocks, from 200 to 500 feet high, form the western bank of the Hudson River for fifteen miles, and one of the grandest features of its scenery. The central portion of the state is a rolling country, and the southern and eastern portion a sandy plain declining to the sea. Five geological belts cross the state, containing a sandy pine plain with bog iron ore, shelly marls used for manure, glass sand, green-sand or marl, plastic clay, used in making firebricks, metamorphic rocks, argillaceous red sandstone, copper ores, gneiss with specular and magnetic iron ores, red oxide of zinc, and Franklinitic iron. Among the most attractive features in the scenery are the Falls of the Passaic, the Delaware Water-Gap, and Schooley's Mountain. Atlantic City, a bathing-place on the sea-coast, connected by railway with Philadelphia, is a fashionable summer resort. The climate is mild, the soil north of the pine plains fertile, the country healthy, except the malarious river-bottoms. The agricultural products of the state are wheat, maize, oats, common and sweet potatoes, apples, peaches, plums, grapes, melons, and garden vegetables for the great neighboring markets of New York and Philadelphia. There are cotton and woollen factories, iron-works, extensive manufactories of machinery, locomotives, carriages, glass, boots and shoes, &c. The state draws a large revenue from 1328 miles of railway, and several important canals, connecting New York and the coal regions of Pennsylvania. There are 4 colleges, normal and free schools, numerous churches, periodicals, and daily papers. The government is similar to those of all the states.

N. J. was settled in 1620 by Dutch and Swedes. Taken by the English, it was ceded by Charles II. to the Duke of York; it was re-taken by the Dutch in 1673, and afterwards bought by William Penn and other Friends, who have here numerous descendants. It was the scene of some of the most important military movements of the War of Independence, and of the battles of Trenton, Princeton, Mounmouth, and Germantown. Pop. in 1840, 373,306; in 1860, 672,031; in 1870, 906,096.

**NEW JOHIO'RE,** formerly Tanjong Patri, a Malay settlement on the southern extremity of the Malay peninsula. Here the rajah or Tummongong of Johore, who is an independent sovereign, occasionally resides. The climate is healthy; large quantities of gambir and pepper are raised in the vicinity; saw-mills on an extensive scale are in operation. Vessels of the largest draught can approach close to the shore. The valuable timbers of these immense forests are yet scarcely known, but must find their way to the Indian, if not European markets, ere long. Population in the N. J. territory about 20,000, chiefly Chinese.

**NEW LO'NDON,** a city and port of entry, in Connecticut, U. S. of America, on the right bank of the river Thames, 3 miles from Long Island Sound, 40 miles, s.e. of New Haven. It is a rich and handsome town, with a custom-house, 11 churches, academy, public schools, a daily and a weekly paper, 5 banks, several iron-foundries and steam saw-mills, a machine-manufacturing company, a deep secure harbor, protected by a fort of 80 guns, with 20,000 tons of shipping, much of it engaged in the whale fisheries, and railway and steam-boat communications. Pop. (1870) 9576. It was settled in 1644, and in 1781 burned by General Arnold.

**NEW MA'LTON.** See MALTON.

**NEW ME'XICO,** a territory belonging to the U. S., formerly a state of Mexico, in lat.  $31^{\circ} 32' - 37^{\circ}$  n., long.  $103^{\circ} - 109^{\circ} 9'$  w., 350 miles from east to west, and 350 to 400 from north to south, with an area of 121,201 square miles; bounded n. by

the state of Colorado; e. by the Indian territory and Texas; s. by Texas and Mexico; and w. by Arizona. Its chief towns are Santa Fé, Albuquerque, Tuos, Silver City, Mesilla. Its chief rivers are the Rio Grande, which crosses the territory from north to south; the Pecos, a branch of the Rio Grande; the Colorado, on the California boundary; the Gila, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, and flows westwards into the Colorado. These rivers and their branches water broad and fertile valleys, and supply the lack of rain by irrigation. Two great chains of the Rocky Mountains or Cordilleras pass through the eastern portion of the territory from north to south, and lesser mountain-ranges diversify the west, rising to elevations of 12,000 feet. The climate is cold in the elevated regions, hot in the plains, but everywhere dry and healthy. Heavy rains fall in July and August, but the rest of the year is dry. The productions are wheat, maize, fruits, and tobacco, with abundant pasture. There are numerous mines of gold, silver, copper, iron and salt. Merchandise is transported from St. Louis and Texas in wagon or mule trains. The Indian population consists of 25,268 who sustain tribal relations, and 1309 out of these relations—total, 26,577. The tribes are the wild and predatory Navajoes, Apaches, Utahs, Comanches, &c., who possess large herds of horses, and make perpetual war upon the neighboring settlements. This territory was explored by the Spaniards in 1587, who opened mines, established missions and made some progress in civilising the natives. In 1846, Santa Fé, the capital, was taken by an American expedition under General Kearney. At the close of the war in 1848, N. M. was ceded to the United States, and erected into a territory in 1850. White population in 1870, 90,398.

NEW ORLEANS, capital city and port of entry of Louisiana, U. S., on the left bank of the Mississippi River, 100 miles from its mouth, lat.  $29^{\circ} 58' n.$ , long.  $90^{\circ} w.$  The city is built on the alluvial banks of the river, on ground lower than the high-water level, protected from inundations by the *levees* or embankments, which extend for hundreds of miles on both banks of the river. The streets descend from the river bank to the swamps, and the drainage is by canals which open into Lake Pontchartrain, which is on a level with the Gulf of Mexico. The city is long and narrow, extending about six miles along the river, on an inner and outer curve, giving it the shape of the letter S. The older portion, extending around the outer curve, gave it the name of "the Crescent City." N. O. is the great port of transhipment for a large portion of the cotton crop of the southern American States, the sugar crop of Louisiana, and the produce of the vast region drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries. It commands 10,000 miles of steam-boat navigation, and is the natural entrepôt of one of the richest regions of the world. In the fiscal year ended June 1874, the value of imports into N. O. was 14,533,864 dollars; of exports, the value was 93,715,710 dollars. The sugar product in 1873 was 103,241,119 lbs., value 8,122,575 dollars. The custom-house is one of the largest buildings in America. The hotels, theatres, and public buildings are on a magnificent scale. There are a branch mint, 55 hospitals, infirmaries, and asylums, several colleges, Roman Catholic cathedral, 150 churches, 7 daily newspapers, extensive cotton-presses, cotton and sugar warehouses, several banks, and all the facilities for a vast commerce. Besides the great river, N. O. has railways connecting it with the north, east, and west. It is a beautiful, and, but for the very frequent visits of the yellow fever, a healthy city. The visitation of this dreaded epidemic in the lower Mississippi valley in 1878, was one of the most terrible on record. The soil is full of water, so that no excavations can be made. The largest buildings have no cellars below the surface; and in the cemeteries there are no graves, but the dead are placed in tombs or "ovens," above ground. N. O. was settled by the French in 1718; with Louisiana, it was transferred to Spain in 1763; soon after retransferred to France, and sold, with a vast territory drained by the Mississippi and Missouri, by Napoleon I. to the United States in 1803. In 1815 it was successfully defended against a British Army, under General Packenham, by General, afterwards President Jackson. In 1860, Louisiana having seceded from the Union, N. O. became an important centre of commercial and military operations, and was closely blockaded by a Federal fleet. An expedition of gun-boats, under Commander Farragut, forced the defences near the mouth of the river, April 24, 1862; the city was compelled to surrender, and occupied by General Butler as military governor. In 1863, on its cession to the Union, the population was about 8000, mostly French and Spanish; in

1820 it had increased to 27,000; in 1860, to 169,823, and consisted of Americans, French, creoles, Irish, &c.; in 1870, it was 191,418.

**NEW RED SANDSTONE.** A large series of reddish colored loams, shales, and sandstones, occurring between the Carboniferous Rocks and the Lias, were grouped together under this name, in contradistinction to the Old Red Sandstone group, which lies below the Coal-measures, and has a similar mineral structure. Conybeare and Buckland proposed the title Poikilitic (Gr. variegated) for the same strata, because some of the most characteristic beds are variegated with spots and streaks of light-blue, green, and buff, on a red base. In the progress of geology, however, it was found that two very distinct periods were included under these names; and the contained fossils of each group were found to be so remarkably different, that the one period was referred to the Palæozoic series under the name Permian (q. v.), while the other, known as the Trias (q. v.), was determined to belong to the Secondary series.

**NEW ROSS.** a seaport and parliamentary borouugh of Ireland, situated on the estuary of the Barrow, partly in the county of Kilkenny, but chiefly in that of Wexford, distant 84 miles south-south-west from Dublin. It is an ancient town, having been surrounded by walls about the middle of the 18th century. Before the union, it returned two members to parliament, of whom one was withdrawn by the Act of Union. It is now a place of considerable commerce, and the modern part of the town on the Wexford side is built with great regularity and taste. On the Kilkenny side is a straggling suburb called Rosbercon, connected with N. R. by a metal bridge, erected at a cost of £50,187, which has a swivel-pillar in the centre, to allow vessels to pass; formerly, the connection was by a wooden bridge, nearly 700 feet in length. The port is approachable at spring-tides by ships of 800 tons, and at all times by vessels of 600 tons; and there is a communication by river and canal with Dublin, and also with Limerick. The town is managed by a board of twenty-one commissioners. It possesses no manufactures of any importance. Pop. in 1871, 6772.

**NEW RUSSIA.** See RUSSIA.

**NEW SHOREHAM.** See SHOREHAM.

**NEW SIBERIA,** a group of islands in the Arctic Ocean, lying north-north-east of the mouth of the River Lena, in Eastern Siberia, Lat.  $73^{\circ} 20'$ — $76^{\circ} 12'$  N., long.  $135^{\circ} 20'$ — $150^{\circ} 20'$  E.; area, 20,480 square miles. The principal are Kotelnoi (the largest), Liakov, Fadlevskoi, and New Siberia. The coasts are in general rocky, and are covered all the year round with snow. The islands are very important, on account of the immense multitude of bones and teeth of mammoths, rhinoceroses, buffaloes, &c., which are found in the soil. They are now uninhabited, but there are traces of former inhabitants. Neither bush nor tree is to be seen anywhere.

**NEW SOUTH WALES**, a British colony in the south-east of Australia. It originally comprised all the Australian settlements east of the 135th meridian, but the formation, successively, of the separate colonies of South Australia (1836), Victoria (1851), and Queensland (1859), has reduced it to more moderate dimensions. It is now bounded on the N. by a line which, beginning at Point Danger, in lat.  $28^{\circ} 8'$  S., follows several lines of heights across the Dividing Range till it meets the 29th parallel, which forms the rest of the boundary westward; on the W. by the 141st meridian; on the E. by the Pacific Ocean; and the line separating it from Victoria on the S. runs from Cape Howe, at the south-east of the island, north-west to the source of the Murray (q. v.), and then along that stream, in a direction west by north, to the western boundary of the two colonies. Area, 828,437 sq. m., or somewhat less than four times that of the island of Great Britain: pop. (1871) 503,981, of whom 275,551 were males, and 228,430 females; (1874) 584,278. The more general physical character of the country is described under AUSTRALIA. Within the colony of N. S. W. the mountain-range, which girdles nearly the whole Island, is most continuous and elevated, and is known as the Dividing Range. The section of this mountain system on the southern boundary of the colony, called the Australian Alps, rises in Mount Kosciusko to 7308 feet. From this the range extends northward, the water-shed being from 60 to 150 miles distant from the east coast, and thus divides the colony into two slopes, with two distinct water-systems. The rivers on the eastern side descend with great rapidity, and in oblique tortuous courses, their channels often for-

ing deep ravines. Many of them are navigable in their lower course for sea-going steamers. The principal are the Richmond, Clarence, M'Leay, Manning, Hunter, Hawkesbury, and Shoalhaven. The Hunter River, about 60 miles north of Sydney, opens up one of the most fertile and delightful districts in the country. The Dividing Range, which, opposite to Sydney is called the Blue Mountains, being singularly abrupt and rugged, and full of frightful chasms, long presented an impenetrable barrier to the west and kept the colonists shut in between it and the sea, and utterly ignorant of what lay beyond. At last, in 1813, when the cattle were likely to perish in one of those long droughts that appear to visit this country at intervals of a dozen years, three adventurous individuals scaled the formidable barrier, and discovered those downs on the western slope which now form the great sheep ranges of Australia. A practicable line of road was immediately constructed by convict labor, and the tide of occupation entered on the new and limitless expanse. The numerous streams that rise on the west side of the water-shed within the colony, all converge and empty their waters into the sea through one channel within the colony of South Australia. The southern and main branch of this great river-system is the Murray. The other great trunks of the system are the Murrumbidgee, which is navigable; the Lachlan, at times reduced to a string of ponds; and the Darling. The Macquarie passing through the rich district of Bathurst (q. v.), is a large tributary of the Darling, but it reaches it only in the rainy seasons. The coast-line from Cape Howe to Point Danger is upwards of 700 miles long, and presents numerous good harbors formed by the estuaries of the rivers. Owing to the great extent of the colony, stretching as it does over eleven degrees of latitude, the climate is very various. In the northern districts, which are the warmest, the climate is tropical, the summer heat occasionally rising in inland districts to 120°, while on the high table-lands, weeks of severe frost are sometimes experienced. At Sydney, the mean temperature of the year is about 65°. The mean heat of summer, which lasts here from the beginning of December to the end of February, is about 80°, but it is much modified on the coast by the refreshing sea-breeze. The annual fall of rain is about 50 inches. Rain sometimes descends in continuous torrents, and causes the rivers to rise to an extraordinary height. Sometimes the rains almost fail for two or three years in succession (see AUSTRALIA). The coast, for 300 m. from the northern boundary, is adapted for growing cotton, and in 1808, when a large quantity was grown, the average produce was 180 lbs. per acre; but cotton-planting seems now to have been abandoned. Further south, the climate is more temperate, and is fitted to produce all the grain products of Europe. Immense tracts of land, admirably adapted for agriculture, occur in the south-western interior; while in the south-east coast districts, the soil is celebrated for its richness and fertility. In the north, the cotton and tobacco plants, the vine, and sugar-cane are grown, and pine-apples, bananas, guavas, lemons, citrons, and other tropical fruits are produced. In the cooler regions of the south, peaches, apricots, nectarines, oranges, grapes, pomegranates, melons, and all the British fruits, are grown in perfection, and sometimes in such abundance that the pigs are fed with them. Wheat, barley, oats, maize, and all the cereals and vegetables of Europe are also grown.

Agriculture is thus increasing in importance, though the predominating interest is still pastoral. In 1875-6, there were 36,984 freeholders and leaseholders occupying 13,525,497 acres of land, of which 451,139 acres were under cultivation, 7,771,068 acres inclosed but not cultivated, and the remainder (6,803,290) not inclosed. The largest crops were—wheat (188,610 acres) and maize (117,582 acres). The other crops included oats, barley, rye, potatoes, millet, &c. Considerable attention has been bestowed on the cultivation of the vine and the manufacture of wine. The produce in 1875-6 was 831,749 gallons of wine and 2748 gallons of brandy, besides 768 tons of grapes.

The great produce of the colony is wool, the exports in 1875 amounting to 87,534,280 pounds, valued at £5,651,643. Sheep-farming requires a large capital, together with skill and experience; and the sheep-farmers or squatters form the territorial aristocracy of the colony. All the best pasture-land has long been taken up and rented (for periods of 10—15 years) from the crown under certain conditions. Stations, or the right of grazing, with the stock on them, are continually advertised for sale; the price of a station is according to the number of cattle or sheep on it. The question of the rent that the "squatters" should pay (which used

to be about £10), and of the tenure by which the pasture-lands should be held, was long a source of agitation and bitterness in the colony. They now pay about a farthing a year for each sheep the run can support. According to the present regulations, arable lands are disposed of by two distinct systems of sale: one, to the highest bidder at auction in unlimited quantities; the other, at a fixed price in limited quantities. By this last, known in the colony as "Free Selection before Survey," the intending cultivator can first select for himself, and then secure in fee simple a quantity not less than 40, and not more than 320 acres, at the rate of 20s. per acre, on condition of residing on his farm, improving a portion of it, and not subletting it.

The coal-fields of N. S. W. are extensive, and the seams of great thickness. In 1875, 1,258,475 tons, valued at £765,188, were raised. Iron, lead, copper and oil-shale are abundant. Gold was discovered here in May 1851, and in that year gold was exported to the amount of £468,836. This amount was increased to £2,660,946 in 1852, but subsequently, owing to the discovery of the richer diggings of Victoria, gold-mining in this colony began to languish. Since 1857, however, the annual amounts found and exported have been steadily increasing; that for 1869 being 234,382 oz., valued at £886,749; and in 1875, the value exported was £2,094,505, nearly all coin. In 1875 there were in the colony 22,872,882 sheep, 2,856,699 cattle, and 346,691 horses. In 1871, the revenue was £4,709,010; the expenditure £4,179,840; in 1875, the revenue amounted to £4,126,803, and the expenditure to £3,845,682. The exports in 1875 amounted to £18,671,590, comprising barley, oats, potatoes, live-stock, preserved meat, leather, wool, tallow, coal, gold-dust, and sovereigns: the imports, consisting largely of articles for food and clothing, &c., were £18,490,200. The Sydney branch of the Royal Mint was instituted in 1855, and issues large quantities of gold in sovereigns and half-sovereigns. There were in 1876 about 509 miles of railway already open in the colony, while about 900 miles additional were in course of construction. There is telegraphic communication between all the important places in the colony, and also with other colonies; length of wire in 1876, 8012 miles. N. S. W. is self-governed, with a governor appointed by the Queen, a responsible ministry, a legislative council nominated by the crown, and a House of Assembly elected by permanent residents. As regards religion, all sects are on a footing of equality. On Jan. 1, 1876, there were 1039 regular places of worship, affording accommodation to 57,000 Episcopalians, 50,000 Roman Catholics, 24,000 Presbyterians, 44,000 Methodists, &c. The number of schools under the Council of Education, in 1875, was 1042; besides these there are 544 private schools. There were, in all, 123,00 scholars. For the higher education, see SYDNEY. The capital is Sydney, with a pop. of 154,494; and the other chief towns are Parramatta, Bathurst (q. v.), Goulburn, Maitland, Newcastle, Grafton and Armidale, with populations ranging from 3000 to 17,000.

N. S. W. took its origin in a penal establishment, formed by the British Government in 1788 at Port Jackson, near Botany Bay (latitude 34°). The prisoners, after their period of servitude, or on being pardoned, became settlers, and obtained grants of land; and these "emancipists" and their descendants, together with free emigrants, constitute the present inhabitants. Transportation to N. S. W. ceased in 1840, and up to that date, the total number of convicts sent thither amounted to 60,700, of whom only 8700 were women. They were assigned as bond-servants to the free settlers, who were obliged to furnish them with a fixed allowance of clothing and food. In 1838, there were 28,000 free males and 13,500 free females, to 22,000 male and 2700 female convicts; and of the free population, above 16,000 were emancipists. The following table shews the recent rate of increase in the population:

|            | Males.  | Females. | Total.  |
|------------|---------|----------|---------|
| 1850 ..... | 154,575 | 110,928  | 265,503 |
| 1861.....  | 202,099 | 156,119  | 358,278 |
| 1871.....  | 275,551 | 228,430  | 503,981 |

The increase of population in Sydney, within the past ten or twenty years, has been over 23·5 per cent.; and in the suburban districts it has been about 60 per cent.

NEW STYLE Sec CALENDAR, DATE.

NEW SWINDON. Sec SWINDON.

NEW-YEAR'S DAY, the first day of the year. The custom of celebrating by some religious observance, generally accompanied by festive rejoicing, the first day of the year, appears to have prevailed among most of the ancient nations. The Jews, the Egyptians, the Chinese, the Romans, and the Mohammedans, although differing as to the time from which they reckoned the commencement of the year, all regarded it as a day of special interest. In Rome, the year anciently began in March; and when Numa, according to the ancient legend, transferred it to the 1st of January, that day was held sacred to *Janus Bifrons*, who was thus supposed to turn at once back upon the old year and forward into the new. On the establishment of Christianity, the usage of a solemn inauguration of the New Year was retained; but considerable variety prevailed, both as to the time and as to the manner of its celebration. Christmas Day, the Annunciation (25th March), Easter Day, and 1st March, have all, at different times or places, shared with the 1st of January the honor of opening the New Year; nor was it till late in the 16th c., that the 1st of January was universally accepted as the first day of the New Year. The early fathers—Chrysostom, Ambrose, Augustine, Peter Chrysologus, and others—in reprobation of the immoral and superstitious observances of the pagan festival, prohibited in Christian use all festive celebration; and, on the contrary, directed that the Christian year should be opened with a day of prayer, fasting, and humiliation. The mandate, however, was but partially observed. The festal character of the day, generally speaking, was pertinaciously preserved, but the day was also observed as a day of prayer; and this character was the more readily attached to it when the year began with the 1st of January, as that day, being the eighth after the nativity of our Lord, was held to be the commemoration of his circumcision (Luke ii. 21).

The social observances of the first day of the New Year appear to have been in substance the same in all ages. From the earliest recorded celebration, we find notice of feasting and the interchange of presents as usages of the day. Suetonius alludes to the bringing of presents to the capital; and Tacitus makes a similar reference to the practice of giving and receiving New Year's gifts. This custom was continued by the Christian kingdoms into which the Western Empire was divided. In England we find many examples of it, even as a part of the public expenditure of the court, so far down as the reign of Charles II.; and, as all our antiquarian writers mention, the custom of interchanging presents was common in all classes of society. In France and England it still subsists, although eclipsed in the latter country by the still more popular practice of Christmas gifts. In many countries, the night of New Year's Eve, "St Sylvester's Eve," was celebrated with great festivity, which was prolonged till after 12 o'clock, when the New Year was ushered in with congratulations, complimentary visits, and mutual wishes for a happy New Year. This is an ancient Scotch custom, which also prevails in many parts of Germany, where the form of wish—"Prosst (for the Lat. *prosit*)-Neu-jahr"—"May the New Year be happy"—sufficiently attests the antiquity of the custom. In many places the practice of tolling bells at midnight, and thus "ringing in the New Year" is still observed. Many religious communions are wont to celebrate it with a special service. In the Roman Catholic Church, the *Te Deum* is still sung at the close of the old year; and New-Year's Day is a holiday of strict obligation.

NEW YORK, one of the thirteen original states of the United States of America, now the most important in population and wealth, occupies an irregular triangular area from the Atlantic Ocean to the great lakes, lat.  $40^{\circ} 29' 40''$ — $45^{\circ} 0' 42''$  n., long.  $71^{\circ} 41'$ — $79^{\circ} 47' 25''$  w. The state is 412 miles from east to west, 311 from north to south, with an area of 47,000 square miles, or 30,800,009 acres; bounded n. by Lake Erie, Lake Ontario, the river St Lawrence, and Canada; e. by Lake Champlain, and the states of Vermont, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, and by the Atlantic Ocean; s. by the ocean, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; w. by Pennsylvania, the Ningara River, and the lakes which make its irregular north-western boundary. The state has 60 counties. Its chief towns are New York City, Albany (the capital), Buffalo, Rochester, Oswego, Troy, Hudson, Syracuse, Utica, &c. Pop. (1870) 4,378,088, of whom 1,000,000 are of foreign birth, 500,000 being Irish, and about 250,000 Germans. N. Y., though resting only one corner upon the Atlantic, has its sea-coast extended by Long Island, Staten Island, &c., to 246 miles; while it has a lake coast of 852 miles, and borders for 281 miles on navigable rivers. The Hudson, broad and deep, with tides flowing 150 miles, joins at Albany a system of canals, which connect

**New York City with the great western lakes and the river St Lawrence.** The state is also traversed by railway lines in every direction. The centre is beautified by many picturesque lakes, and its north-eastern portion and the banks of the Hudson by the mountain scenery. The Blue Ridge of the Alleghanies forms the Highlands, whose peaks rise 1500 feet from the Hudson; north of these, the Catskills rise to a height of 3500 feet, with a large hotel for summer visitors at an elevation of 2000 feet; while Mount Marcy and Mount Anthony, peaks of the Adirondacks, in the wild region west of Lake Champlain, are 5837 and 5000 feet high. The chief rivers, besides the Niagara and St Lawrence, are the Hudson, its chief branch the Mohawk, the Genesee, and the sources of the Delaware Susquehanna, and Alleghany. Its geology presents a series of older rocks, from the Azic to the lower members of the Carboniferous. Red sandstone of the Middle Secondary period is found on the borders of New Jersey; drift and boulders are found everywhere; the great Silurian belt passes along the eastern line, and granite with iron occurs in the north-east. There is no coal, but rich beds of marble near New York City; productive salt springs in the centre of the state, which yielded, in 1874, 6,594,191 bushels; and petroleum and natural gas, enough in some cases to light large villages, in the west. Among the mineral springs, those of Saratoga and Ballston have a wide reputation. The climate, mild on the coast, is cold in the northern counties. The soil, particularly of the western and limestone regions, is very fertile, producing the finest wheat, maize, apples, peaches, melons, grapes, &c., in abundance. In 1870 N. Y. state produced 5,614,205 tons of hay, 12,178,462 bushels of wheat, 85,293,625 of oats, 16,462,825 of maize, 17,553,681 lbs. hops, 6,692,049 lbs. maple sugar, 22,769,964 lbs. cheese, 10,599,225 lbs. wool. Among the natural curiosities are the Falls of Niagara; of the Genesee, three cascades of 96, 26, and 84 feet in 2½ miles; of the Trenton, which falls 200 feet in 5 cascades; the Tugnatic Falls, of 230 feet; and the oft-painted Falls of the Kaaterskill, 175 and 85 feet, in a gorge of the Catskill Mountains. In 1870, there were 36,206 manufacturing establishments, employing 351,800 persons, and a capital of \$366,994,320; and in 1875 there were 5442 miles of railway in the state; the Erie Canal is 350 miles, and the New York canals together 855 miles; 351 banks of issue have a capital of \$124,589,000. In 1870, there were 5474 churches; 11,678 public schools, attended by 719, 81 pupils; 274 classical, professional, and technical schools, including 7 universities, 24 colleges, and 189 academies, with an attendance of 48,738 pupils; and 1068 boarding and other schools, with an attendance of 99,113 pupils. In 1874, the expenditure for teachers and scholars was \$11,088,981, and the total number of children at school, 1,224,321. The number of paupers supported during the year ending June 1, 1870, was 26,152, at a cost of \$2,661,865. The number of persons convicted of crime during the same period was 5473, of which 2000 were foreign born. There were 635 newspapers and other periodicals—87 daily, 518 weekly, 163 monthly, 19 quarterly; but a large number of these are published in the city of New York, and circulated over the Union. The number of copies issued annually in the state was 471,741,744. In 1874 there were 1055 newspapers and periodicals.

The earliest explorations of New York by Europeans were in 1619 by Hendrick Hudson, who took possession of the country on the river which bears his name for the Dutch; and by Champlain, a Frenchman, who explored Lake Champlain from Canada. It was possessed by the Iroquois, or Five Nations, and the Algonquins. In 1621 the Dutch made a settlement on Manhattan Island, which they bought for \$24, and founded New Amsterdam, now New York. In 1664, N. Y. was taken by the English. In the War of Independence (1776), Washington was driven from New York City, which was held by the British till the end of the war; but Westpoint was held, and Burgoyne, after two severe battles near Saratoga, compelled to surrender. The state constitution was adopted in 1777, and has since been repeatedly amended. The governor is elected for three years, 32 senators for two years, and 128 members of Assembly for one year. In 1825, the opening of the Erie Canal gave a great impetus to trade. Pop. (1800) 536,756; (1820) 1,372,812; (1860,) 3,880,735; (1870) 4,352,759.

**NEW YORK**, the most important city and ~~seaport~~ of the U. S., and the third in the civilised world, is situated on the east side of the mouth of the Hudson River, at its confluence with a narrow strait called East River, which opens into Long Island Sound, in the State of New York, 18 miles from the ocean. Lat. 40° 42' 48" n. long.

74° 0' 3" w. The city comprises the island of Manhattan, formed by the Hudson River and the East River, and separated from the mainland by a narrow strait called Harlem River, on the e., and on the w. by Spuyten Duyvel Creek; includes several smaller islands, containing the fortifications in the harbor, and the public institutions in the East River; and also part of the mainland n. of Manhattan Island. The island on which the city is built is 13½ miles long, and with an average breadth of 3-5ths of a mile, comprising 22 sq. m. A rocky ridge runs through the centre, rising at Washington Heights, 28 feet. The compactly built city extends five miles from the "battery" at its southern point, and is laid out regularly into 141,486 lots. Avenues, 100 feet wide and 8 miles long, in straight lines, are crossed at right angles by streets from 60 to 100 feet wide, extending from river to river. The city is connected with the mainland of N. Y. by bridges across the Harlem River, with Long Island by a fine suspension bridge, and with New Jersey, Long Island, and Staten Island by numerous steam-ferries. Several railways radiate from the city, while the finest passenger steamboats in the world pass up the Hudson, Long Island Sound, and down the Narrows, through the lower bay. The harbor, formed by the upper and smaller bay with its two arms, which almost enclose the city, is one of the finest in the world. There are 80 piers for shipping on the west, and 70 on the east side of the city. The harbor is defended by fourteen forts, mounting 1500 guns. The streets are traversed by many city omnibuses and tramways, which carry millions of passengers annually.

The city is built of brick, brown sandstone, and white marble. Among its finest edifices are the City Hall, Custom-house, Trinity Church, Grace Church, two universities, cathedral, Academy of Music, Cooper Institute, and the numerous great hotels, several of which have accommodation for more than a thousand persons. Of 331 churches, 72 are Protestant Episcopal, 41 Roman Catholic, and the others of all denominations. In 1873 there were 233 public schools and 17 corporate schools, with 236,543 pupils, and the College of the City of New York, formerly the free academy. Besides, there are 35 Roman Catholic schools, and colleges and academies of the religious orders. Columbia College is one of the oldest in the country; the University of the City of New York has been more recently established. Each has departments of law and medicine, and there are two other medical colleges, several theological seminaries, and many private academies. The hospitals and institutions of charity are on a liberal scale; and besides legal outdoor relief, the poor are visited and cared for by a public society, with agents in every district. Among the charities are asylums for insane, blind, deaf and dumb, magdalens, foundlings, &c. The Astor Free Library, founded by John Jacob Astor, has 150,000 carefully selected volumes; the Mercantile Library, 150,000 volumes, with a large reading-room; Society Library, 64,000; Apprentices' Library, 50,000, with rich museums of antiquities; the Cooper Institute, a present to the city by Peter Cooper, has a free reading-room, picture-gallery, art-schools, &c. Annual art exhibitions are given by the National Academy of design, Dusseldorf, and International Galleries. The Academy of Music, or Opera-house, has seats for 4700 persons, and eight or ten theatres give nightly entertainment to 20,000. The Central Park, laid out in the finest style of landscape-gardening, is two and a half miles long by three-fifths of a mile wide. Eighteen smaller public parks are scattered over the city. The Croton Aqueduct brings a river of pure soft water from 40 miles distance, which is received in reservoirs of a capacity of 1,500,000,000 gallons, and distributed through 35 miles of pipes, with such a head as to supply public fountains of 60 and 80 feet high, and the upper stories of most buildings. Eleven markets supply annually 140,000,000 lbs. beef, 25,000,000 lbs. mutton, 55,000,000 lbs. pork, and immense quantities of poultry, game, fish, oysters, fruits, and vegetables. The city government is composed of a mayor, boards of aldermen and councilmen, and bureaus of various departments. The police numbers about 2500, with salaries of \$800 to \$5500 a year. The stations are connected by telegraph, and have lodgings for destitute persons. A sanitary squad has charge of the public health. The Commissioners of Charity and Correction have direction of asylums, hospitals, and prisons. Commissioners of Emigration receive and attend to the wants of immigrants. The volunteer brigade of firemen has been replaced by a paid fire department, which is found to be much more effective for the protection of property. It consists of upwards of 700 men, with above 40 steam fire-engines, and a

large number of telegraph stations. N. Y. is the great centre of American finance and commerce. It receives 66 per cent. of all imports, and sends out 50 per cent. of all exports. The total value of imports in 1874 was \$895,133,682; of exports, \$854,993,732. Vessels entered, 6728, of 5,049,618 tons; cleared, 6108, of 4,872,218 tons. The total number of vessels belonging to the port of N. Y. was 6630, of 1,318,523 tons. There were, in 1870, 7624 manufacturing establishments, employing 129,577 hands, the cost for wages being \$63,884,049, and the value of products \$832,951,520. The assessed value of real and personal estate in 1875 was \$1,754,029,176. The number of immigrants that arrived in N. Y. during the year ending June 30, 1874, was 260,814.

N. Y., the New Amsterdam of the Dutch, was founded in 1621; in 1664 it was taken by the English. At the period of the revolution, it was smaller than Philadelphia or Boston; but increased in importance, especially after the completion of the Erie Canal had opened to it the commerce of the west. In 1799, 2086 persons died of yellow fever; in 1832, 3513 of cholera; in 1845, a fire destroyed a large portion of the business part of the city, with a loss of \$18,000,000. In 1741, in consequence of a supposed negro plot to burn the city, 13 negroes were burned at the stake, 20 hanged, and 78 transported. In 1863, in a riot caused by the conscription, the popular fury again turned against the negroes, and numbers were murdered. The mortality of the city is 1 in 5; intramural interments are forbidden, and large cemeteries have been opened on Long Island. Pop. (1870) 922,581; but, if the neighboring cities of Jersey and Brooklyn be included, 1,400,000; (1875) about 2,000,000.

**NEW ZEA'LAND**, a British colony in the South Pacific Ocean, consists of three islands, two large and one much smaller, and of a number of islets scattered round the coasts. These islands, which are named respectively North, South (sometimes also Middle), and Stewart's Island, are situated about 6500 m. w. from the coast of South America, and about 1200 m. s. e. of Australia. The group is irregular in form, but may be said to extend from the south in a north-north-east direction, and, like the peninsula of Italy, resembles a boot in shape. North Island is 400 miles long, and 200 miles in greatest breadth from east to west; Middle Island is 550 miles long, and 210 miles in greatest breadth; Stewart's Island is triangular in shape, and has an area of about 900 square miles. Area of the three islands about 95,000 square miles. The North is separated from the Middle Island by Cook's Strait, which is 18 miles wide at its eastern and 90 miles wide at its western end; the Middle is separated from Stewart's Island by Foveaux Strait, which averages about 20 miles in width. The group extends in lat. from 34° 15' to 47° 30' s., and in long. from 166° to 179° e.; being thus almost the antipodes of the British Isles.

**Coast Line.**—Of the entire coast line of about 4000 miles, nearly 1500 miles is formed by the shores of North Island, which are deeply indented, and contain many excellent harbors. Commencing from North Cape, and going south-east round the island, the chief harbors are Monganui, Wanganaroa, the Bay of Islands, Auckland, Mercury, and Tauranga Bays, and the ports of Wellington, Manukau, and Hokianga. On the north and south coasts of Middle Island, which are much broken, the harbors are numerous and excellent; on the eastern coast, the principal harbors are Akaroa, Victoria, and Dunedin. On the coasts of Stewart's Island, there are also good ports.

**Surface.**—The New Zealand Islands are of volcanic origin, and a great portion of the entire area is occupied by mountains, among which are many extinct and a few active volcanoes. In North Island, Mount Ruapahia, the highest summit of the central range, is 9000 feet in height, and is capped with perpetual snow. In the same range is Tongariro, an active volcano, 6000 feet high. A continuous range of mountains runs along the western coast of Middle Island, and assumes the form of table-lands and isolated peaks toward the east. This range rises in Mount Cook to about 14,000 feet. In Southern Island, the greatest elevation is about 8000 feet. In North Island, the mountains are mostly clothed with evergreen forests of luxuriant growth, interspersed with fern-clad ranges, and occasionally with treeless grassy plains; extensive and rich valleys and sheltered dales abound; and in the east of Middle Island there are many expansive plains of rich meadow-land, admirably adapted either for agriculture or cattle-breeding. Water and water-power are found in great abundance in the colony, and the numerous rivers are subject to sudden floods from the melting of the mountain snows. As a rule, however, the streams are short, w-

are not navigable for more than 50 miles above their mouths. The chief is Waikato River, in North Island, which, issuing from the Taupo Lake (30 miles long by 20 broad), flows in a northern direction for 200 miles, and reaches the sea on the west coast. In Middle Island, the rivers Clutha, Mataura, and Waiaw, all flowing south, are among the chief. Around Lakes Rotomahana and Rotorna are a number of grand and beautiful geysers, which throw up water heated to  $20^{\circ}$  above the boiling-point. The geology of N. Z. is remarkable in a high degree. The mountains, which are of every variety of outline, are chiefly composed of the lower slate-rocks, intersected with basalt, and mixed with primary sandstone and lime-stone. Beds of coal and lignite exist, and the former have been to some extent worked.

**Soil, Climate, and Productions.**—Of the whole surface-extent of N. Z. (nearly 70,000,000 acres, little short of the combined area of England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland), one-fourth is estimated to consist of dense forest tracts, one-half of excellent soil, and the remainder of waste lands, scoria-hills, and rugged mountain regions. Nearly 40,000,000 acres are supposed to be more or less suitable for agriculture and cattle-breeding. The soil, although often clayey, has in the volcanic districts more than a medium fertility; but the luxuriant and semi-tropical vegetation is, perhaps, as much due to excellence of climate as to richness of soil. Owing to the prevalence of light and easily-worked soils, all agricultural processes are performed with unusual ease. The climate of N. Z. is one of the finest in the world. The country contains few physical sources of disease; the average temperature is remarkably even at all seasons of the year, and the atmosphere is continually agitated and freshened by winds that blow over an immense expanse of ocean. In a word, the climate much resembles that of England, with half the cold of the English winter; while the summer is longer and somewhat warmer, the atmosphere is more breezy and pure, and there are many more fine days throughout the year. In North Island, the mean annual temperature is  $57^{\circ}$ ; in South Island,  $52^{\circ}$ . The mean temperature of the hottest month at Auckland is  $65^{\circ}$ , and at Otago  $58^{\circ}$ ; of the coldest month,  $51^{\circ}$  and  $40^{\circ}$ . The air is very humid, and the fall of rain is greater than in England, but there are more dry days. All the native trees and plants are evergreens. Forests, shrubberies, and plains are clothed in green throughout the year, the results of which are, that cattle, as a rule, browse on the herbage and shrubs of the open country all the year round, thus saving great expense to the cattle-breeder; and that the operations of reclaiming and cultivating land can be carried on at all seasons. The seasons in N. Z. are the reverse of ours; January is their hottest month, and June the coldest. All the grains, grasses, fruits, and vegetables grown in England are cultivated in this country with perfect success, being excellent in quality, and heavy in yield; while, besides these, the vine is cultivated in the open air, and maize, the taro, and the sweet-potato are cultivated to some extent in the sunny valleys of North Island. The entire acreage under crop in N. Z. in 1861 was 29,140; in 1866, it was 14,077; in 1876, 2,230,993; while in 1871 the total acreage fenced was 6,773,773. Of the crops, the principal were wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and sown grass, which, under ordinary circumstances, are grown to great advantage in New Zealand. Besides a few harmless lizards, a small species of rat is the only indigenous four-footed animal found in either of the great islands. Hawks are numerous. The country is destitute of snakes, and possesses no insect so noxious as the English wasp. The pig, introduced by Cook, runs wild, and the red and fallow deer, the pheasant, partridge, quail, &c., and the commoner domestic animals introduced by colonists, thrive well. In March 1874, there were in the colony 99,859 horses, 434,917 cattle, 11,704,853 sheep, 123,921 pigs, and 1,058,198 heads of poultry, besides mules, asses, and goats. Coal in abundance, and of good quality, as well as iron, gold, silver, tin, copper, &c., are distributed over the colony. For statistics of the quantity of gold exported, see article OTAGO. Valuable timber is in great abundance. In 1877, the revenue (of which the sources are principally customs, receipts, and sale of crown lands), amounted to £3,790,545; the debt of the general government to £20,691,111. In 1875, the debt was under £14,000,000. The exports, consisting principally of wool, corn, gunn, preserved meat, and gold, amounted in 1877 to £6,329,251; the wool of that year being valued at £8,112,409. The total exports of gold from 1867 to 1876 were 7,965,295 oz.; in value £30,984,786. The imports, consisting of British manufactures, &c., amounted to £6,973,418 in 1877. At the end of 1877 there were 720 miles of railways in opera-

tion, and 427 in course of formation; there were also 7200 miles of telegraphic wires erected, with 142 stations. The revenue of the post-office in 1876 was £129,263.

The colony was divided into the following nine provinces: Auckland, Taranaki, Wellington, Hawke's Bay, Nelson, Marlborough, Canterbury, Otago, and Westland. The provinces were abolished by the colonial parliament in 1875, and a system of counties substituted. The government is administered by a governor appointed by the crown, and a ministry, a Legislative Council nominated by the crown, and a House of Representatives elected by the people. National schools—maintained by a capitation tax of 10s. per child, and not more than £2 per family—various colleges, and a university in Otago, are the principal educational institutions. A very large proportion of the population of European descent can read and write, more particularly in Otago. The principal churches are the Church of England, predominating in Canterbury; the Presbyterian Church, which predominates in Otago and Southland; the Wesleyan; and the Roman Catholic. In 1855, the immigrants into New Zealand amounted to 31,737 persons; the emigrants from it, to 6467; leaving a balance of 25,270 in favor of immigration. The population in 1858 was 59,328; in 1871 256,269; and in 1876, 399,075. The New Zealanders, or Maoris (q. v.), estimated, in 1867, at 38,540, and in 1875, at 45,470, are mostly located in North Island. The military and civil forces of N. Z. are the volunteers, numbering 6080 of all ranks, and the armed constabulary, consisting of 728 men, of whom 84 are mounted. The hospitals and charitable institutions are numerous.

N. Z. was discovered by Tasman in 1642, and was repeatedly visited by Captain Cook, who surveyed the coast in 1770. After the settlement of Port Jackson in New South Wales, the English and American whaling ships had recourse to the coasts of N. Z. for provisions and shelter. N. Z. flux came also to be an article of traffic, and individual Englishmen began to settle on the coasts, and intermarry with the natives, and acquire land in right of their wives or of purchase. Missionary enterprise began in 1814, favored by various chiefs, and the missionaries not only labored to convert the natives, but introduced improved culture among them, and tried to protect them from the injustice, fraud, and oppression of the Europeans that had acquired settlements. A British resident or consul was appointed in 1833, but without authority. To put an end to the state of anarchy induced by a desultory colonisation, and the purchase of lands for a few hatchets or muskets, a lieutenant-governor was appointed in 1840, and a treaty concluded with the native chiefs, whereby the sovereignty of the islands was ceded to Britain, while the chiefs were guaranteed the full possession of their lands, forests, &c., so long as they desired to retain them; the right of pre-emption, however, was reserved for the crown, if they wished to alienate any portion. Thus N. Z. became a regular colony, the seat of government of which was fixed on the Bay of Waitemata, and called Auckland. The previous year an association, called the New Zealand Company, had made pretended purchase of tracts amounting to a third of the whole islands, and for a dozen years most of the colonisation of N. Z. was conducted under its auspices. The conduct of the company is considered to have been on the whole prejudicial to the prosperity of the colony; and after a long conflict with the government, they resigned, in 1852, all their claims—which the government had never confirmed—on condition of receiving £268,000 as compensation for their outlay. The unscrupulous way in which the Company and others often took possession of lands brought on, between 1843 and 1847, a series of bloody conflicts with the warlike natives, whose hostility, after having subsided for some time, in 1861 again broke out in a series of intermittent struggles. These continued until, on the withdrawal of the imperial troops, the colonists, from their knowledge of bush life and intensified earnestness, completely subdued the refractory natives, who are now turning their attention to agriculture and trade. In 1852, constitutional government was established, and in 1855 the seat of government was transferred from Auckland to Wellington, the present capital.

#### NEW ZEALAND FLAX. See FLAX, NEW ZEALAND.

NEWARK, a municipal and parliamentary borough of England, in the county of Notts, on the Great Northern and Midland Railways, and on a navigable branch of the river Trent, sixteen miles south-west of Lincoln. The parish church, a large and elegant edifice, though often rebuilt, still shews traces of its original Norman character. N. is approached from the north by a causeway a mile and a half long, carried over the flat island formed by the Trent on the west and the Newark branch on the east. The castle of Newark, in which King John died in 1216, was built

early in the 19th century. N. is said to be the greatest malting town in England; there are flour-mills, breweries, and trade in corn, malt, flour, cattle, wool, and coal. A corn exchange has been recently erected. N. returns two members to parl. Pop. (1871) 12,218.

NEWARK, a city and port of entry of New Jersey, U. S., on the west bank of the Passaic River, twelve miles from New York, on the New Jersey Railway. It is a handsome and industrious city; its principal street is two miles long, 120 feet wide, shaded by great elms, and bordering on three public parks. It contains a custom-house and post-office, 95 churches, numerous public schools, 11 banks, 17 newspapers, and extensive manufactures of leather, patent leather, enamelled cloth, carriages, saddles and harness, boots and shoes, clothing, hats, jewellery—1015 establishments producing annually 75,000,000 dollars. It was settled in 1666 by a Puritan colony from Connecticut. N. has 140 vessels of 12,000 tons. Pop. in 1870, 105,059.

NEWBERN, a city and port of entry of North Carolina, U. S., on the s. bank of the Neuse River, at its confluence with the Trent, 30 miles from its mouth in Pamlico Sound. It exports tar, turpentine, naval stores, flour, and lumber. Pop. in 1870, 5849.

NEWBURGH, a village of New York, U. S., on the west bank of the Hudson, 61 miles north of New York, amid the grand scenery of the highlands. Its handsome edifices, villas, and gardens, on a gentle slope from the river, command a noble prospect. It contains a court-house, five foundries, a cotton factory, breweries, a railway carriage manufactory, 2 pianoforte manufactories, steam-boiler works, 5 soap factories, 41,000 tons of shipping, a large lumber trade, 23 churches, 5 banks, schools, and academies. It was Washington's headquarters during a critical portion of the War of Independence. Pop. in 1870, 17,014.

NEWBURY, a municipal borough and market-town of England, Berkshire, on both banks of the Kennet, seventeen miles west-south-west of Reading. The church, a specimen of the Perpendicular style, was built in the reign of Henry VII; but the tower was built by John Winchcombe, a clothier and famous citizen of N. in the reign of Henry VIII. Since 1862, an annual wool-market has been held here. In 1862, a new corn exchange was built. N. is best known for two hard-fought battles between the Royalists and Parliamentarian forces which took place—the first in September 1643, the second in October 1644. In the former, victory was undecided; in the latter, the advantage was on the side of the Parliamentarians. Pop. (1871) 6602.

NEWBURYPORT, a city and port of entry of Massachusetts, U. S., on the south bank of the Merrimack River, three miles from its mouth, 34 miles north-east of Boston. Lat.  $42^{\circ} 45' 30''$  n., long.  $70^{\circ} 52' 3''$  w. It is a pretty town, built on a swell of land rising 100 feet from the river. High Street, three miles long, shaded with trees, a beautiful Mall, and pond of six acres, are its chief ornaments. It has 16 churches, in one of which is the tomb of Whitefield, who died here (1770), 4 banks, 4 manufacturing companies, making 16,000,000 yards of cloth annually, several shipyards, and manufactures of machinery, hats, clothing, &c.; two daily papers, one of which was established in 1793; a free high school, and a free library of 10,000 volumes. Pop. in 1870, 12,595.

NEWCASTLE, Duke of, Thomas Pelham Holles, minister of the first two Georges, born in 1692, and representative of the noble family of the Pelhams, played a prominent, but by no means illustrious part in the political history of his time. While a very young man, he succeeded to the family peerage by the death of his father, Lord Pelham, and George I. rewarded his attachment to the House of Brunswick by creating him first, Earl of Clare, and afterwards Duke of Newcastle. He was made Secretary of State when but thirty years old, although the king declared that he was not fit to be chamberlain to the smallest court in Germany. There was much of the absurd and grotesque in his character. Macaulay says of him, that "his gait was a shuffling trot; his utterance a rapid stutter; he was always in a hurry; he was never in time; he abounded in fulsome caresses, and in hysterical tears." Yet this man was during thirty years Secretary of State, and for near ten years First Lord of the Treasury! He served under Sir R. Walpole, retained his secretaryship in the "broad-bottomed administration" in 1744, and in 1764 succeeded his

brother, Mr Pelham, as head of the government. In 1757, he was compelled to take the first William Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham) into his ministry, and to give him the lead in the House of Commons, and the supreme direction of the war and of foreign affairs. A succession of brilliant victories followed—N. being only nominal head of the administration—and the great commoner had almost brought the war to a successful termination, when the accession of George III. led to the resignation of Mr Pitt, and the replacement of N., in May 1762, by Lord Bute, as head of the ministry. N. declined a proffered pension, with the remark that if he could no longer serve he would not burden his country. In the Rockingham ministry, formed in 1765, N. filled the office of Privy Seal. He died November 17, 1768. His title descended to Henry, 9th Earl of Lincoln, whose great-grandson,

**HENRY PELHAM-CLINTON**, fifth Duke of NEWCASTLE, and twelfth Earl of Lincoln, was born 1811, and educated at Christ-Church, Oxford. He represented South Notts in parliament from 1832 to 1846, when he was ousted by the influence of his father, the fourth duke, for supporting Sir R. Peel in his free-trade measures. He adopted politics as a profession; was a Lord of the Treasury in the brief Conservative administration of 1834–1835; and First Commissioner of Woods and Forests in the Peel administration, from 1841–1846. He was then made chief Secretary to the Lord-lieutenant of Ireland, but went out of office with his chief a few months afterwards. He succeeded to the dukedom in 1851, and returned to office in 1852, filling the post of Secretary of State for the Colonies (which formerly included the department of war) in the Aberdeen government. The war with Russia broke out, and in June 1854 it was found necessary to create a Secretary of State for War, and the new office was assigned to Newcastle. The “horrible and heart rending” sufferings of the British army before Sebastopol in the winter months of 1854 raised a storm of popular discontent, and when the House of Commons determined to inquire into the conduct of the war, the duke resigned. Yet, as is now acknowledged, no blame was attributable either to the Ministry for War or his subordinate, Mr. Sidney Herbert. They were called upon to administer a vicious system of military organisation, which broke down under the strain brought to bear upon it. N. was re-appointed Colonial Secretary in the second administration of Lord Palmerston, and held the seals with general approval from 1859 to the year of his death, 1864. In 1860, as Secretary of State for the Colonies, he accompanied the youthful Prince of Wales during a tour in Canada and a portion of the United States, and on his return received the Order of the Garter from the Queen. He died Oct. 1864.

**NEWCASTLE-UNDER-LYME**, a parliamentary and municipal borough of England, in the county of Stafford, 16 miles north-north-west of the town of that name. A branch-railway connects it with the North Staffordshire line, and a branch-canal with the Grand Trunk Navigation. One of its churches, rebuilt early in last century, has a very old square tower of red sandstone. The Free Grammar School has an income of about £100 a year, and was founded in 1602. Hats are the principal branch of manufacture, and silk, cotton, and paper-mills are in operation. N. is surrounded by famous potteries, and coal-mines are worked in the vicinity. Pop. (1871) 15,949.

**NEWCASTLE-UPON-TYNE** the chief town of Northumberland. Lat  $54^{\circ} 58'$  N., long.  $1^{\circ} 36' 36.5''$  W. It has the privileges of a county of itself. Gateshead, which stands upon the opposite side of the river, though in a different county, and having a separate jurisdiction, is virtually a part of Newcastle. According to the census of 1871, N. contained a population of 128,443, Gateshead, 48,627; making together, 177,070 inhabitants. N. sends two members to parliament.

The Romans had a stationary camp here, called *Pons Aelii*—one of the chain of forts by which the Wall of Hadrian was fortified. On the withdrawal of the Romans, the deserted camp became the residence of a colony of monks, and the town was called Monkchester. Robert, eldest son of the Conqueror, commenced to build a castle here in 1079 or 1080. Hence the modern name of New Castle. William Rufus built his brother's castle, surrounded the town with a wall, and gave the inhabitants peculiar privileges. The present castle, which displays better than any other in England the genius of Norman military architecture, was erected by Henry II. between the years 1172 and 1177. N. being made the rendezvous of the vast armaments which the first three Edwards led into Scotland, it was in their time

surrounded with new walls of unequal strength and magnitude; portions of them yet remain.

The town stands partly upon an elevated platform, and partly upon the north bank of the river. The more ancient houses in the lower part of the town are chiefly built of timber; those in the centre of the town are mostly of stone; but the houses generally are of brick. Chiefly through the instrumentality of one man of humble origin—Richard Grainger—N. has, in modern times, received the addition of many elegant streets, squares, and public buildings. The river is crossed by three bridges—the High-level Bridge; the Redheugh Bridge; and a swing bridge (completed in 1874), one of the largest structures of the kind in the world. The High-level Bridge forms one of the engineering triumphs of Robert Stephenson. It consists of six cast-iron arches, supported upon piers of masonry. The length of the viaduct is 1337 feet, and the height of the railway above high-water mark, 112. It has a broad carriage-way, by which the ordinary traffic avoids the precipitous streets on both sides of the river, with passenger-path on each side, and the railway above. A quay, at which the depth of water at ebb-tide is 22 feet, has been constructed by the corporation, at a cost of over a quarter of a million, or at the rate of about £120 per linear yard.

There are sixteen churches and chapels in the town connected with the Established Church, and about 60 belonging to other classes of worshippers. The mother-church (St Nicholas) is a noble edifice, chiefly in the Decorated style; its steeple, which is singularly light and bold, is early Perpendicular. In the Guild Hall, an old and somewhat inconvenient building, situated beside the river, the town assizes are opened, and the quarter sessions held. Under the Guild Hall proper there is an exchange for the merchants, shipowners, and brokers of the quay-side. In the Moot Hall, a modern and very handsome Grecian building overlooking the swing-bridge, the town and county assizes are held. A new and very spacious town-hall was built about twenty years ago on a block of ground facing St Nicholas' Church; associated with it are a corn-market and offices for the transaction of the town business. The market for the sale of butcher-meat and vegetables is probably the most spacious and commodious in the kingdom. All the railways entering the town, terminate in a large station near its centre. The jail, a heavy and costly mass of building, occupies a low and confined situation. The central police station, police-court, and offices, built in 1873, are comprised in a large and handsome structure in Pilgrim Street. The new postal and telegraph office, begun in 1873, is one of the largest and finest of the public buildings in the town. There are two theatres—the Royal (the great ornament of Grey Street, the handsomest street in the town), and the Tyne Theatre in Westgate Street. N. has two monuments—a column, surmounted by a statue of Earl Grey, to commemorate the passing of the Reform Bill, and a bronze statue to George Stephenson.

The corn-market is held on Tuesday and Saturday; the hay-market and the cattle-market on Tuesday. During the year 1873, 81,635 fat cattle, 350,638 sheep and lambs, and 39,585 swine were brought to the cattle-market. A very large market is held every Thursday morning for the sale of butter, bacon, cheese, eggs, and other articles of country produce. Saturday is general market-day. N. is well supplied with surface water, the chief place of collection being Hallington, about 20 miles north-west of the town.

The trade of N. consists chiefly in coal, and in those articles in the production of which great heat is required. The N. coal-trade had its origin in the reign of Henry III. This branch of industry is not now confined to N., but is spread over the greater part of the sea-board of Northumberland and the whole of Durham. Nearly thirty-two millions of tons of coal and coke were produced in the northern coal-field in 1876; of which about seven million tons were shipped to foreign ports. The number of persons employed in connection with the pits may be computed at 80,000. Since the discovery of the Cleveland ironstone, the manufacture of iron has prodigiously increased in the district embraced by the northern coal-field. The make in 1876 was about 830,000 tons. There are annually produced on the Tyne about 3000 tons of steel. Large quantities of lead, the produce of the mines of Alston Moor and Weardale, are brought to N. for manufacture. A very large quantity of unrefined lead is also imported from Spain. Having been refined and desilverised, the lead is rolled into sheets and pipes, or converted into shot, litharge, red and white lead. The

value of these imports is about £1,000,000 per annum. Copper, to the extent of £200,000 worth, is annually got from the copper pyrites used at the chemical works of the Tyne.

At N., the railway system had its origin. Here, as might be expected, locomotive and engineering establishments are found upon a great scale. The ordnance works of Sir William Armstrong at Elswick, the western part of N., are well known. Iron ship-building and various branches of engineering are extensively carried on upon the Tyne. N. occupies an important position in the manufacture of soda, bleaching-powder, vitriol, and other chemical products, the annual value of which is about £1,300,000. There are decomposed in the district 200,000 tons of salt per annum. Earthenware is largely manufactured; window-glass and flint-glass have declined; impressed glass is largely manufactured, and plate-glass is made. Glass-staining has attained great perfection. The fire-brick trade is a new industry, which has attained gigantic proportions. About 80,000,000 fire-bricks are annually made, besides gas-retorts and sanitary pipes, which are sent all over the world. About 100,000 grind-stones leave the N. quarries annually. Portland and other cements are made to the extent of 11,000 tons in a year.

The river Tyne, from the sea to N., forms a natural dock for the accommodation of shipping. Three artificial docks have, however, been constructed at a cost of £1,700,000. Within the last twenty years, improvements upon a large scale have been made by the River Tyne Commission. The entrance to, and many parts of the river have been deepened by dredging. The depth of water on the bar has been increased from 6 to 33 feet at low water. In 1876, 10,194 vessels, of 2,871,700 tons, entered the Tyne ports (N. with North and South Shields); and 15,981 of 5,283,120 tons cleared.

Of the benevolent institutions established in N., there are an infirmary, a dispensary, asylums for the blind, the deaf and dumb, and two orphanages. The Literary and Philosophical Society, the Society of Antiquaries, the Natural History Society, the Mechanics' Institution, and the Institute of Mining Engineers (to which has been recently added a large hall, as a memorial of Nicholas Wood, an engineer of celebrity) successfully cultivate their several fields of labor. A College of Physical Science, with four professorships (geology, experimental philosophy, chemistry, and mathematics), was established in 1871, in connection with the university for Durham; and there is also in N., associated with the same university, a college of medicine.

Lords Stowell, Eldon, and Collingwood, Mark Aikenside, and Hutton, the mathematician, were natives of N. Intimately connected with it, though not born in it, were Thomas Bewick, the engraver; Robert Morrison, the Chinese scholar; and George and Robert Stephenson.

**NEW'EL**, the central column or spindle formed by the ends of the steps of a circular staircase, and round which the stair winds. In turret-stairs, it is a plain roll; but in Elizabethan and old Scotch castles, there are frequent examples of handsome staircases of this kind with ornamental newels.

**NEWFO'UNDLAND**, an island and province of the Dominion of Canada, lies in the Atlantic Ocean, at the mouth of the Gulf of St Lawrence, separated from Labrador on the north by the Straits of Belle Isle (about 12 miles broad), and extending in lat. from  $46^{\circ} 38'$  to  $51^{\circ} 37'$  n., and in long. from  $52^{\circ} 44'$  to  $59^{\circ} 30'$  w. In shape it resembles an equilateral triangle, of which Cape Bonavista on the north, Cape Race on the south-east, and Cape Ray on the south-west, form the angles. It is 370 miles in length, 290 miles in breadth, about 1000 miles in circumference, and has an area of 40,200 square miles. Pop. (1869) 146,536; (1874) 161,486.

The island, as seen from the sea, presents a wild and sterile appearance. Its surface is diversified by mountainous, marshes, barrens, ponds and lakes. The mountains in the Avalon Peninsula (stretching south-east from the main portion of the island, and connected with it by an isthmus of only about three miles in width) rise, in some cases, to 1400 feet above sea-level; while, both here and along the western shore, the height of 1000 feet is frequently reached. The number of the lakes and "ponds" (the latter name being used indiscriminately for a large or a small lake) is remarkable, and it has been estimated that about one-third of the whole surface is covered with fresh water. The "barrens" occupy the tops of

hills. The coast-line is everywhere deeply indented with bays and estuaries, many of which are spacious enough to contain the whole British navy. Of these inlets, the principal, beginning from the northern extremity of the island, are Hare, White, Notre Dame, Bonavista, Trinity, Conception, St Mary's, Placentia, Fortune, St George's and St John's Bays. These bays vary in length from 25 to 70 miles, are of great breadth, and are lined—as indeed the whole coast is—with excellent harbors. The rivers, none of which are navigable for any distance, communicate between the lakes of the interior and the shore, and are narrow and winding. The main streams are the Exploit, with its affluent, the Great Rattling, and the Humber. The soil is sterile and unproductive, although there is considerable cultivation along the sea-board of the settled districts, limited principally to the south-east coast; and a large portion of the land around St John's (q. v.) is under cultivation. The great body of the people being employed either in the fisheries or in establishments connected with them, little attention used to be paid to the culture of the soil; but very considerable improvements in this respect have latterly been made by the enterprising islanders. In 1845, the only crops raised were oats and hay; but within recent years, large supplies of grain, vegetable and garden seeds have been imported; and now about 600,000 bushels of potatoes are produced annually, and turnips, hay, carrots, clover, barley and oats are cultivated with success. The island is rich in useful minerals, among which are silver, copper, galena, marble, limestone, gypsum, roofing-slate and coal—the last found only in small quantities. Lead, silver and copper mines are worked, though mining is still in its infancy here. Trees, of which the chief are the fir, birch, willow and mountain-ash, flourish and reach their natural size only in the low and fertile districts.

The fisheries are of two kinds—the "Shore Fishery" and the "Bank Fishery;" the former comprises the shores and bays of N.; the latter comprises a great tract known as the "Banks" of N., from 500 to 600 miles in length, and about 200 miles in breadth. The Banks form the greatest submarine plateau known; the depth of the water is from 20 to 108 fathoms, and the most productive "ground" is said to extend between lat.  $42^{\circ}$  and  $46^{\circ}$  n. Great variety of valuable fish is found in the waters around the colony, as the cod, the salmon, herring, &c. The principal articles of export are fish—comprising dry cod, herring and salmon—and cod-oil. Of dry cod, 970,116 quintals, value £10,948, were exported in 1870; 8593 tons of unrefined cod-oil, value £107,813; 404 of refined cod-oil, value £21,068; 4982 of seal-oil, value £176,472; and 265,189 seal-skins, value £55,248. The imports are chiefly provisions, as bread, butter, tea, &c.—cotton and cables, and manufactured goods. The imports and exports for 1874 amounted in value to £1,532,227 and £1,528,341 respectively. The revenue of N. in 1875 was £197,28; the expenditure, £197,094. In 1873, the total tonnage of vessels that entered and cleared the ports was 412,024. N. possessed itself 1301 vessels of 68,185 tons.

The seal affords one of the most important fishing interests of Newfoundland. This industry may commence any day from the 25th of February to the 5th of March, according to the winds—a north-east wind blocking up the coast with ice, which the first strong westerly wind clears away. At the beginning of the present century, the seal-fishing was carried on with vessels of from 30 to 40 tons, manned by 8 or 10 men. Vessels of from 70 to 180 tons, manned by from 25 to 90 men, were substituted for these, the most suitable being vessels of from 120 to 140 tons. About 1866, steamers were introduced into the seal-fishing, and they have proved so serviceable that it is probable that this kind of vessel will, by and by, be used exclusively in these fisheries. In proportion to the population of N., its religious institutions are ample, while education is within reach of all classes, government grants to the district schools being liberal.

There are no railways in the island, and its peculiar configuration renders even road making a matter of great difficulty. There are no roads across the island; they are confined chiefly to the south-eastern and south-western sea-board. There is weekly communication for nine months in the year between N. and Europe. If the colony and connected with it, 400 miles of lines of telegraph have been constructed, and the Atlantic telegraph has its western terminus on this island.

The early history of N. is involved in obscurity. It was discovered, June 24, 1497, in the reign of Henry VII., by John Cabot; and the event is noticed by the following entry in the accounts of the privy-purse expenditure: "1497, Aug. 10. To

hym that found the New Isle, £10." It was visited by the Portuguese navigator, Gaspar de Cortereal, in 1500; and within two years after that time, regular fisheries had been established on its shores by the Portuguese, Biscayans, and French. In 1578, 400 vessels, of which 50 were English, were engaged in the fishery. Sir Humphrey Gilbert, with his ill-fated expedition, arrived in St John's Harbor, August 1583, and formally took possession of the island in the name of Queen Elizabeth. In the return voyage, the expedition was scattered by a storm, and the commander lost. In 1621, Sir George Calvert (afterwards Lord Baltimore) settled in the great peninsula in the south-east, and named it the *Province of Avalon*. The history of the island during the 17th and part of the 18th centuries, is little more than a record of rivalries and feuds between the English and French fishermen; but by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), the island was ceded wholly to England; the French, however, retaining the privilege of fishing and drying their fish on certain portions of the coast. A governor was appointed in 1728. The present form of government, established in 1855, consists of the governor, a legislative council (appointed by the crown), and a general assembly (elected by the people). The coast of Labrador on the mainland, and the island of Anticosti, have been included, since 1809, within the jurisdiction of the governor of Newfoundland.

**NEWFOUNDLAND DOG**, one of the most sagacious and esteemed of the large kinds of dog. It is said to have been originally derived from Newfoundland, where it is used chiefly as a beast of draught, to convey light loads of wood or provisions, on sledges, over rugged tracks. Multitudes of these dogs, in St John's and elsewhere, are left to shift for themselves during the fishing season; and are again called to service when required by their masters. There are several varieties of N. D., particularly a smooth breed, with rather small head, white and spotted with black, which seems now to be extinct; a very large breed, with broad muzzle, head raised, noble expression, wavy or curly hair, very thick and bushy curved tail, black and white color; and a smaller, almost black breed. Some of the breeds seem to be crossed with hounds and other dogs. The N. D. is remarkable for memory, and for patience and forbearance of temper. It is, however, apt to become irascible in confinement, and will then bite even its master. Some of the most interesting anecdotes of the affection and sagacity of the dog, relate to the Newfoundland Dog. No dog excels it as a water-dog. Its paws are half-webbed. Its powers of endurance in swimming is very great.

**NEWGATE**, a celebrated London prison, stands at the western extremity of Newgate Street, opposite the Old Bailey. It is the chief criminal prison for the city and county. The exterior presents high dark stone walls, without windows, and with entrances from the side next the Old Bailey, in front of which public executions take place. The earliest prison here was in the portal of the *new gate* of the city, as early as 1218; and hence the name. About two centuries afterwards, it was rebuilt by the executors of Sir Richard Whittington, whose statue with a cat stood in a niche, till its destruction by the great fire of London in 1666. Shortly after, it was reconstructed, from which time, till 1780, the date of the erection of the present edifice, its condition was, in a sanitary point of view, horrible. Mr Akerman, one of the keepers, in his evidence before the House of Commons in 1770, stated, as a proof of this, that in the spring of 1760 the jail distemp'r, spreading to the adjoining Sessions House, caused the death of "two of the judges, the lord mayor, and several of the jury and others, to the number of sixty persons and upwards." The place, however, is now kept in the cleanest possible condition. The cells for condemned prisoners are at the north-east corner, next to Newgate Street. The "Newgate Calendar" contains biographical notices of the most notorious murderers, burglars, thieves, and forgers who have been confined within its walls.

**NEWMAN**, John Henry, D.D., was born in London, February 21, 1801, and educated at the school of Dr Nicholas, at Ealing, whence he passed, in 1816, to Trinity College, Oxford, of which college he became a scholar by competitive examination in 1818. Having graduated in 1820, he was elected Fellow of Oriel College in 1822, where he attracted the notice of Dr Whately, and was by him employed in the preparation for publication of his well-known "Treatise on Logic," and introduced to the editor of the "Encyclopædia Metropolitana," to which he became a contributor. He was ordained in 1824; and in the following year, his friend Dr Whately

having been appointed head of St Albans Hall, N. was by him selected as his vice-principal; but on being named tutor in his own college in 1827, as also public examiner, he resigned the vice-principalship. In 1828, he was presented to the vicarage of St Mary's, Oxford, in which church the sermons which he delivered at a late period had an extraordinary influence in forwarding the religious movement with which his name is permanently associated. At this period, N. was an earnest antagonist of the Roman Catholic Church. He was one of those who transferred their support from Sir Robert Peel to Sir Robert Inglis on occasion of the former's introducing the Roman Catholic Relief Bill; and he was one of the most active in commencing and carrying on the so-called Oxford movement—the great object of which was to counteract as well the Romanising as the dissenting tendencies of the time, by restoring and bringing into notice what N. and his friends believed to be the catholic character of the English Church. With this view, he commenced, in 1833, the series known as the "Oxford Tracts," to which he was himself one of the chief contributors; and in 1838, he also became editor of the "British Critic," which was an organ of the same views, and, in conjunction with Drs Pusey and Keble, of a "Library of Translations from the Greek and Latin Fathers." He continued the publication of the Tracts up to the 90th Number, which was written by himself, and the tendency of which was so distasteful to the Anglican authorities, that the Heads of Houses at Oxford condemned the Tract, and the Bishop of Oxford called on N. to discontinue the publication—a request with which he at once complied. The "British Critic" continued for some time longer to advocate the same opinions; but in 1843 that publication also was discontinued; and N., who had for some time resided at Littlemore, near Oxford, engaged, in company with some of his more youthful adherents, in study and ascetic exercise, thenceforward confined himself chiefly to his Littlemore residence, and eventually, in October 1845, was admitted into the Roman Catholic Church, a step which was immediately followed by the publication of a work on the "Development of Doctrine," which was intended as an explanation of the process through which the writer's own mind had passed. Soon afterwards, N. repaired to Rome, where, after some preparation, he was admitted to orders in the Roman Catholic Church; and in 1848, on his return to England, he established a branch of the Congregation of the Oratory of St Philip Neri, of which he was himself appointed the superior. In 1852, he was appointed rector of the Catholic University established in Dublin, an office which he held for five years, afterwards returning to Birmingham, where he still resides, and in connection with which he has established a school of higher studies for the youth of the Roman Catholic religion. Dr N., in addition to the large share which he had in the publications already named, is the author of several very important works, written as well before as after his withdrawal from Anglicanism. Of the former period, are his "History of the Arians," "Prophecy of the Church," "The Church of the Fathers," an "Essay on Miracles," a "Translation of the Treatises of St Athanasius," with many learned Dissertations, and several volumes of sermons. To the latter period belong the "Development of Christian Doctrine," "Lectures on Catholicism in England," "Apologia pro Vita Sua," "Letter to Dr Pusey," "Essay on Assent," and "Letters to the Duke of Norfolk on Mr Gladstone's Expostulation" (1875). N. is also the author of two works of fiction, "Loss and Gain," and "Callista," a classical and Christian story of the 5th c.; and he edited a series of "Lives of the English Saints."

NEWMAN, Francis William, brother of the preceding, was born in London in 1806, and educated at the school of Ealing. Thence he passed to Worcester College, Oxford, where he obtained first-class honors in classics and mathematics in 1826, and, in the same year, a fellowship in Balliol College. This fellowship, however, he resigned; and he withdrew from the university in 1830, at the approach of the time for taking the degree of M.A., declining the subscription to the Thirty-nine Articles, which was required from candidates for the degree. After a lengthened tour in the East, he was appointed classical tutor in Bristol College. 1834. In 1840, he accepted a similar professorship in Manchester New College, and, in 1846, his great reputation for scholarship, and his general accomplishments, led to his being appointed to the chair of Latin, in University College, London, which he held till 1868. During all this time, he has not only been an active contributor to numerous literary and scientific periodicals, and to various branches of ancient and

modern literature, but has also had a leading part in the controversies on religion, in which he has taken the line directly opposite to that chosen by his elder brother, being no less ardent as a disciple of the extreme rationalistic school than John Henry Newman of the dogmatical. These opinions, and the system founded upon them, form the subject of his well-known work, "Phases of Faith, or Passages from the History of my Creed" (1860); and of many essays in the "Westminster Eclectic," and other Reviews; but he is also the author of very many separate publications. Of these, several regard the controversy to which we have referred—as, Catholic Union; "Essays towards a Church of the Future" (1844); "A State Church not Defensible" (1846); a "History of the Hebrew Monarchy" (1847); "The Soul, its Sorrows and Aspirations" (1849). Others are on political or social topics—as, "Radical Reforms, Financial and Organic" (1848); "The Crimes of the House of Hapsburg" (1851); "Lectures on Political Economy" (1857); "Europe of the Near Future" (1861). A large number are devoted to historical, classical, and scientific subjects, the most important of which are "Contrasts of Ancient and Modern History" (1847); "Regal Rome" (1862); translations into "unrhymed metre" of the "Odes of Horace" (1853), and the "Iliad of Homer" (1856); a treatise on "Difficulties of Elementary Geography;" "Handbook of Arabic" (1866); "Ortho-epy" (1869), &c.

**NEWMARCHET**, a market-town of England, famous for its horse-races, is situated in a valley 18 miles east-north-east of Cambridge, and is partly in the county of that name and partly in Suffolk. It contains many well-built and elegant houses, the residences in many cases of gentlemen who are drawn hither from their interest in the *Turf*. The market-house and the famous Jockey Club are the chief edifices. Malt-making and brewing are carried on to some extent; but the town owes its prosperity to the horse-races, and nearly the half of the population are jockeys, grooms, trainers, or stablemen. The race-course of N., owned partly by the Jockey Club and partly by the Duke of Rutland, is said to be the finest in the world, and the training-ground bears a similar character for excellence. There are seven race-meetings held here annually. See **HORSE-RACING**. The population in 1871 was 4584.

**NEWPORT**, a parliamentary and municipal borough, market-town, and river-port of England, chief town of the Isle of Wight, and situated near the centre of that island, on the Medina, which is navigable up to this point. St Thomas's Church, founded in 1854, on the site of an ancient structure built in the reign of Henry III., is a handsome edifice, and contains a monument erected by Her Majesty in memory of the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Charles I., who died at Carisbrooke Castle September 8, 1650. Among the educational establishments of N. is the Free Grammar School, in which frequent meetings and negotiations between Charles I. and the Parliamentary Commissioners took place. About a mile north of N. is Carisbrooke Castle, where the king was confined under the guardianship of Colonel Hammond for twelve months (1647–1648). There are several important institutions in the vicinity, as the Albany Barracks, the House of Industry, and the Parkhurst Prieon for juvenile convicts. Manufactures of lace are carried on to some extent. Vessels of considerable tonnage can ascend to the quay at high tides. Pop. (1871) 7956.

**NEWPORT**, a thriving market-town, parliamentary and municipal borough, and river-port of England, in the county of Monmouth, and 24 miles south-south-west of the town of that name, on the Usk, and about four miles from the mouth of that river. It was anciently the port of the city of Caerleon, about three miles farther up the river; but during the present century, it has become a shipping port of considerable importance, being the outlet of the produce of the extensive collieries, and iron and tin works of the neighborhood. It possesses a number of recently-erected public buildings, has spacious docks, manufactures nails and spikes extensively, exports iron and coal largely, and carries on an excellent general trade. In 1875, 10,248 vessels, of 1,100,891 tons, entered and cleared the port. N. unites with Monmouth and Usk in sending a member to parliament. The remains of Newport Castle are now used as a brewery. Pop. (1871) 27,069.

**NEWPORT**, a city and port of entry, and semi-capital of Rhode Island. U. S., on the west shore of the *island* of Rhode Island in Narragansett Bay, 5 miles from the ocean. Lat.  $41^{\circ} 29' \text{ n.}$ , long.  $71^{\circ} 19' 12'' \text{ w.}$  It has a deep, excellent harbor, de-

fended by Forts Adams and Wolcott. It has a state-house, custom-house, market, the Redwood Library, many large hotels, and elegant villas; is renowned for fine scenery and sea-bathing; and is one of the most fashionable watering-places in America. The town also contains cotton and other manufactures. It was settled, in 1688, by 17 adherents of Roger Williams, who followed him in his banishment from Massachusetts. In 1874, N. had 135 sailing and steam vessels, of 8660 tons. It was for a time the residence of Bishop Berkeley. Pop. in 1870, 12,552.

NEWPORT, a city of Kentucky, U. S., on the Ohio River, opposite Cincinnati, and on the east side of the mouth of the Licking River, opposite Covington. It contains a United States arsenal, and several iron foundries and rolling mills. Pop. in 1870, 15,087.

NEWPORT-PAGNELL, a small market-town of England, in Buckinghamshire, on the Ouse, 50 miles north-north-west of London. Lace is manufactured extensively, and there is a good trade in corn, coal and timber. Pop. in 1871, 3555.

NEWRY, a seaport and parliamentary borough, situated partly in the county of Armagh, but principally in the county of Down, Ireland, distant from Dublin 63 miles north, and from Belfast 38 miles south-south-west, with both which places it is connected by a branch-railway communicating with the Dublin and Belfast Junction Railway. The town is nearly co-extensive with the English invasion, having grown up around a monastery founded in 1183, and a castle subsequently erected by De Carey. This castle was the scene of several struggles, and in most of the civil wars of Ulster, N. suffered severely. It was incorporated as a borough, with a corporation and two members of parliament, by James I. Since the Union, it returns but one member, and the corporation having been abolished by the Irish Municipal Reform Act, the affairs of the town are now administered by a commissioners. It is traversed by a river of the same name, which falls into Carlingford Lough, and by a canal, by which the navigation is prolonged to Lough Neagh, a distance of 32 miles. A commission has been appointed for improving Carlingford Lough, and to remove the bar; the estimated cost being £80,000. The town is handsomely and compactly built. The quays are lined with spacious warehouses, and there are several mills, tanyards, coach and car manufacturers, and iron foundries. Extensive water-works have recently been constructed. Linen, cotton, and iron manufactures are carried on. The income of the port is £6000 yearly. Steam vessels ply to Liverpool and Glasgow from Warrenpoint, a port five miles distant, on Carlingford Lough; and the Newry and Greenore Railway, connecting the Newry and Armagh Line with Carlingford Lough, is in progress. Pop. (1871) 14,158.

NEWSPAPER, a periodical publication printed and distributed for the circulation of news. From the broadsheet relating the most meagre intelligence without comment or inference, the newspaper has gradually grown up into a powerful political, as well as social engine, diffusing information on all subjects of interest, circulating advertisements, and acting on the public mind, in times of excitement, to an extent that has led it to be called a fourth estate of the realm.

The earliest approach to the newspaper is to be found in the "Acta Diurna," or "Acta Publica," of ancient Rome, an official gazette, which in the later times of the republic, and during the empire, appeared daily under sanction of the government. The contents of these "Acta" consisted of an enumeration of the births and deaths in Rome, an account of the money paid into the treasury, and everything relating to the supply of corn; extracts from the "Acta Forensica," including the edicts of magistrates, the testaments of distinguished men, reports of trials, with the names of the acquitted and condemned, a list of the magistrates who were elected; extracts from the "Acta Senatus," an account of public affairs and foreign wars, of the births, deaths, festivals, and movements of the imperial family; and generally, news relating to public buildings, funerals, games, fires, sacrifices, and miracles, as well as amatory stories. The "Acta" seem to have been drawn up under the superintendence of censors, quaestors and other magistrates, by officers called *actuarii*, assisted by clerks and notaries; and their publication consisted in posting them in some public place in the city, where they could be read by any one who pleased. They continued to be issued until the downfall of the West-

ern Empire, but there seems never to have been anything corresponding to them at Constantinople.

The beginnings of the newspaper of modern Europe are traceable to Germany and to Venice. Soon after the invention of printing, in the latter half of the 15th c., small news-sheets, called "Relationen" and the "Neue Zeitung," appeared in Augsburg, Vienna, Ratisbon, and Nürnberg, generally in the form of a letter. The extant numbers contain, among other matters, accounts of the discovery of America, of the conquests of the Turks, of the French and Austrian war in Italy, with such local occurrences as executions, inundations, earthquakes, burnings of witches, and child-murders committed by the Jews. More important, perhaps, were the official "Notizie Scritte," first issued by the Venetian government in the 16th c., containing accounts of the wars carried on by the Republic, and other events of general interest. At first they were not printed, but were to be seen in various public places on payment of a small coin, called a *Gazeta*, whence the name "Gazette." After they were allowed by the government to be printed, they obtained a wide circulation over the whole of Europe.

The earliest English newspapers, or news-letters, belong to the reign of James I., and were printed in the form of small quarto pamphlets. Some copies of a sheet, called the "English Mercury," purporting to be published by authority of Queen Elizabeth in 1588, the period of the Spanish Armada, have been proved by Mr Watts of the British Museum to be literary forgeries, executed about 1766. The first English newspapers appeared at occasional and irregular intervals—the earliest of them, so far as ascertained, is entitled "News out of Holland," and was published for M. Newbery in 1619. In 1622, these occasional pamphlets were converted into the first printed newspaper, entitled "The Certaine News of the Present Week," edited by Nathaniel Butter. About the same time appeared the "London Weekly Courant." A large number of publications, hardly deserving the name of newspaper, were circulated during the civil war, with such names as "England's Memorable Accidents," "The Kingdom's Intelligencer," "Mercurius Aulicus," "The Scots Intelligencer," "The Parliament's Scout," "The Parliament's Scout's Discovery, or Certain Information," "The Scots Dove," "The Parliament Kite," "The Secret Owl," "Mercurius Mastix," "Mercurius Democritus," "Mercurius Acheronicus, or News from Hell," &c. The arrangement of the news is poor in the extreme, and what few comments there are, are of the most virulent description. The Long Parliament subjected the newspaper press to a censorship, which became more strict under Charles II. The first English newspaper which could properly be considered a vehicle of general information, was the "Public Intelligencer," established by Sir Roger L'Estrange in 1663; it was dropped on the appearance of "The London Gazette," the first number of which was published November 7, 1665, at Oxford, where the court was residing in consequence of the plague being then in London. A second paper, called "The Observator," was afterwards started by L'Estrange, who, in 1680, exercised his authority as licenser of the press by issuing a proclamation "for suppressing the printing and publishing of unlicensed news-books and pamphlets of news." Small as was the sheet, a difficulty often arose how to fill it. One publisher was in the way of supplying the dearth of news by a passage from the Bible; another announced that "blank space is left that any gentleman may write his own private business."

Up to the reign of Queen Anne, few of the newspapers appeared oftener than once a week. From the interest excited by Marlborough's victories arose a demand for more frequent intelligence, and besides 17 newspapers published three times a week, the "Daily Courant," established in 1709, was issued every day except Sunday. Of the more noted London newspapers, the "London Daily Post and General Advertiser" was established in 1726, and in 1752 became the "Public Advertiser;" a celebrity attaches to it from having been the medium in which "Junius's Letters" first appeared. The "St James's Chronicle" arose from an amalgamation of two papers, the "St James's Post" and "St James's Evening Post," both which began in 1715. The "North Briton," edited by Wilkes, first appeared in 1762. The "Morning Chronicle," discontinued in 1862, dates from 1770; the "Morning Post," from 1772; the now defunct "Morning Herald," from 1781; the "Times" first appeared in 1788, as a continuation of the "London Daily Universal Register," established three years earlier.

During the reign of George III. prosecutions were rife against newspaper writers and editors; their result, generally, was to give a greatly increased currency to the doctrines assailed, and to confer a fictitious importance on the traders in politics, by whom many of the journals were conducted. The first attempt at parliamentary reporting was resented by the House of Commons as a breach of privilege, but the resolutions and the imprisonments of 1771 all ended in the tacit concession of publicity of discussion which has ever since prevailed.

The newspapers of Great Britain have, within the present century, greatly increased in size, and improved in literary character. In both respects they are far in advance of the journals of any other country. Each number of the "Times" now consists in general of 16 pages, occasionally 24, and contains upwards of 5000 advertisements. The success of the "Times" is mainly due to the enterprise of its original promoter, Mr. Walter, who first introduced various improvements in the art of printing, and made a strong effort to secure the best literary talent attainable in all departments of his journal. One of the most notable incidents in the history of the "Times," was the exposure, through means of its Paris correspondent, of a gigantic scheme of forgery, planned in France in 1840—a scheme which contemplated the almost simultaneous presentation, at the chief banking-houses of the continent, of forged Letters of Credit from Glyn and Co. The failure of the conspiracy was mainly due to the exertions made by the "Times." One of the parties implicated, brought an action for libel against the printer, and obtained a verdict of one farthing damages. A public subscription was raised to defray the expenses incurred in defending the action; when the proprietors of the "Times," declining personally to accept the sum subscribed, invested it in two "Times" scholarships in connection with Christ's Hospital and the City of London School, for the benefit of pupils proceeding thence to Oxford or Cambridge.

The editing of one of the leading London newspapers involves an immense daily expense, and the co-operation of a number of talented writers. The principal editor, as representative of the proprietors, has the whole oversight and responsibility intrusted to him. He occasionally furnishes the leading article, but it is more frequently composed by one of a staff of literary contributors, who are bound on the shortest notice to write on any subject which the editor may assign. The leader is in form a relic of the time when the newspaper was the news-letter; it is its professed object to analyse, condense, and explain public transactions, to scrutinise what is doubtful or suspicious in the conduct of public men, and to expose sophistry and imposture. Under the editor are various sub-editors, having the superintendence respectively of the London, the provincial, the foreign, the literary, the industrial and other departments. The commercial article is furnished every evening by a contributor in the City. There are twelve to sixteen parliamentary short-hand reporters, who are continually relieving one another, besides reporters attached to the courts of law, and correspondents who furnish accounts of public meetings, and local news of various kinds. The foreign intelligence, a most important department in the great London journals, is furnished by correspondents in all parts of the world, some of them, particularly those employed in time of war, being men of very high reputation in the literary world.

A stamp-duty on newspapers was imposed in 1713 by 10 Anne, c. 19, amounting to one halfpenny on "half a sheet or less," and one penny "if larger than half a sheet, and not exceeding a whole sheet." The duty was raised  $\frac{1}{2}d$  by 20 Geo. II. c. 19; another halfpenny was added by 16 Geo. III. c. 34; still another by 29 Geo. III. c. 80; and a further addition of  $1\frac{1}{2}d$  was made by 37 Geo. III. c. 90, amounting to 4d. in all. Act 6 and 7 Will. IV. c. 76, reduced the stamp-duty to 1d., with the addition of  $\frac{1}{2}d$  or 1d. when the sheet contained upwards of 1550, or of 2295 square inches on each side. An additional  $\frac{1}{2}d$  was chargeable on a supplement. By 18 and 19 Vict. c. 27, passed in 1855, the newspaper stamp was abolished, a change which occasioned an immense increase in the number of newspapers, and diminution of their price, though many of the cheap papers then started were of very brief duration. The repeal of the paper-duty, which took effect on October 1, 1861, also added, though to a much less considerable extent, to the number and cheapness of newspapers. The number of stamps issued on British newspapers was 7 $\frac{1}{2}$  millions in 1763, 16 millions in 1800, and 65,741,271 in 1850.

In 1843, the number of newspapers published in London was 79; in 1877 it was

about 320. 19 of these are daily papers, 6 of them published in the evening, and two out of the 6 mere reprints of the morning papers, with what news had been received during the day. Of these, the most influential for 40 years back has been the "Times," established in 1788, of which nearly 70,000 copies are printed daily, and its circulation has been larger on occasions of public interest. It professes independence in politics. The "Daily News," "Pal Mall Gazette" (an evening paper), "Daily Telegraph," and "Morning Post" are the most important Liberal daily papers, the last named being also the organ of the fashionable world, while the "Standard" and "Globe" (an evening paper), represent the Conservative party.

The price of the daily papers varies from ½d. to 8d. Of the 800 newspapers not daily, most are published once, some twice, some three times, one four times a week, some once a fortnight, and some monthly. They comprise agricultural, sporting, commercial, and railway journals; a dozen or so purely literary, or literary and scientific; military and naval, musical and theatrical, legal and medical journals. There is a "Court Circular," and a "Court Journal," a French, a German, an Anglo-American, and a Spanish weekly paper. There are a few pictorial and about half-a-dozen humorous papers. Of these last, "Punch," which has been in existence since 1841, is ably conducted, and wields no small influence. A large number are the organs of particular religious sects or parties. The bakers, drapers, grocers, printers, booksellers, brewers, &c., have their respective journals; the builders have six; and there are many newspapers with a purely local circulation, some confined to the obscure quarters of London. The price of the weekly papers varies from 6d. to 1d. or ½d.

The earliest English provincial newspaper is believed to be the "Norwich Postman," published in 1706, at the price of a penny, but "a halfpenny not refused." It was followed, in 1714, by the "Norwich Courant, or Weekly Packet." A "York Courant," "Leeds Courant," and "York Journal" were established about 1720; the "Manchester Gazette" in 1730, and the "Oxford Journal" in 1740. In 1848, 213 newspapers were published in provincial towns of England, and 8 in Wales. The provincial newspapers of England numbered in 1877 about 980, besides 56 belonging to Wales, and 20 to the Islands. About a fifth of the number profess Conservative, or Liberal-Conservative principles, a half Liberal, a small number perfect independence in politics, and the rest are avowedly neutral. Only a very few of these are conducted with anything like ability. Among the more important are the "Manchester Examiner," which is understood to have a circulation of 35,000, and the "Newcastle Chronicle" of 36,000, and the "Manchester Guardian." A characteristic feature of many second-class provincial papers is a column of gossip or scandal, entitled a letter "From Our London Correspondent."

The newspaper press of Scotland began during the civil wars of the 17th century. A party of Cromwell's troops, who arrived at Leith in 1652 to garrison the citadel, brought with them a printer named Christopher Higgins, to reprint the London paper, "Mercurius Politicus." The first number was issued on the 26th October 1653, and in November 1654 the establishment was transferred to Edinburgh, where the reprinting went on till 1660. On the 31st December 1660, the first number was published of the "Mercurius Caledonius," which professed to furnish information regarding the "affairs in agitation in Scotland, with a survey of foreign intelligence." It lived only three months, and was succeeded by "The Kingdom's Intelligencer." The "Edinburgh Gazette," an official paper published by authority, was established in 1669 by James Watson, a printer of eminence and skill. In 1702, Watson also started the "Edinburgh Courant," which attained its 215th number, and in 1706 the "Scots Courant." In 1718 the town-council of Edinburgh gave a privilege to James McLaren to print the "Edinburgh Evening Courant" three times a week, on condition that before publication, he should give "one copie of his print to the magistrates." This paper still exists as the "Edinburgh Courant," now a daily paper, and the principal Conservative journal in Scotland. The "Caledonian Mercury," now defunct, was first published on the 28th of April 1720. The "Scotsman," which came into existence in 1817, under the conduct of Mr Charles McLaren, and was for a short time edited by Mr J. R. McCulloch, the political economist, is the most influential Liberal journal in Scotland, and is believed to have a circulation of 55,000, larger than that of any daily paper out of London. The earliest Scottish provincial newspaper was the "Glasgow Courant," established

in 1715. The "Aberdeen Journal" was founded in 1746 by Mr James Chalmers; the first number contained an account of the battle of Culloden. The number of newspapers published in Scotland in 1843 was 69; it is now 164, 15 of that number belonging to Edinburgh. A few of the leading newspapers of Scotland contain articles little inferior in talent to those of the best English newspapers, and exercise considerable political influence, at least in matters relating to Scotland. About a score of the Scottish papers are regarded as Conservative, 60-70 Liberal, and the rest Independent or neutral in politics. Edinburgh has in all 12 newspapers, including the weekly issues of the 4 dailies; Glasgow 17 (with 6 dailies); Aberdeen 3 in all; Dundee 4; Paisley 2. The price of most of the daily papers is 1d.; of some it is ½d.; that of the weeklies and bi-weeklies varies from ½d. to 4d.

In Ireland, a news-sheet, called "Warranted Tidings from Ireland," was printed during the rebellion of 1641; but the first Irish newspaper, properly so called, was the "Dublin Newsletter," commenced in 1685. "Pue's Occurrences," a Dublin daily paper, originated in 1700, was continued for half a century. It was followed, in 1728, by another daily paper, "Faulkner's Journal," established by George Faulkner, "a man celebrated for the goodness of his heart, and the weakness of his head." The oldest existing Dublin newspapers are "Saunders' (originally Esdaile's) Newsletter," begun in 1746, and the "Evening Post," instituted in 1725. The "Limerick Chronicle," the oldest Irish provincial paper, dates from 1766. Ireland possessed 79 newspapers in 1843, and had in 1877 about 150. Most of them are characterised by an energy of language, and a strength of political bias, unknown in the other parts of the United Kingdom. The "Irish Times" and the "Evening Mail," published in Dublin, and the "Belfast News Letter," are influential daily papers.

The Isle of Man supports 1 Conservative, 2 Liberal, and 1 neutral journal. Jersey has 9 journals, 4 printed in French and 5 in English; 4 are Liberal, 1 Conservative, 2 Liberal-Conservative, 1 Independent, and 1 neutral. Guernsey has an official gazette printed in French, which is Protestant and neutral, besides 2 Liberal, 1 Liberal-Conservative, and 2 neutral papers. These local papers are conducted with a great amount of spirit and success.

In the British colonies, newspapers are numerous, including those in India, printed in the Bengalee and other native languages. "Hicking's Gazette," the first Anglo-Indian newspaper, appeared at Calcutta in 1781; it was followed, in 1784, by a small official sheet, the "Calcutta Gazette, or Oriental Advertiser." The still surviving "Bengal Hurkuru" was established in 1795. In the earlier times of Indian newspapers, though there was no direct censorship, exemplary punishment was often inflicted on the authors of offensive paragraphs. In 1794, Mr Ducane, editor of the "World," was transported to Europe for an inflammatory address to the army which appeared in his paper; and a similar result followed, in 1798, to another editor, who made some severe observations on the official conduct of a local magistrate. A censorship, established by Lord Wellesley in 1799, was abolished by the Marquis of Hastings in 1818; but a licence, revocable at pleasure, was required to be taken out by every printer of a newspaper. In 1832, the Indian press consisted of 6 European and 5 native journals. The licensing system was done away with by Lord Metcalfe's law of 1835, a step disapproved of by the East India directors. This law remained in force till the sepoy mutiny, since which event there has been a return to the system of licences. In 1875, there were in India 195 Eng., 270 vernacular, and 65 mixed Eng. and vernacular newspapers.—The first Australian paper was the "Sydney Gazette," founded in 1803 by George Howe, a Creole of St. Kitts. Hobart Town had its journal in 1804, and in 1824 newspapers began to multiply in the Australian colonies. The principal are now the "Sydney Herald," the "Sydney Mail," the "Argus" of Melbourne, and the "South Australian Register." The materials for printing this last-named paper were carried out by the original South Australian colonists, the first number having been previously printed in England. A similar course was adopted by the first New Zealand colony in 1839 in founding their "New Zealand Gazette" and "New Zealand Advertiser." Tahiti has, since 1844, had its "L'Océanie Franchise." There is also the "Fiji Times," the "Fiji Gazette," and the "Central Polynesian."

*France.*—The earliest French newspaper is said to have been established by Théophraste Renandot, a physician, in the beginning of the 17th century. The first number of his "Gazette" appeared in 1681. In the following year, through interest

of Cardinal Richelieu, he obtained a royal privilege for his "Gazette;" it was continued weekly up to 1662, and then began to appear twice in the week, and to combine advertisements with public news. Commercial intelligence was added in 1705, and in 1792, theatrical announcements. In 1650 was started the "Gazette Burlesque," a journal in verse, edited by the poet Jean Loret, devoted in a great measure to the *chronique scandaleuse* of Paris; and in 1672, the "Mercure Galant," a political and literary journal, which afterwards became the "Mercure de France," and was continued during the Revolution, and down to 1815. The first French daily newspaper was the "Journal de Paris," which began in 1777, and was discontinued in 1819. A large crop of journals sprang into being with the Revolution, organs respectively of Republicans, Jacobins, and Royalists, but most of them had a very brief existence. Under the first Napoleon the freedom of the press was much restricted. By one of his earliest ordinances as First Consul, all the newspapers were suppressed except 18, and under the Empire the tolerated journals were allowed to be little more than echoes of the official "Moniteur." From the danger which attended the handling of political questions, arose the practice of filling a large portion of the sheet with the "Feuilleton," consisting of a sketch or tale by a popular writer, which has ever since been a characteristic of French journalism. During the Restoration period, the press being again less fettered, there was a large increase in the number of newspapers. In 1820 there were 127, and in 1829, 307 newspapers published in Paris. The July Revolution at first added still further to their number; but the restrictive measures of 1834, consisting in the imposition of a stamp duty, and of an obligation to find security to the amount of 24,600 francs, led to the collapse of a large proportion of the then existing journals. The "Moniteur," "Débats," and "Presse" were in possession of the government, and for a time also the "Constitutionnel," and every shade of political opinion had its recognised organ. Emile de Girardin's scheme of widening the circulation of the government organ, the "Presse," by bringing down the subscription price from 80 to 40 francs, had the result of reducing the price of the opposition journals also. Cheap newspapers being thus established, it soon appeared that with the class among whom they circulated most widely the feuilleton was regarded of more importance than the political article, and it thus became the policy of the journalists to pay enormous sums to the cleverest novelists of the day, in order to retain them in their service. 100,000 francs paid by Dr Véron of the "Constitutionnel" to Eugène Sue for his "Juit Errant," turned out as profitable a speculation for the journalist as for the novelist.

The Revolution of 1848, like the revolutions that had gone before it, gave birth to a multitude of short-lived journals. There were 89 different political journals started into ephemeral existence in Paris during the late Commune, from March 19 to the 27th of May, 1871. When the late Emperor Napoleon was president of the republic, a law was passed obliging the author of every newspaper article to affix his name to it. In February 1852, the press laws were incorporated, with increased stringency, into a *Décret organique sur la Presse*. Louis Napoleon, during the empire, relaxed the stringency a little. The republic holds newspapers in as great bondage as did its imperial predecessor. Among the most important daily papers published in Paris are the "République Française," "Pays," "Siècle," "Presse," "Débats," "Bien Public," "France," "Journal Officiel," "Charivari," and "Figaro."

**Belgium.**—In the Low Countries an illustrated war gazette, called the "Nieuwetijdinghe," was first published in 1605; it was the precursor of the "Gazette van Antwerpen," which survived till 1805. During the Spanish and Austrian rule, each town had its privileged newspaper, but the press was considerably fettered in the expression of political opinion. Under the French rule, most of these journals disappeared or sunk into insignificance. The "Annales Politiques" was a political journal of considerable popularity during last century. Since the Revolution of 1830, the press has been subject to few restraints, the newspapers have been numerous, and some few of them well conducted. The "Indépendance Belge" has a large circulation, and exercises considerable political influence. It is the property of a company of bankers, and is conducted by a Frenchman of talent and liberal sentiments. The "Moniteur Belge" was instituted as the official organ of the ministry in 1830. "Le Nord," a Russian organ published in Brussels, is conducted with

great ability. A large circulation is enjoyed by the "Journal de Bruxelles," the "Emancipation," and the "Etoile Belge"—all papers in the interest of the *parti prêtre*, and supplied with correspondence from Rome. The "Echo de Bruxelles" and the "Journal de Belgique" are independent papers. The "Précureur d'Anvers," and the "Escaut" of Antwerp, have a good circulation—the latter is at once ultramontane and ultra-democratic.

*Holland*.—The earlier newspapers of Holland were in some respects, particularly in the accuracy of their information, in advance of those of other countries, but gave far more prominence to commercial than to political intelligence. They all bore the name of "Courant" appended to the name of the town where they were published. Though subject to no censorship since 1815, it was not till 1830 that they began to comment on political occurrences. At present the principal Dutch journals are the "Algemeene Handelsblad" of Amsterdam, and "Amsterdam Courant;" the "Harlemse Courant;" and the "Journal de la Haye." "De Nederlandsche Stoompost," and "Staats Courant"—published at the Hague.

*Switzerland*.—Switzerland being a confederation of states, each with its own institutions, the Swiss newspapers have a very local character; but they are numerous, and some of them have of late years greatly improved in character. The "Swiss Times," published in Geneva, and printed in both French and English, is now frequently quoted in all countries.

*Germany*.—Though in Germany the "Relationen" above alluded to, were in some sort the precursors of newspapers, yet no serial newspaper, properly so called, seems to have existed till 1615. Frankfurt was the first town that possessed its journal; next followed Fulda, Hildesheim, and Herford. The earliest Leipzig newspaper was instituted in 1660. The first newspaper with a staff of foreign correspondents was the "Hamburgische Correspondent;" but no German newspaper can be said to have had any political weight till the institution of the "Allgemeine Zeitung," founded by Cotta in 1798, now published at Augsburg, which still takes rank as the first paper in Germany. During French ascendancy, the German papers were little more than echoes of the Parisian; but a number of journals of a more national character sprung up during the war of liberation. The abuse of the liberty of the press after 1830, led to the imposition by the diet of restrictions of a somewhat severe character on newspapers. Although within the last twenty years there has been a decided improvement in the literary and political character of the German newspapers, the Socialist Law of 1878 is a severe restriction of the liberty of the press. Among the principal Berlin daily papers are the "Vossische Zeitung," the "Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung" (semi-official), the "Neue Preussische Zeitung" (usually known as the "Kreuz Zeitung"), "Post," "National-Zeitung," and "Volks-Zeitung." The "Allgemeine Zeitung," published at Augsburg, is a very influential and well-conducted journal.

*Austria*.—The Austrian newspapers have partaken of the advance in the newspaper press of Germany. The most important of them is the "Wiener Zeitung," with its evening reprint, the "Wiener Abendpost," not insignificant either in a literary or political point of view, and the "Neue Freie Presse."

*Italy*.—We have mentioned the early "Notizie Scritte," or gazettes of Venice. The news-sheets which followed them were in disfavor with the see of Rome; and a memorable bull denouncing them was issued by Gregory XIII. Up to 1847, the newspapers of Italy were small, politically insignificant, and subject to a strict censorship. With the accession of Pope Pius IX., a flood of political journals made their appearance, one or two of which only were conducted with any approach to talent, and few lasted above a year. In the Sardinian dominions there continued to be no fewer than 45 political papers published in 1859, 41 of which were printed in Italian and 4 in French. Of that number a great many soon afterwards collapsed. The removal of the former restrictions of the press in other parts of the Kingdom of Italy has started into life a number of newspapers. Seventeen political and ten partially political papers are now published in the dominions of Victor Emmanuel, besides 31 periodicals, many of which answer more or less to our ideas of a newspaper. Few of these newspapers are as yet of much promise. The leaders are poor, no great social or commercial questions are discussed, and each journal is the mere advocate of one or other of the political parties. Perhaps the best of them, on the whole, are "Il Diritto" and "L'Opinione," which may be compared to

Some of the second-rate French papers. The "Gazetta Ufficiale del Regno d'Italia" is the ministerial organ, and "L'Italie," published in France, is looked upon as the organ of the department of Foreign Affairs. Humorous newspapers, after the model of our "Punch," are abundant. The "Voce della Verità" is the paper which advocates the cause of the pope. "La Libertà" and "Il Fanfulla" are published in Rome; Genoa issues its "Curriero Mercantile;" Milan, "La Perseveranza;" and Naples, the "Pungolo" and "Patria."

**Spain.**—Sheets called "Relaciones," giving accounts of important occurrences, used to appear in Spain at irregular intervals in the 17th c., occasionally in the form of romances; but no Spanish newspaper, properly so called, existed till last century, and fifty years ago Madrid possessed but one journal. The first approach to political journalism followed in the wake of the Peninsular War and the establishment of the Cortes. The gross licence with which many of the then established papers were conducted, led in 1824, to the suppression of all except the "Diario" and "Gaceta" of Madrid, the "Gaceta de Bayona," and a few which were purely commercial or scientific. At present, about 40 journals are published in Madrid, politically and in every other respect very unimportant; the most read is the "España." The press of Portugal is as insignificant as that of Spain; the official organ is the "Diario do Governo."

**Sweden and Norway.** The earliest Swedish newspaper seems to have been the "Ordinarie Post Tidende," established in 1643, and continued till 1680. It was followed by the "Relationes Curiosae" in Latin (1682—1701). Two French papers, the "Gazette Frangaise de Stockholm" and the "Mercure de Suede," existed in Sweden in the second half of last century, but politically the newspaper press cannot be said to have had any influence until the establishment of the "Argus" by Johansen in 1820. For a number of years the principal journals of Sweden were the "Fäderneslandet," the organ of the royalists, and the "Aftonbladet," that of the reformers. The latter, on King Oscar's accession, ceased to be an opposition journal. The official paper is the "Post och Inrikes Tidningar." Every provincial town has now its journal, and there are about 114 newspapers in all published in Sweden. Of the Norwegian papers, the oldest is the "Christiania Intelligenter," founded in 1768. "Den Constitutionelle" is the government journal, and "Den Morgenblad" the organ of the opposition.

**Denmark.**—In Denmark journalism is still more recent. Up to 1820 only two newspapers were published in Copenhagen, both entirely made up of extracts from foreign journals. Since 1834, there has been an improvement in the character and increase in the number of the Danish journals. They numbered 36 in 1849. The oldest newspaper now existing in Denmark is the semi-ministerial "Berlingske Tidende," founded in 1749. The "Fædrelandet" is the journal of the Scandinavian popular party.

**Russia.**—The earliest newspapers in Russia were published under the personal surveillance of Peter the Great, first in Moscow and afterwards in Petersburg, to report the progress of the war with Sweden. Political journalism, properly so called, has, however, never flourished in Russia, and has, in fact, only been allowed in important political crises—as the French invasion of 1812, the Polish Insurrection of 1830, and recently during the Crimean War, when the journalists were allowed to exercise their ingenuity in defending the government policy. The largest circulation was at that time attained by the "Sjéwernaja Ptsch'eta," or "Northern Bee," which had its feuilleton. Generally speaking, the Russian newspapers occupy themselves with scientific and literary subjects rather than public or political news. The "Journal de St Petersbourg," in French, is the organ of the court, and has considerable circulation out of Russia.

**Turkey.**—The first newspaper in Turkey was founded, in 1795, by M. Vermuinhae, envoy-extraordinary of the French government to the court of Selim III., and printed in French at Peru. A Frenchman of the name of Blaque established at Smyrna, in 1825, the "Spectateur de L'Orient," afterwards the "Courrier de Smyrne," which had considerable political influence during the Greek war. The same M. Blaque afterwards edited the official journal of the Porte, called the "Moniteur Ottoman," which has, since 1832, been reprinted in Turkish under the name of the "Taqimîl Vâqâti." The "Taqimîl" was till lately a very badly printed sheet, but it has much improved, and now issues weekly instead of monthly, some-

times containing very fair literary and political articles. But the most important Turkish paper is the "Djeridel Havadis," founded in 1848 by Mr Alfred Churchill, an Englishman born in Turkey. It embraces a great variety of matter, a court gazette, official appointments, home and foreign news, advertisements, prices of stocks, and a feuilleton. There are besides in Constantinople two new and popular papers, called the "Terguman Ahval," or "Interpreter of Events," published three times a week, and the "Tas veeri Evgiari," or "Mirror of Thoughts," published twice a week. The latter has a scientific and literary répute. The Turkish papers have no leading articles, and from the constitution of political society in Turkey, there can be no avowed opposition to the policy of the government. The "Courier de Constantinople," in French, is one of the principal journals of the capital; here appear also the "Levant Herald" and the "Levant Times" in English. And papers in French, Italian, Greek, and Armenian are published in various parts of the empire.

*Greece.*—Various newspapers in modern Greek appeared at Paris and Vienna before Greece obtained her independence; but the first political journal published in Greece was the "Hellénikē Salpīgū," founded in 1824, and soon followed by the "Hellénika Chronika" and "Hellénikos Télegraphos" in Missolonghi, the "Philoston nomou" at Hydra, the "Ephémérides Athénaïkai" at Athens, and the official "Genikē ephéméristés Hellados" published at Nauplia, with its opponent the "Apollōn," which afterwards became the "Athēna." Most of these papers disappeared in 1833 on the system of serties being introduced. The "Sótér" was established as the government organ in 1833. Upwards of eighty newspapers are now published in Greece, the largest number of them in Athens. Of these several appear in French, Italian, and English. The leading political journal of Athens is the semi-monthly "Spectateur d'Orient;" but generally speaking, the Greek papers make no endeavor to lend the parties in the state.

*United States.*—In America, the earliest newspaper was the "Boston Newsletter," founded in 1704, insignificant in size and contents, and conducted by John Campbell, the postmaster of the town. A rival to it appeared, in 1719, in the "Boston Gazette," "published by authority." The "Boston Newsletter," however, thrived in spite of opposition. With the name changed to the "Massachusetts Gazette and Boston Newsletter," it was the support of the British rule against the desire for independence, and ceased to appear when the British troops evacuated Boston. The "New England Courant," established in 1721, was at first printed by James Franklin, and afterwards edited by his brother the famous statesman. It lasted but six years, but a subsequent newspaper, entitled the "Pennsylvania Gazette," was started by Benjamin Franklin in 1729, and continued weekly till 1745, when it merged in the "North American." "Eden's Boston Gazette," begun in 1755, was for a long time the chief organ of the popular party; in it appeared John Adams's "Letters of Novanglia." The "Massachusetts Spy" was another paper of note on the revolutionary side. It was afterwards removed from Boston to Worcester, and still appears as the "Worcester Spy." At the revolution, the New England colonies possessed 14 newspapers; Pennsylvania, 9; New York, 4; and the middle and southern colonies, 10. All save the semi-weekly "Advertiser" of Philadelphia were published weekly. The development of the newspaper trade has kept pace with the advancing prosperity of the country. In 1800, the number of newspapers had increased to 200, of which several were daily papers. In 1810, there were 259, including 27 daily sheets. In 1824, 862 papers appeared; in 1850, no less than 2526; while in 1870 there were 5871 newspapers, with a circulation of 20,842,475, and a yearly issue of 1,608,250. In 1874, the number of weekly papers had reached 5544, besides the weekly issues of 678 daily papers. Some of the New York weeklies have an enormous circulation, the "Ledger" having occasionally sent out upwards of 400,000 copies. The Germans publish 810 papers in their own tongue; the Scandinavians, 19; Spaniards, 16; Italians, 2; Welsh, 4; Bohemians, 5; Poles, 2; Portuguese, 1; while there is a Chinese newspaper published at San Francisco, and a Cherokee one at Tahlequah in the Indian Territory. About 275 periodicals, with a supported aggregate circulation of 65,000,000 copies, are issued in the United States. Among the leading newspapers of New York, the order of importance, both as to enterprise and circulation, is the "New York Herald," the "Tribune," and the "New York Times."

The principal religious papers published in New York are the "Observer and Evangelist," organs of the Presbyterians; "Independent and Christian Union," of the Congregationalists; the "Churchman" is Episcopal; the "Christian Advocate," Methodist; and the "Examiner," Baptist. The Unitarians are represented by the "Liberal Christian;" the Catholics by the "Tablet;" and the Swedenborgians and Jews have also their papers.

All the other numerous journals of the American States are, compared with those of New York, accounted provincial, but many are, nevertheless, vigorously conducted. Each county, comprising, on an average, 860 square miles, has generally two or three papers—one being republican, another democratic, and if there is a third, it is probably the organ of some religious or other sect. The printer, in most cases, the editor, and the village lawyer supplies leaders seasoned frequently with personal attacks. Some of them have been successfully started with no larger capital than £100 of borrowed money.

There is an immense collection of newspapers in the British Museum, which belonged in part to the library of Sir Hans Sloane, in part to that of Dr Charles Burney. See Andrews's "History of British Journalism" (London, 1859). Grant's "The Newspaper Press; its Origin, Progress, and Present Condition" (London, 1871).

NEWT, or EFT (*Triton*), a genus of batrachians of the family *Salamandridæ*, more aquatic in their habits than the salamander, to which, in form and characters, they are very similar, having an elongated body and tail, and four small weak limbs. The tail is vertically compressed, and a crest is often developed on the back and tail, but the crest is characteristic of the males in the breeding season, and the tail becomes rounded when the animals leave the water, as they often do, particularly in the latter part of summer or in autumn; which, along with other variations apparently dependent on circumstances, have caused no little multiplication of specific names. The most abundant British species is the COMMON N., or SMOOTH N. (*P. punctatus*, *Lissotriton punctatus*, or *Lophinus punctatus*), which is from  $3\frac{1}{2}$  to 4 inches long, brownish gray above, yellowish beneath, spotted with black, with a soft, smooth skin, and two bands of pores on the head; a well-known inhabitant of stagnant pools and ditches, often found also under stones and in other damp situations. The WARTY N. (*T. palustris*, or *cristatus*), also pretty common, is 5 or 6 inches in length, blackish brown above with round spots of a darker tint, bright orange or orange-yellow with black spots on the under parts, the sides dotted with white, and the tail often exhibiting a white band, the skin rough or warty, and with many pores. The dorsal and caudal crests of the Warty N. are separate; those of the Common N. are united. Many other species occur in other parts of the world. They all feed on animal food, of which tadpoles and aquatic insects form the chief portions. They deposit their eggs on the leaves of aquatic plants, each egg separately, twisting or folding the leaf with their feet so as to conceal the egg, which is surrounded by a viscous substance, so that the leaf is retained in this form. The transformations of newts are noticed in the article BATRACHIA. They very frequently change their skin. They possess, in an extraordinary degree, the power of reproducing lost members—a limb, a tail, even an eye—in every respect perfect. Spallanzani, who made many observations on this subject, found that the same member could be reproduced a number of times successively. Newts are also capable of surviving, although long frozen up in ice, and return to activity when thaw takes place. A strong and almost universal popular prejudice exists against them as most noxious animals, although they are not in the slightest degree venomous. They have recently, however, begun to be more favorably regarded in consequence of the frequency of aquaria, of which they are interesting inmates.—It is a curious fact that Linnaeus, contrary to his usual discriminating penetration, confounded newts with lizards, which they resemble merely in form, differing widely in the most important characters. That they are often confounded by the unscientific is not wonderful.

NEWTON, Sir Isaac, the most remarkable mathematician and natural philosopher of his own or perhaps of any other age, was born at Wool-thorpe, in Lincolnshire, in the year 1642. That year, remarkable in English history for the breaking out of the civil war between Charles I. and the parliament, is doubly remarkable in the

history of science by the birth of N. and the death of Galileo. The circumstances with which the pursuit of truth, in scientific matters, was at this time surrounded in the respective countries of these great philosophers, were not more different than the characters of the philosophers themselves. Galileo died a prisoner, under the surveillance of the Inquisition, "for thinking, in astronomy," as Milton says, "otherwise than the Franciscan and Dominican licensers thought." In England, it had become the practice, and soon became the fashion, through the influence of Bacon and Descartes, to discard altogether the dictates of authority in matters of science. The dispositions of the two philosophers were happily suited to the situations in which they thus found themselves. Galileo's was a mind whose strength and determination grew by the opposition it encountered. The disposition of N., on the other hand, diffident of the value and interest of his own labors, and shrinking from the encounter of even scientific controversy, might have allowed his most remarkable discoveries to remain in obscurity, had it not been for the constant and urgent solicitation of his friends that they should be published to the world.

N. received his early education at the grammar school of Grantham, in the neighborhood of his home, at Woolsthorpe. On the 5th of June 1661, he left home for Cambridge, where he was admitted as subsizar at Trinity College. On the 8th of July following, he matriculated as sizar of the same college. He immediately applied himself to the mathematical studies of the place, and within a very few years must have not only made himself master of most of the works of any value on such subjects then existing, but had also begun to make some progress in the methods for extending the science. In the year 1665, he committed to writing his first discovery on fluxions; and it is said that in the same year, the fall of an apple, as he sat in his garden at Woolsthorpe, suggested the most magnificent of his subsequent discoveries—the law of universal gravitation. On his first attempt, however, by means of the law so suggested to his mind, to explain the lunar and planetary motions, he employed an estimate then in use of the radius of the earth, which was so erroneous as to produce a discrepancy between the real force of gravity and that required by theory to explain the motions, corresponding to the respective figures 16.1 and 13.9. He accordingly abandoned the hypothesis for other studies. These other pursuits to which he thus betook himself consisted chiefly of investigation into the nature of light, and the construction of telescopes. By a variety of ingenious and interesting experiments upon sunlight refracted through a prism in a darkened apartment, he was led to the conclusion that rays of light which differ in color, differ also in refrangibility. This discovery enabled him to explain an imperfection of the telescope, which had not till then been accounted for. The indistinctness of the image formed by the object-glass was not necessarily due to any imperfection of its form, but to the fact of the different colored rays of light being brought to a focus at different distances. He concluded rightly that it was impossible for an object-glass consisting of a single lens to produce a distinct image. He went further, and too hastily concluding from a single experiment, that the dispersive power of different substances was proportional to their refractive power, he pronounced it impossible to produce a perfect image by a combination of lenses. This conclusion—since proved erroneous by the discovery of the achromatic telescope by Mr Chester More Hall, of More Hall, in Essex, about 1729, and afterward, independently, by Mr Dollond in 1751—turned N.'s attention to the construction of reflecting telescopes; and the form devised by him is the one which, at later periods, reached such perfection in the hands of Sir William Herschel and Lord Rosse.

It was on the 11th January 1671 that N. was elected a member of the Royal Society, having become known to that body from his reflecting telescopes. At what period he resumed his calculations about gravitation, employing the more correct measure of the earth obtained by Picard in 1670, does not clearly appear; but it was in the year 1684 that it became known to Halley that he was in possession of the whole theory and its demonstration. It was on the urgent solicitation of Halley that he was induced to commit to a systematic treatise these principles and their demonstrations. The principal results of his discoveries were set down in a treatise called "De Motu Corporum," and were afterwards more completely unfolded in the great work entitled "Philosophiae Naturalis Principia Mathematica," which was finally published about midsummer 1687.

Shortly before the "Principia" was given to the public, N. had been called to take an active part in defending the rights of the university against the illegal encroachments of James II. The conspicuous part which he had taken on that occasion procured him a seat in the Convention Parliament, in which he sat from January 1689 to its dissolution in 1690. In 1696, he was appointed Warden of the Mint, and was afterwards promoted to the office of Master of the Mint in 1699, an office which he held till the end of his life. He again took a seat in parliament, in the year 1701, as the representative of his university. Thus engaged in the public service, he had little time left for mere scientific studies—pursuits which he always held of secondary importance to the public duties in which he was engaged. In the interval of public duty, however, N. shewed that he still retained the scientific power by which his great discoveries had been made. This was shewn in his solution of two celebrated problems proposed, in June 1696, by John Bernouilli, as a challenge to the mathematicians of Europe. A similar mathematical feat is recorded of him so late as 1716, in solving a problem proposed by Leibnitz, for the purpose, as he expressed it, of feeling the pulse of the English analysts. When in parliament, N. recommended the public encouragement of the invention of a method for determining the longitude—the first reward in consequence being gained by John Harrison for his chronometer. He was President of the Royal Society from 1703 till his death, a period of twenty-five years, being each year re-elected. In this position, and enjoying the confidence of Prince George of Denmark, he had much in his power towards the advancement of science; and one of his most important works during this time was the superintendence of the publication of Flamsteed's "Greenwich Observations"—a task, however, not accomplished without much controversy and some bitterness between himself and that astronomer. The controversy between N. and Leibnitz, as to priority of discovery of the differential calculus, or the method of fluxions, was raised rather through the partisanship of jealous friends, than through the anxiety of the philosophers themselves, who were, however, induced to enter into and carry on the dispute with some degree of bitterness and mutual recrimination. The verdict of the impartial historian of science must be, that the methods were invented quite independently, and that, although N. was the first inventor, a greater debt is owing by later analysts to Leibnitz, on account of the superior facility and completeness of his method. The details of these controversies, with all other information of the life of this philosopher, will be found admirably collected in the "Life" by Sir D. Brewster, who writes with not only an intimate acquaintance with N.'s works, but in the possession of all the materials collected in the hands of his family. N. died on 20th March 1727, and his remains received a resting-place in Westminster Abbey, where a monument was erected to his memory in 1731. A magnificent full-length statue of the philosopher, executed by Roubiliac, was erected in 1755 in the ante-chapel of Trinity College, Cambridge. This work was assisted by a cast of the face taken after death, which is preserved in the university library at Cambridge. In 1699, N. had been elected a foreign associate of the Academy of Sciences, and in 1703, he received the honor of knighthood from Queen Anne. Among the best editions of N.'s principal works are: the quarto edition of the "Optics" (Lond. 1704), and the quarto edition of the "Principia," published at Cambridge in 1713.

NEWTON, Thomas, an English prelate of the 18th c., was born at Lichfield, January 1, 1704. He was educated at Westminster School, and afterwards at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took the degree of M.A. in 1730, in which year also he was ordained priest. After holding several minor preferments, he was made Bi-bishop of Bristol in 1761, and died 14th of February 1782. Without any remarkable merit, N. has, one cannot well say how, succeeded in obtaining a place in literary history. His two productions, whose fortunes have surpassed their deserts, are an edition of "Milton's Paradise Lost" (2 vols. 1749), with a memoir of the poet, and critical and explanatory notes; and "Dissertations on the Prophecies" (3 vols. 1754–1758). Besides these, he wrote occasional sermons, and a host of scriptural dissertations, the theology of which is reckoned not always "orthodox."

NEWTON, a township in Massachusetts, United States of America, on Charles River, eight miles west of Boston. It contains two villages, Upper Falls and Lower Falls, with 3 paper-mills, 3 cotton and hosiery factories, a Baptist theological seminary, and 12 churches. Pop. (1870) 19,852.

NEWTON-A'BBOT, a market town of England, in the county of Devon, beautifully situated in a vale on the river Lemon, 15 miles south-south-west of Exeter. The portion of the town called Newton-Bushel is on the left side of the stream. It has been undergoing considerable improvements within recent years. William of Orange, after landing at Torbay, in 1688, made his first public declaration here. Pop. (1871) 6082.

NEWTON-IN-MA'KERFIELD, a thriving manufacturing and market town of England, in Lancashire, 18 miles west of Manchester, on the Manchester and Liverpool Railway. Two large iron foundries, as well as printing, paper and sugar works, an oil-distillery, and a brick, tile and pot manufactory are in full operation. There is a beautiful lake in the town called Newton Mere, which is covered during the summer months with the pleasure-boats of the townspeople. Horse-races are held here in June, and horse and cattle fairs in May and August annually. The election of M.P.'s for South Lancashire takes place in Newton. Cotton and flour mills, iron foundries and glass-works are in operation; and bricks are made. Pop. (1871) 8244.

NEWTON-UPON-AYR, a burgh of barony and parish of Scotland, in the county of Ayr, on the north side of the river Ayr, and united with the town of that name by three bridges. See AYR. Its population is included in that of Ayr. N. has ship-building docks, roperies, and iron and brass foundries. It exports 100,000 tons of coal annually.

NEWTON'S RINGS. In his investigations of the colors produced by thin plates of any material, solid, fluid, or gaseous, Sir Isaac Newton hit upon the following mode of exhibiting the colors produced by a film of air. He took two lenses, one convexo-plane, its convex side having a radius of 14 feet, the other equi-convex, with the radii of its surfaces 51 feet, and laid the first with its plane surface downwards on the top of the second, thus producing a thin film of air between the lenses; the film being thinnest near the centre, and becoming gradually thicker outwards. On slowly pressing the upper lens against the under one, a number of concentric colored rings, having the point of contact of the lenses for their centre, appeared, and increased in size when the pressure was increased. These rings, or more properly systems of rings, are seven in number, and each of them is composed of a number (ranging from eight in the first or smallest ring, to two in the outermost) of rings of different colors, the colors, though different in each of the systems of rings, preserving the same arrangement as the colors of the spectrum, of which they seem to be modifications; thus, in the second ring the inside color is violet, and the outside scarlet red. The colors are very distinct in the first three systems of rings, but become gradually confused and dull towards the outside, till they almost fade away in the seventh system. The centre is deep black. The thickness of the air-film at the centre is about half a millionth of an inch, and increases gradually to nearly 1-190,000 of an inch, when the colors disappear.

NEW'TOWN, a modern manufacturing town of North Wales, in the county of Montgomery, 8 miles south-west of the town of that name, on the right bank of the Severn, and on the Montgomery Canal, which connects it with the inland navigation of the country. It is the centre of the flannel manufacture of the county. It has 49 factories, employing in all 960 men. Pop. (1871) 5744.

NEWTOWNARDS, a market-town of the county Down, Ireland, 1½ miles east from Belfast by railway. Pop. (1871) 9562. It contains a court-house, a town-hall, and a market-square; a Protestant church, a Roman Catholic chapel, seven Presbyterian meeting-houses, numerous schools, and a union workhouse. It is a neat and well-built town, of considerable trade, and with extensive muslin, flax-spinning, and weaving factories. Since the Union, it has ceased to be a parliamentary borough. The affairs of the town are administered by commissioners.

NEW'TOWN-LIMAVA'DY (Ir. *Leim-a-madha*, "The Dog's Leap"), a market-town of the county of Londonderry, Ireland, and 16 miles east-north-east of the town of Londonderry. Pop. in 1871, 2762. N.-L., in the period anterior to the establishment of English rule, was the seat of the powerful sept of the O'Cahans, or O'Kanes; and during the wars of the Revolution it was the scene of more than one struggle between the followers of James II. and those of William. Its chief importance at

present is as a centre of the flax trade, once the staple of that district, and again rising in importance. It possesses a town-hall, weaving factory, extensive flour-mills, markets, and brewery; union workhouse, Protestant church and other places of worship, and two comfortable hotels.

NEXT FRIEND is, in English Law, the name given to the person in whose name, or rather by whose agency, an infant—i. e., a person under the age of 21—sues in the courts of law and equity. The object is chiefly to have some party responsible for costs in case the infant fails in the action. In practice, the father, if alive, is usually the next friend, but any substantial person may be so. In the Court of Chancery, a married woman sues or appears by the intervention of a next friend, where she is personally interested.

NEY, Michel, a celebrated marshal of the first French empire, was the son of a cooper, and was born at Saarlouis, 10th January 1769. He was a non-commissioned officer in a hussar regiment when the Revolution began, and afterwards rapidly rose to high military rank. For the capture of Mannheim by a *coup de main*, he was made a general of division in 1799. He was interim commander of the army of the Rhine for a short time, during which he frustrated by a bold diversion an important movement of the Archduke Charles against Massena and the army of Switzerland. After the peace of Lunéville, Bonaparte, anxious to win N., with other republicans, to his party, brought about his marriage with a young friend of Hortense Beauharnais, and appointed him inspector-general of cavalry. On the establishment of the empire, he was made a marshal. In 1805, he stormed the intrenchments of Elchingen, and was created Duke of Elchingen. He afterwards rendered important services in the Tyrol; contributed much to the French successes of 1806 and 1807; and served in Spain with great ability in 1808 and 1809, till he was dismissed by Massena, the commander-in-chief, on a dispute about the plan of the campaign. Chagrined by this, and dissatisfied with Napoleon's despotism, he remained for some time inactive; but in 1812 received the command of the third *corps d'armée*, and greatly distinguished himself at Smolensk and the Moskva, in consequence of which he was created Prince of the Moskva. He also displayed great abilities in the French retreat. He had a principal part in the campaigns of 1813 and 1814, but after the capture of Paris, he urged the emperor to abdicate, and submitted to Louis XVIII. who loaded him with favors. On Napoleon's return from Elba, N. assured the king of his fidelity, and was sent against Napoleon at the head of 400 men; but finding the emperor to be received with general enthusiasm, and his own soldiers to be favorable to his cause, N. went over to his side. In the battle of Waterloo, he commanded the centre, and had five horses shot under him. After the capitulation of Paris, he yielded to the entreaties of his family to retire to Switzerland; but a costly Egyptian sabre, the gift of Napoleon, led to his being suspected by an official, and arrested. He was condemned to death for high treason, and was shot in the garden of the Luxembourg on 7th December 1815. He left three sons, who published his "Mémoires" (3 vols. Par. 1833).

N'GA'MI, Lake. The existence of lakes in the interior of Africa was vaguely known as far back as the days of Herodotus; and the earliest modern maps show at least half-a-dozen large and small, one of which is about the size, and very nearly in the position of that shallow reservoir of surface drainage which was discovered, or at least first visited by a European in 1849, when Dr Livingstone and Mr Osswell, who were aware of its existence from native report, reached its shores by a circuitous route from the Cape Colony. Although since ascertained to be of little importance in the physical geography of these regions, Lake N. was at first supposed to be in some way connected with the larger inland seas of Nyassa, Victoria Nyanza, and Tanganyika. It is situated between the 20th and 21st parallels of S. lat., and between the meridians 22° 10' and 23° 20' E. long., at a height of about 2500 feet above the level of the sea, and is connected by a series of sluggish anastomosing streams with the river-system of the Zambezi; its extent as well as depth varies with the fall of rain in the country to the north of it, but its average size may be taken at 70 miles long, by a breadth of 20 and a depth varying from 8 to 28 feet. In 1858, Lake N. was reached from the west coast near Walfish Bay by the traveller Andersson, and there is now a well-beaten route for traders between these two places, and a considerable quantity of ivory and ostrich feathers are annually collected in the neighborhood.

the lake. The principal characteristics of the region are rivers, with very sluggish current, and often flowing in different directions to and from the lake, large salt-pans and extensive dry flats, covered with dense bush, the haunt of elephants and other large animals.

In 1865, the well-known sportsman and traveller, F. Green, ascended the River Tonka, which flows into the northwest angle of Lake N., as far north as the town of Lebebe, in  $18^{\circ} 11'$  lat., and then supposed that a communication existed with the waters of Cuanene, a river of the west coast. If such is the case, it would be a curious phenomenon in physical geography, communicating, as we know Lake N. also does, with the Zambezi, a river of the east coast.

NGAN-KING, a large and wealthy city of China, the capital of the province of Ngan-whi. It stands on the left bank of the great river Yang-tze-Kiang, 190 miles south-west from Nankin. The surrounding country is highly cultivated, and very densely peopled. The mineral riches of the neighborhood are considerable. N. is a place of busy trade, great part of the goods intended for Nankin passing through the hands of its merchants. The trade is carried on by means of vessels on the river. Porcelain and cloth are among the principal articles of trade.

NIA'GARA, a river of North America, which flows from Lake Erie northwards into Lake Ontario. It is about 36 miles in length, and its descent from the level of the one lake to that of the other is about 334 feet. On issuing from Lake Erie, it is three-quarters of a mile broad; but as it flows on, it becomes several miles wide, making room for a number of islands, the largest of which, Grand Island, is 12 miles long, and from 2 to 7 broad. At the foot of Grand Island, which reaches within  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile of the *Falls of N.*, the river is contracted to a breadth of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles, and grows narrower as it proceeds. By this, and by the descent in the channel, which is about 60 feet in the mile above the Falls, are produced the swift currents known as the *Rapids*, in which the river, notwithstanding its great depth, is perpetually white with foam. At the Falls, which are 22 miles from Lake Erie, the river is divided by an island containing about 75 acres, called Goat Island; but in consequence of a bend in the channel, by far the larger portion of the water is sent down by the Canadian side. On this side, therefore, is the grander cataract which has been named the *Horseshoe Fall*, but no longer bears the name appropriately, as the precipice has been worn from a curved into a somewhat angular shape. This process of wearing away goes on gradually still, a large projection on the Canadian bank, known as the *Table Rock*, having partly fallen off in 1863. The Horseshoe Fall is above 600 yards in breadth, and about 154 feet in height. The water is so deep that it retains its green color for some distance below the brow of the precipice; and it rushes over with such force, that it is thrown about 50 feet from the foot of the cliff. One may thus, having donned an oil-skin dress, enter two or three yards behind the curved sheet of water; but the spray is so blinding, the din so deafening, and the current of air so strong, that it requires a tolerably calm nerve and firm foot. The separation caused by Goat Island leaves a large wall of rock between the Canadian and American Falls, the latter being again divided by an islet at a short distance from Goat Island. This fall is from eight to ten feet higher than the Horseshoe, but only about 220 yards broad. A little above the Fall, the channel is divided by Bath Island, which is connected by bridges with Goat Island and the American shore. A small tower, approached from Goat Island, has been built on a rock over the brow of the Horseshoe Fall; and from this the finest view on the American side made be obtained, the Table Rock on the Canadian side giving the completest view of the entire cataract. The Falls can also be seen from below on both sides, and every facility is given for viewing them from all the best points, while magnificent hotels, Canadian and American, offer their inducements to the tourist to stay till he has received the full influence of the scenery. The river is crossed about 200 or 300 yards below the Falls, where it is 1200 yards broad. The current is lessened for about a mile, but increases again as the channel becomes narrower and the descent greater. Between three and four miles below the Falls, a stratum of rock runs across the direct course of the river, which, after forming a vast circular basin, with an impassable whirlpool, is forced away at right angles to its old channel. The celebrated wire suspension-bridge for the Great Western Railway, with a road beneath for vehicles and foot-passengers, crosses the

river  $1\frac{1}{2}$  mile below the Fall; it is 800 feet long, 40 broad, and 200 feet above the surface of the water.

**NIAGARA**, chief town of Lincoln County, in the Canadian province of Ontario, is situated on Lake Ontario, at the mouth of the river Niagara, and is distant by water from Toronto 86 miles. Burned down in December 1813 by the American General McClure on his retreat, it was afterwards rebuilt, and promised to be a flourishing town; but its trade has fallen off within the last few years, and its population has decreased to about 3000.

**NIAXA** (*Bos brachicheros*), the wild ox or buffalo of tropical Western Africa, is in size and weight about equal to the smaller breeds of British oxen, but of greater strength. The head is rather small, the muzzle black, the ears long and pointed, and fringed with beautiful silky hair, several inches long. The horns are 10 or 12 inches long, curved backwards, and sharply pointed. The animal is gracefully proportioned, having nothing of the clumsiness of the common buffalo. The body is covered with a coat of thin red hair. The tail is tufted at the extremity with black hair several inches long. Herds of these oxen were seen by Du Chaillu in the open or prairie lands to the south of the mouth of the Ogobai. They are shy and fierce; if wounded, they turn upon the hunter with terrible fury. No attempt seems yet to have been made to domesticate this animal, which is probably very capable of it, and might be found more suitable than other oxen for warm climates.

**NIA'S**, an important island belonging to Holland, lies to the west of Sumatra, in  $0^{\circ} 18' 54'' - 1^{\circ} 35' n.$  lat., and  $97^{\circ} - 98^{\circ} e.$  long., and has an area of about 1675 square miles. In 1851, when the Dutch took complete possession of the island, the population was reckoned at 170,000. There are several places where ships can anchor and take in provisions, water, &c. On the east coast is the village Nias, and on the west, Silorongang. Little islands and coral reefs lie here and there on the coast, which in some places is steep, while mountain-chains run from the south-east to the north-west. There is a greater breadth of excellent farming grounds than the population, reduced by internal wars and the exportation of slaves, can properly cultivate. They grow rice, cocoanuts, bananas, tobacco, sugar-canies, &c., and annually about 110,000 lbs. of pepper. Cattle and horses have been imported, and they pay great attention to the raising of pigs and fowls. Formerly, about 500 Niasers were carried away annually as slaves to Batavia and other places, and though this traffic has been in a great measure suppressed, it is still to some extent carried on.

The Niasers are of the Malay race, but fairer than the Malays usually are. They are gentle, sober, and peaceful, remarkably ingenious in handicraft, ornamenting their houses with wood-curving, forging arms, &c. The women labor in the fields, the children weave mats, while the men look after the live-stock, and hunt the deer and wild swine. They worship a superior deity, and fear a powerful one, who punishes them if they do evil. Polygamy is permitted, but is rare. The gift to the bride's family is from 60 to 500 dollars. Divorce is not allowed, and adultery is punished by the death of both parties. Dead bodies are placed in coffins above the ground, and creepers and flowering shrubs planted, which speedily grow up and cover them. Trade is on the increase.—See "Malayan Miscellanies," vol. ii.; "Het Eiland Nias, door" H. J. Donius; Crawford's "Descriptive Dictionary" (London, 1856); "Tyd-chrift voor Ned. Indië," 1854, 1860, &c.

**NIBBY**, Antonio, a Roman archaeologist of high celebrity, was born in 1792. He was one of those who, following in the footsteps of Winckelmann, made an elaborately minute investigation of the remains of antiquity their special study. The first work that made him known was his translation of Pausanias, with antiquarian and critical notes. In 1820, he was appointed Professor of Archaeology in the University of Rome. In the same year appeared his edition of Nardini's "Roma Antica;" and in 1837—1838, his learned and admirable "Analisi Storico-topografico-antiquaria della carta de Contorni di Roma," to which was added (1838—1840) a description of the city of Rome itself. Among his other writings, may be mentioned his "Le Mur di Roma disegnate da W. Gel." and a large number of valuable treatises on the form and arrangement of the earliest Christian churches, the Circus of Caracalla, the Temple of Fortune at Praeneste, the graves of the Horatii and the Curiatii, &c. N. d. d. December 1889.

NIBELUNGENLIED, or "*Nibelunge Not*," as the words are written in the oldest manuscripts, is one of the most finished specimens of the genuine epic of Germany belonging to the middle ages. There exist twenty more or less perfect manuscript copies of this curious poem, the earliest of which belong to the beginning of the 13th c., from which period till the middle of the 16th c. it enjoyed the greatest popularity among Germans of all classes. Nothing certain is known of the author or authors of the work beyond the fact, that it was put into its present form by a wandering minstrel in Austria about or prior to the year 1210, which is the date of the oldest accredited manuscript. According to W. Grimm and Lachmann's critical analysis of the poem, it is in itself a compilation of pre-existing songs and rhapsodies, strung together into one whole upon a plan remarkable for its grand simplicity, although less skill is shewn in some instances in the manner in which the several parts are connected. In the more authentic manuscripts the poem consists of only twenty parts, and it is conjectured that the latter portions of the epic, which are given only in some of the texts, as that of St Gall, are the composition of later compilers. The epic cycle embraced in the N. may be more properly regarded as the fusion of the history of the mythical people, called in the poem the Nibelungen, with five leading groups of myths, in which are incorporated the adventures of some of the most universally popular personages belonging to the semi-historic myths of medieval German folk-lore, as, for instance, the hero Siegfried with his mantle of invisibility, and the lovely Icelandic heorine Brunhilt; King Günther of Burgundy, and his fair sister, Kriemhilt, the wife of Siegfried; Haco of Norway, Dietrich (Theodoric the Great, king of the Ostrogoths) of Berne (Verona), and Etzel (Attila), king of the Huns. The loves and feuds, and the stormy lives and violent deaths of these national heroes and heroines, are skilfully entwined in the N., and artistically made to centre round the mythical treasure of the Nibelungen, which, after the murder of Siegfried, who had brought it from the far north, is secretly buried by his murderer Haco beneath the Rhine, where it still remains. The poem, in its rude but strict versification, tells the tale of Kriemhilt's vengeance for her husband's death with a passionate earnestness that carries the sympathies of the reader with it, until the interest culminates in the catastrophe of the fierce battle between the Burgundians and Huns at the court of Etzel, whose hand Kriemhilt has accepted, the better to accomplish her purposes of revenge. The tale of horrors fitly closes with the murder of Kriemhilt herself, after she has satisfied her vengeance by slaying with Siegfried's sword his murderer Haco. This tale, which seemed to echo back the clash of arms and strife of passion which characterised the early periods of German history, kept a firm hold on the imaginations of the people till the taste for polemic writings fostered, if not created at the period of the Reformation, caused this as well as many other treasures of folk-lore to be almost lost sight of and forgotten. Attention was, however, again drawn to it in the 18th c., by the publication of detached portions of the poem by Bodmer, "Chriemhilden-Rache" (Zurich, 1751), and by Müller in his "Sammlung deutscher Gedichte aus dem 12—14 Jahrh." (Berl. 1782); but it was not till comparatively recent times that the value of the work in an historical and philological point of view was recognised. Lachmann, who had submitted the poem to a critical examination, made known the result of his investigations in an edition published at Berlin, 1826, and again in his treatise "Zu den Nibelungen und zur Klage" (Berl. 1836). W. Grimm has also given a comprehensive analysis of the poem in his "Deutschen Heldensage" (Göttr. 1829). Among the various translations into modern German, those of Simrock (Berl. 1827) and Pfitzer (Tüb. 1842) are the best. All the manuscripts of the N. comprise another poem under the title of "Die Klage," which treats of the burial of the heroes who fell in the conflict at Etzel's court, and the laments which were composed in commemoration of that event. It is of greater antiquity than the N., and, like it, the work of an unknown author. A critical analysis of the N. will be found in Carlyle's "Miscellaneous Essays."

NICÆ'A. See NICE.

NICARAGUA, a republic of Central America; bounded on the n. by the republic of Honduras, on the w. by the Caribbean Sea, on the s. by the republic of Costa Rica, and on the e. by the Pacific; lat.  $10^{\circ} 45' - 15^{\circ}$  n.; long.  $80^{\circ} 20' - 87^{\circ} 30'$ ; area, about 48,000 square miles; pop. estimated at 250,000, of whom about 80,000 are

**whites**, 10,000 negroes, the rest Indians and Mestizos. N. is traversed by two ranges of mountains—the western, which follows the direction of the coast-line, at a distance of from 10 to 20 miles from the Pacific; and the eastern (a part of the great range of the Cordilleras), which runs nearly parallel to it, and sends off several spurs towards the Caribbean Sea. The former is generally high and volcanic, but sinks at times almost to the level of the plains. Between the two ranges lies a great interior basin containing the lakes of N. (q. v.) and Managua. The principal rivers are the Rio Coco, or Segovia, forming part of the boundary between Honduras and N.; the Escoundido, or Blewfields; and the San Juan, all of which flow into the Caribbean Sea. The eastern coast of N. is called the Mosquito Coast. The country is in many places densely wooded—the most valuable trees being mahogany, logwood, Nicaragua wood, cedar, and Brazil wood. The pastures are splendid, and support vast herds of cattle. The chief products are sugar-cane (softer and juicier than the Asiatic variety), cacao, cotton, coffee, indigo, tobacco, maize, and rice, with nearly all the fruits, &c. of the tropics, plantains, bananas, tomatoes, bread-fruit, arrow-root, chitons, oranges, limes, lemons, pine-apples, guavas, &c. The chief vegetable exports are sarsaparilla, aloes, ipecacuanha, ginger, copal, gum-arabic, caoutchouc, &c. The northern part of N. is rich in minerals, gold, silver, copper, iron, and lead, but the mines are not so carefully worked now as under the Spaniards. The incessant political distractions of the country have notoriously all but destroyed the material prosperity of the country. The trade is chiefly with Great Britain. In 1873, the exports amounted to 1,441,505 dollars; the imports to 1,536,090 dollars. The seat of government is Managua, with 8000 inhabitants; the largest town and former capital is St Leon, with a population of 25,000. The town of N. (q. v.) has a pop. of 8500.

N. was discovered in 1521 by Gil Gonzales de Avila, and conquered by Pedro Arias de Avila, the governor of Panama in 1522. In 1821—the great year of revolution in Central America—it threw off allegiance to Spain, and after a desperate and bloody struggle, secured its independence by the help of the "liberals" of San Salvador. N. now became the second state in the federal republic of Central America, but on the dissolution of the union in 1839, became an independent republic. In 1847—1848, a dispute broke out between N. and Great Britain about the Mosquito Coast, which led to some hostilities, and was only finally settled in 1860. Meanwhile, in 1855, a civil war had broken out between the so-called "Conservatives" and "Liberals," which resulted in the victory of the latter, who were, however, obliged to call in the help of the since notorious Colonel William Walker (see **Filibusters**).

By the constitution of 19th August 1858, the republic of N. is governed by a president, who is elected by universal suffrage, and holds office for four years. There are two legislative chambers—the Senate and the House of Representatives. Liberty of speech and of the press exists, but is not absolutely guaranteed. The Roman Catholic religion, however, is the only one publicly tolerated, but the services of other religious bodies may be privately performed.

**NICARAGUA.** **LAKE** (native, *Cocibolca*), a sheet of fresh-water in the republic of the same name, 110 miles long, and from 30 to 50 broad. Its elevation above the Pacific, from which it is separated by a low range of hills—at one point only 48 feet higher than the lake itself—is little more than 100 feet. The principal rivers flowing into it are the Muyales and Malacoloi on the north, and the Frio on the south; the only one flowing out is the San Juan (formerly *Usquendero*), which unites it with the Caribbean Sea. Its islands are numerous, lying mostly in groups; the principal are Ometepe, Zapatero (uninhabited, but with extensive ruins and monolithic idols), Sakanamani, and the Corales. It has at last been determined to cut an inter-oceanic ship-canal through the state of Nicaragua, the route being by way of the San Juan River and Lake Nicaragua. The whole distance by this route from ocean to ocean is 180½ miles; and, full advantage being taken of lake and river, 61½ miles of the total length will fall to the share of the new canal.

**NICARA'GUA**, or Ri'vas, a town of the republic of Nicaragua (q. v.), Central America, on the western shore of the Lake Nicaragua (q. v.), 85 miles south-south-east from Granada. It is not a place of much commerce, the commerce of the lake being chiefly carried on by Granada. Pop. 8500.

**NICA'STRO**, a town of Southern Italy, in the province of Calabria, is most beau-

tifully situated west of the Apennines, on the margin of the coast plains, and commanding views of the sea, 24 miles south of Cosenza. It is the see of an archbishop. There are hot springs in the vicinity. Pop. stated at 7000 and 10,200.

NICCOLA PISANO, a distinguished sculptor of Pisa, to the influence of whose works the rise or restoration of sculpture in connection with Gothic architecture is mainly attributable. There is no record of the date of his birth, but from an inscription on a celebrated fountain in Perugia, designed by him and executed by his son Giovanni, it is evident that he was born at the beginning of the 13th century. His earliest work is supposed to be the "Deposition" over one of the doors of the façade of the cathedral at Lucca, dated 1238. He worked on the principle of studying nature, modified or corrected by the ideal of antique sculpture; and it is said that he first adopted this principle from the sculpture on an ancient sarcophagus brought from Greece in the ships of Pisa; but though most of the finest specimens of Greek sculpture were not discovered till long after N.'s time, he must have had an opportunity of studying many important remains on the various classic ruins with which Italy abounds. This sculptor's reputation is supported by three important works, which remain and are still admired for their excellence—the pulpit of the baptistery at Pisa, the "Area" or shrine of St Dominic for the church of that saint at Bologna, and the pulpit of the cathedral at Siena. The first of these was finished in 1280, and is reckoned the most elegant pulpit in Italy. It is of white marble, six-sided, supported by seven Corinthian columns, and adorned with five bas-reliefs of subjects from the New Testament. The second work, the "Area" of St Dominic, is one of even greater extent. It is composed of six large bas-reliefs, delineating the six principal events in the legend of St Dominic, and is ornamented with statues of our Saviour, the Virgin, and the four doctors of the church. The operculum or lid was added about 200 years afterwards. The subjects on the pulpit at Siena, the third of these works, are the same as those on that at Pisa, with the substitution of the "Flight into Egypt" and the "Massacre of the Innocents" for the "Presentation"; and the enlargement of the concluding composition, the "Last Judgment." In these compositions there is great felicity of invention and grouping, truth of expression, and grace in the attitudes and draperies; and in that of the "Last Judgment" the boldness displayed in the naked figures, twisted and contorted into every imaginable attitude, is wonderful, and evinces the skill with which N. drew on the antique and on nature. But it must be admitted that there is a degree of confusion or overfulness in the grouping, and that the heads of his figures are often large in proportion to the bodies; faults incidental to all early efforts. In this last work, it appears by the contract for its execution, that N. was assisted by his scholars Lapo and Arnolfo, and his son Giovanni; and this accounts for a certain feebleness that may be observed in portions of it. He died at Pisa, in 1276 or 1277, and was buried in the Campo Santo. N.'s influence on art extended widely; his pupils Arnolfo and Lapo executed numerous works at Rome, Siena, and other cities. His son and heir in reputation, though not his equal in talent, Giovanni Pisano, was constantly engaged on works of importance; in Pisa, where the Campo Santo (for he was also an architect) was erected from his designs; in Naples, which he visited on the invitation of Charles I. of Anjou; at Arezzo, where he executed the marble shrine of St Donato for the cathedral; at Orvieto, the bas-reliefs on the *facciata* of the Duomo, by many ascribed to N., being by him; at Pistoja, where he executed the pulpit, &c. The year of his death is not ascertained; it was probably about 1320. After Giovanni's death, the Pisan school split into two principal branches. Florence and Siena; that of Naples may also be reckoned a branch, from the influence exercised over it by Giovanni.—ANDREA PISANO, the ablest of Giovanni's pupils, was called to Florence to execute in marble the statues, bas-relief, &c., designed by Giotto in ornamenting the cathedral of S. Maria del Fiore, then in course of erection. The talent he displayed soon raised him to a high position and important employment. He executed numerous statues for the façade of the cathedral, and a bronze gate for the baptistery, of very great excellence. This gate still exists, along with the later and still more celebrated gates of Ghiberti. Under the influence of Giotto's genius, he became completely Giottesque in thought and style; and his works bear so distinctly the impress of that master-mind, that the design of many of them, and particularly the baptistery gate, are ascribed to Giotto. He died in 1345, aged 76. See Vasari; "Christian Art," by

Lord Lindsay; Agincourt, "Davia Memorie Istoriche;" Rosati, "Storia, &c.;" Cicognara (tom. i.), "Monumenti Sepolcrali della Toscana."

NICCOLINI, Giovanni Batista, a distinguished modern poet, was born in 1785, in the vicinity of Pisa, of a noble but impoverished family. N.'s first literary efforts were full of high promise of the classical and antique beauties which characterise his finest compositions, and in 1810 he was crowned by the Crusca Academy. Through the influence of the queen of Etruria, he was appointed secretary of the Academy of Fine Arts, where he delivered to the young artists lectures on history and mythology; but on the fall of the Bonaparte sovereigns, this post was withdrawn from the poet. In 1805, the Grand Duke Ferdinand appointed him librarian in the Pitti Palace, an office he resigned in order to escape the servility of court dependence. By the death of a relative, he acquired wealth and the power of exclusively devoting himself to literature, and published several much-admired essays and lectures; and in 1827 appeared his noble work, "Antonio Foscarini." In 1844, N. published anonymously his best poem—"Arnoldo da Brescia"—and nothing finer has been written in modern Italian, whether it be viewed as a classical creation, full of life and poetry, or as a work of glowing patriotism. N. lived in the enjoyment of fame and honors to a ripe old age, and died at Florence in 1861.

NICE, or Nicæa, formerly a city of Bithynia, in Asia Minor, situated on the eastern shore of Lake Ascania. It was built, or rather rebuilt (for an older town had existed on its site), by Antigonus, the son of Philip (316 B.C.), and received the name of Antigonæ, which Lysimachus changed to Nicæa, in honor of his wife. It was a handsome town, and of great importance in the time of the Roman and Byzantine emperors; all the streets crossed each other at right angles, and from a magnificent monument in the centre the four gates of the city were visible. It is famous in ecclesiastical history for two Councils held in it, the First and Seventh Ecumenical Councils. The FIRST COUNCIL OF N. was held 325 A.D., and was convened by the Emperor Constantine, in concert, according to Roman Catholic historians, with the Roman pontiff, for the purpose of defining the questions raised in the Arian (q. v.) controversy. The details of the proceedings, so far as regards Arius, will be found in that article. The supporters of Arius at first are said to have numbered upwards of twenty; but ultimately the decree condemning him was subscribed by the whole body of the Council, the number of dissentients being, according to the highest computation, only five, while the most probable account reduces it to two. The NICENE CREED adopted in this Council forms the subject of a separate article. In addition to the Arian question, the Council of N. also deliberated on a schism, called the Meletian Schism, which at that time divided the church of Egypt, and the particulars of which have formed a subject of recent controversy. The decree of N. appears to have been founded on a compromise, but did not effectually suppress the schism. The decree of N. on the celebration of Easter was of wider application, and met with universal acceptance, the few recusants being henceforward called Quarto-decimans (q. v.). This Council also enacted twenty canons of discipline. For a minute and picturesque description of this council, see Dean Stanley's "History of the Eastern Church."—The SECOND COUNCIL OF N., called also the Seventh Ecumenical Council, was assembled under the Empress Irene (787), who was regent during the minority of her son Constantine, for the purpose of reconsidering the subject of Images. The tenor of the decree on Images is detailed under that head. In the West, the question of the acceptation of this council was the subject of considerable controversy, arising, in great measure, from a grossly erroneous Latin translation of the acts, which for a time obtained extensive circulation.

NICE (Ital. Nizza), chief town, since 1860, of the department of the Alpes Maritimes, France, is situated on both sides of the river Paglione, 100 miles south-southwest of Turin, in lat.  $43^{\circ} 42' \text{ n.}$ , and long.  $7^{\circ} 17' \text{ e.}$  Pop. (1872) 42,863. It consists of three principal parts—the Quartier de la Croix de Marbre, or New Town (on the right bank of the Paglione), the Old Town, and the Port. The first of these is much frequented by foreigners, particularly English (whence its name of "English town"). It is close upon the river, has a handsome quay filled with gay shops, and a splendid square called the Jardin Public. Two bridges over the Paglione connect it with the Old or Upper Town, which extends back to the foot of a hill called the Castle J'

The Old Town is excessively dirty, and has narrow, stinking streets, with macaroni and confectionary shops, grocery establishments, slaughter-houses, &c. The Port, almost separated from it by the Castle Hill, is crowded with a seafaring population. The harbor admits vessels drawing fifteen feet of water, but is difficult of entrance. The Castle Hill, an isolated mass of limestone 800 feet high, receiving its name from having been formerly crowned by a strong castle, now in ruins, is laid out in public gardens, and affords an extensive and splendid prospect out to sea. The chief public buildings are in the Corso, or in the adjoining streets, in one of which there is an English library and reading-room. There is an Episcopalian and also a Presbyterian church in N. and an English cemetery. The most attractive promenade in the Old Town is the *Terrace*, from 15 to 20 feet high, erected as a protection to the town against a stormy sea. But the most agreeable and fashionable drive and promenade is the *Promenade des Anglais*, extending for a mile along the shore from the right bank of the Paglione, and skirted on one side by elegant villas and hotels. Beggars are numerous, owing, doubtless, to the great influx of visitors. Fine as the usual winter and spring weather of N. is, it is exposed to the north wind, or *Mistral*, which during these seasons often brings a temperature which in England would be considered cool, or even cold, in April or October. The *Quartier Carabacel* is the most sheltered part of the place, and therefore the best for an invalid. Dust and bad drainage are the drawbacks to the amenity of N.; but this is true with regard to most of the places of winter resort in the south. The mean January and February temperature is  $47^{\circ}$ , equal to that of April in England; March is  $52^{\circ}$ ; April  $58^{\circ}$ , about the same as June in England, or July in Scotland.

The ancient Ligurian town of Niscea, founded, it is said, by a colony of Phocaeans from Mysallia (Marseille), became subject to Rome in the 2d c. B.C. It probably occupied the Castle Hill, rather than the site of the present city. Subsequently it passed into the hands of the Goths, Burgundians, Visigoths, kings and counts of Arles, the Angevine sovereigns of Naples, and the Dukes of Savoy (1388), in whose family it remained till 1860, when it was ceded to France.

NI'CENE CREED, a detailed statement of doctrine, which forms part of the liturgy of the Roman, Oriental, and Anglican Churches, and is also received as a formulary by many of the other Protestant communions. It was drawn up principally by Hosius of Corduba, and is called by the name of the Council of Nice, although nearly one-half of its present clauses formed no part of the original Nicene formulary; while, on the other hand, that document contained a series of anathemas condemnatory of specific statements of Arius, which find no place in the present so-called Nicene creed. The distinctive characteristic of the creed drawn up in the Council was the word *Homoousios*. (See HOMOOUSIAN.) Its clauses correspond (except in a few verbal details) with those of the modern formulary as far as the words "I believe in the Holy Ghost," after which follow the anathemas referred to above. The remaining clauses of the present creed, although they seem to have been in public use earlier, were formally added in the First Council of Constantinople (381), with the exception of the clause, "And from the Son," which was introduced in various churches of the West in the 5th and 6th centuries; and ultimately its formal embodiment in the creed, has continued a subject of controversy with the Greeks to the present day. See GREEK CHURCH. This creed appears to have been used in the public liturgy from the latter part of the 5th century. Its position in the liturgy varies in the different rites. In the Roman liturgy it is read on all Sundays, feasts of our Lord, of the blessed Virgin Mary, apostles' days, and all the principal festivals, but not on week-days, or the minor saints' days.

Several Arian creeds, in opposition to that of Nice, were drawn up at Sirmium and elsewhere (see LIBERIUS), but none of them met with general acceptance.

NICHE, a recess formed in a wall to contain a statue or some ornamental figure. In classic architecture, the niches are generally square recesses with canopies formed by small pediments. In Gothic architecture, the niche is one of the most frequent and characteristic features; the doorways, buttresses, and every part of the buildings being in many instances ornamented with niches and statues in endless variety.

NICHOLAS, the name of five among the Roman pontiffs, of whom the following alone appear to call for separate notice.—N. I. was born of a noble Roman

family, and on the death of Benedict III., in 858, N. was elected to succeed him, and was consecrated in St Peter's Church, in the presence of Ludvig II., emperor of Germany. The earliest incident of importance of his pontificate is his conflict with Photius (q. v.), who had been intruded into the see of Constantinople after the deprivation of Ignatius. N. demanded from the emperor the restoration of Ignatius, as well as the withdrawal of certain attempted invasions of the jurisdiction of the West. On the refusal of his demands, N. excommunicated Photius (see GREEK CHURCH), and that patriarch, in return, assembled a council at Constantinople, and retorting upon his rival the same sentence, alleged that with the translation of the seat of civil sovereignty from Rome to Constantinople the ecclesiastical supremacy was likewise transferred. The Emperor Michael supporting Photius in his claim, N. failed to command submission to his sentence; nor was it till the following reign, that of Basil the Macedonian, that Photius was deposed, and Ignatius restored to his see. Meanwhile, however, N. had been embroiled with the Emperor Ludvig. The pope had been appealed to by the unjustly divorced wife of Ludvig's younger brother, Lothaire, king of Lorraine, and had appointed legates to inquire into and report upon the case; and the legates having exceeded their powers by giving a sentence in favor of Lothaire, the pope declared their sentence null, and excommunicated them. Ludvig espoused their cause, and marched his troops to Rome, in order to enforce satisfaction. After some hostile demonstrations, the emperor, terrified, it is said, by his own sudden illness, and some fatalities which befell his followers, desisted from the enterprise, and withdrew his troops. Lothaire was forced to make submission; the decree of N. was enforced, and Thentberga was formally reinstated in her position as a wife and queen. N. died in 868—NICHOLAS V. was originally called Thomas Parentucelli. Born at Pisa in 1398, he was educated at Florence and Bologna, and having fixed his residence in the latter city, he was eventually named bishop of that see by the pope, Eugenius IV. During the troubled period of the Councils of Basel and Florence, and in the difficult negotiations with the German and other churches which arose therefrom, he conducted himself with such ability and prudence, that on the death of Eugenius IV. he was chosen to succeed him on March 6, 1447. At this time the anti-pope, Felix V., still maintained himself, although supported by a very small party; But N. prevailed on him to abdicate, and thus restored the peace of the church in 1449. In the judgment of the literary world, however, the great distinction of the pontificate of N. lies in the eminent service which he rendered to that revival of letters which dates from his age. The comparative repose in which he found the world at his accession, enabled him to employ, for the discovery and collection of the scattered master-pieces of ancient learning, measures which were practically beyond the resources of his predecessors. He despatched agents to all the great centres, both of the East and of the West, to purchase or to copy every important Greek and Latin manuscript. The number collected by him was above 5000. He enlarged and improved the Roman university. He remodelled, and may almost be said to have founded, the Vatican Library. He caused translations to be made into Latin of most of the important Greek classics, sacred and profane. He invited to Rome the most eminent scholars of the world, and extended his especial patronage to those Greeks whom the troubles of their native country drove to seek a new home in the West. Alarmed by the progress of the Turkish arms in Asia, he endeavored to arouse the Christian princes of Europe to the duty of succoring their brethren of the East; but the age of enthusiasm was past, and he was forced to look on inactively at the fall of Constantinople in 1453. This event, by forcing a large number of learned Greeks to repair to Italy and other countries of the West, contributed powerfully to that progress of learning which N. had deeply at heart; but he scarcely lived to enjoy this result, having died two years later, in 1455, at the comparatively early age of 57. He must not be confounded with an anti-pope of the same name, Peter de Corbaro who was set up, in 1329, by Ludvig of Bavaria, in antagonism to John XXII. (q. v.).

NICHOLAS I., more properly Nikolai Paulovitch, emperor of Russia, was the third son of Paul I., and was born at St Petersburg, 7th July 1796. He was very carefully educated under the eye of his mother, a princess of Wurtemberg, and subsequently devoted his attention to military studies and political economy, without,

however, giving evidence of any natural capacity for these subjects. He visited England and other European countries in 1816, and in the same year made a tour through the Russian provinces. On 13th July 1817, he married Frederika-Louisa-Charlotte-Wilhelmina, the eldest daughter of Frederick William III. of Prussia, and lived in domestic retirement till the death of Alexander I. (December 1825), when, owing to the resignation of his elder brother Constantine, he succeeded to the throne of Russia. A long-prepared military conspiracy broke out immediately after his accession, which he suppressed with great vigor and cruelty. Capital punishment, which had been abolished by the Empress Elizabeth, was revived, for the purpose of inflicting it upon the leaders of the insurrection. The rebels were hunted down with merciless energy, and in no case, even after the rebellion ceased to be in the least degree dangerous, was their punishment commuted. Instead of pursuing the course upon which Alexander had entered—cultivating the mind of the nation, so as to base his government upon education and intelligence—N., after a brief ebullition of reformatory zeal, reverted to the ancient policy of the Czars, absolute despotism, supported by mere military power. His first great measure, the codification of Russian law, was commenced in 1827, and completed in 1846.

Soon after his accession, a war with Persia commenced, but it was concluded on 29th February 1828, by the peace of Turkmanchay, which gave a considerable extent of territory to Russia. In the same year he entered upon a war with Turkey, in which victory, though at enormous cost, constantly attended his arms, and the peace of Adrianople (q. v.) obtained for Russia another increase of territory, the free navigation of the Dniester, with the right of free passage between the Black and Mediterranean Seas. The political movements of 1830, in the west of Europe, were followed by a national rising of the Poles, which was suppressed after a desolating contest of nine months, in which the utmost efforts of the whole military resources of Russia were required. N. punished the rebellion by converting the kingdom of Poland into a mere Russian province, and strove to extinguish the Polish nationality. This policy, however, was viewed with great dissatisfaction throughout Europe, and the vanquished Poles were everywhere regarded with general sympathy. Russia, by N.'s mode of government, became more and more separated from the fellowship of the western nations. Intellectual activity was, as far as possible, restrained to things merely practical, education limited to preparation for the public service, the press was placed under the strictest censorship, and every means used to bring the whole mind of the nation under official guidance. His Pan-Slavism (q. v.) also prompted him to Russify as much as possible all the inhabitants of the empire, and to convert Roman Catholics and Protestants to the Russian Greek Church, of which the Czar is the head. The independence of the mountaineers of the Caucasus was inconsistent with his schemes, and war was consequently waged against them with the greatest energy and perseverance, although with little success, and at the cost of immense sacrifices both of money and lives. The extension of British influence in Central Asia was also viewed by him with alarm, and was attempted to be counteracted by various means, amongst which was the expedition for the conquest of Khiva in 1839, which failed so signally (see KHIVA). Between 1844 and 1846, he visited England, Austria, and Italy. During the political storm of 1848–1849 he abstained from interference, watching, however, for an opportunity of doing so with advantage to Russian interests. The opportunity was at last found in the request of the emperor of Austria for his assistance to quell the Hungarian Insurrection. This good service rendered Austria, as he thought, a faithful and firm ally. He succeeded at the same time in drawing closer the bonds of alliance between the Russian and Prussian monarchies, a proceeding fraught with the most mischievous consequences to the latter power. The re-establishment of the French empire still further tended to confirm these alliances, and led N. to think that the time had at length come for carrying into effect the hereditary Russian scheme for the absorption of Turkey; but the unexpected opposition of Britain and France, and his own invincible repugnance to give up his long-planned scheme of conquest, brought on the Crimean War, during the course of which he died at St Petersburg, March 2, 1855, of atrophy of the lungs; but his death was undoubtedly hastened by chagrin at the repeated defeats which his arms sustained, and by over-anxiety and the excessive labor he underwent to repair his losses. He was remarkable for temperance, frugality, and patriotism.

but equally so for vanity and ostentation. He was fanatically beloved by his Russian subjects, and was at the same time regarded by them with feelings of awe, a tribute to his lofty stature and imperial deportment, which gave him the most intense pleasure. This extreme vanity seems, to some extent, to have affected his mind, and to have been partly the cause of his political blundering towards the close of his reign.

**NICHOLSON**, John, British general, one of the most distinguished of the later school of Indian soldiers, was born in Dublin, 11th December 1821. His father, a physician of considerable reputation in that city, died when the boy had just completed his 8th year. By his mother, a woman of strong sense and much practical piety, he was carefully educated; and from her he seems to have inherited or imbibed a certain religious gravity and earnestness of character which was early noted in him, and continued to distinguish him through life. Through the influence of her brother, Sir James Weir Hogg, an Indian cadetship was obtained for him; at the age of 16, he arrived in Calcutta, and was soon after posted to the 21st Native Bengal Infantry, then stationed at Ferozepore. In 1840, his regiment was ordered to Ghizni in Afghanistan, where two years after, in the disastrous insurrection which avenged our occupation of the country, it was compelled to surrender to the enemy. After a time of miserable captivity, he regained his liberty, and joined the relieving army under General Pollock, to be saddened immediately after by the death, in action, of his brother Alexander. A period of inactivity ensued, during which he was stationed at Meerut, doing duty as adjutant of his regiment. On the breaking out of the Sikh war in 1845, he served in the campaign on the Sutlej, and was present at the battle of Ferozeshah, though, as attached to the commissariat department, without special opportunity of distinguishing himself. After the cessation of the war, through the recommendation of Colonel (afterwards Sir Henry) Lawrence, N., now a lieutenant, was appointed assistant to the resident at the conquered capital, Lahore, and thus fairly transferred to the political branch of the service, in which most of his future time was passed. But shortly, with the outbreak of the Sikh rebellion in 1848, there came an interlude of military activity, in which he greatly distinguished himself. To N.'s daring and promptitude was due the preservation to us of the important fortress of Attock; and soon after, his success at the Margalla Pass, in intercepting and defeating a large body of the insurgents, brought his name prominently before the world. Throughout the struggle which followed, he rendered important service; and at the great battles of Chillianwalla and Gujerat successively, he earned the special approval of Lord Gough, to whom he was immediately attached.

The Punjab having finally become a British province, Captain N. was appointed a deputy-commissioner under the Lahore Board, of which Sir Henry Lawrence was president. He had now been nearly ten years in India; his strength was somewhat shaken by arduous service, and various illnesses which from time to time had assailed him; and above all, he was anxious to visit and console his widowed mother, then prostrated by the death in India, by an accident, of William, his younger brother. In 1850, accordingly, he took his furlough, and returned home, taking Constantinople *en route*, and visiting, with an eye to professional instruction, the capitals of all the great military powers of the continent. On his return to India, he was again appointed by Lawrence a deputy-commissioner in the Punjab, and for five years subsequently his work lay among the savage tribes of the frontier. His success in bringing them under thorough subjection to law and order, was something marvellous; and such were the impressions of fear and reverence wrought by the force and massive personality of the man, that he became among these rude populations, under the title of "Nikkul Seyn," the object of a curious kind of hero-worship. So far was this carried, that a sect actually arose, of Nikkul-Seynes, who consecrated him as their Guru (or spiritual guide), and persisted—despite of severe floggings regularly inflicted by the worthy man, indisposed to accept of divine honors—in flailing at his feet, and making him an object of express adoration.

With the outbreak of the great mutiny in 1857 came N.'s supreme opportunity, and the brief career of glorious achievements in which he developed in the eye of the world the full power and splendor of his military genius. In the saving of the Punjab, virtually India was saved to us; and under Sir John Lawrence, who had succeeded his brother, Sir Henry, N.—though not without noble coadjutors to

divide with him the honor—perhaps did more than any other single man to hold firm our grasp of the Punjab. He it was who suggested the formation of the famous movable column, by which mainly the work was done, and presided over its organisation. Shortly, he was appointed to command it; and in his dealings with the suspected regiments of sepoys, he exhibited a particular combination of boldness with subtlety, discretion, and astuteness, scarcely too much to be admired. At Trimmu Ghant, on the 12th and 14th of July, he brought to bay, and nearly utterly annihilated, a large force of the declared rebels. Things thus made safe behind him, he marched to reinforce the army of General Wilson, engaged in the siege of Delhi, arriving in camp on August 7. His presence and counsels gave new impulse to the operations; and in every way he strove, with fiery and impatient energy, to expedite the delayed assault. A strong body of the enemy having tried to make their way into the British rear, to N. was assigned the task of intercepting and bring them to battle. This he achieved on August 24, near Nujuffghur—under circumstances of extreme difficulty, in the most masterly manner surmounted—obtaining a most brilliant result in the complete ruin and dispersion of the mutineers. When the assault on the city was at last ordered, General N. (for to this rank he had now attained) was selected for the post of honor; and on the morning of September 14, he led the first column of attack. After the troops had forced their way into the city, an unforeseen check occurred, and N., ever in front, exposed himself in the most fearless manner to animate his men to advance. Conspicuous by his towering stature, he became the mark of the enemy's bullets, and fell, shot through the body. He lingered for some time in great suffering, and died on the morning of the 23d. Over the whole of India the victory was saddened by his death; for it was felt that in John N., to use Lord Caning's expression, "a tower of strength" had fallen. During the whole war of the mutiny, though it claimed many noble victims, there fell no man more regretted in his death than N., or in his death more worthy of regret. Throughout his career he shone—as opportunity offered—a veritable "king of men;" one of those born to command, who naturally and inevitably rise to it, and however great in achievement, seem to need only the lap of ampler opportunity in the future, to out-sail their great achievements in the past. No one ever seems to have come fairly in contact with him without being strangely impressed with this sense of a magnificent reserve of power in him. It remains only to add, that his nature was on the one side as gentle, tender, and affectionate, as on the other it was strong and brave; and that, by all who had intimate relations with him, he was not less beloved for his mild virtues, than for his sterner gifts honored and admired. To his memory all honor was paid. The Queen commanded it to be officially announced that, had he lived, he would have been created a Knight Commander of the Bath; and by the East India Company, a special grant of £500 a year was voted to the mother who survived to mourn for him. For further details of the life of this man of right noble and heroic mould, the reader is referred to the account of him—from which this little sketch is redacted—given in Kaye's most interesting work entitled "Lives of Indian Officers" (2 vols., Lond., A. Strahan & Co., 1867).

NICIAS, a famous Athenian statesman and general during the Peloponnesian War, was the son of Niceratus, a very wealthy citizen, who had acquired his fortune by working the silver-mines at Laureum. N. belonged to the aristocratic party, and after the death of Pericles, presented himself as the opponent of Cleon, the great popular or demagogic leader. He was not a man of quick, brilliant, audacious genius, like Alcibiades; on the contrary, he was remarkably wary and cautious, even at times to timidity. Success generally accompanied his enterprises against the Spartans and their allies. In 427 B.C., he captured the island of Minos; next year he ravaged the island of Melos and the coasts of Locris; the year following that, he obliged the Spartan force in Sphacteria to surrender, and also defeated the Corinthians. In 424 B.C., he made havoc of part of Laconia, captured the island of Cythera, and achieved several other successes. After the death of Cleon, he brought about a peace between the Spartans and Athenians, 421 B.C. Six years afterwards, the Athenians, at the instigation of Alcibiades, resolved on a great naval expedition against Sicily. N. was appointed one of the commanders, although he had strongly protested against the undertaking. In the autumn of 415 B.C., he laid siege to Syracuse and was at first successful, but subsequently experienced a series of disasters; his fleet was destroyed, and his troops began a retreat towards the interior.

of Sicily. They were speedily forced to surrender, and N. was put to death 414 B. C. See Thirlwall's and Grote's "Histories of Greece," and Plutarch's "Life of Nicias."

**NICKEL** (symbol, Ni; equiv. 29.5—new system, 59—sp. grav. 8.8) is a grayish-white glistening metal, capable of receiving a high polish, of about the same hardness as iron, and, like that metal, malleable and ductile. It has about the same fusibility as wrought iron, but is less readily oxidised than that metal, since it remains unchanged for a long time in a moist atmosphere, and is very little attacked by dilute acids. It is strongly magnetic, but loses this property when heated to 660°. It dissolves in hydrochloric and dilute sulphuric acid with a development of hydrogen gas, and is very readily oxidised in nitric acid.

N. only occurs in the native state in meteoric stones, in which it is always present in association with the iron which forms the principal part of those masses. It is found in tolerable abundance in Saxony, Westphalia, Hungary, Sweden, &c., where it occurs in the form of *kupfernickel* (so called from its yellowish-red color), which is combination of N. and arsenic. The metal is obtained on the large scale (for the purpose of making German silver (q. v.) and other alloys) either from this compound or *speiss*, which is an impure arsenio-silphide of N., formed during the manufacture of *Small* (q. v.) by somewhat complicated chemical processes. In small quantities, it may be obtained by reducing one of its oxides by means of hydrogen at a high temperature, or by exposing the oxalate to a very high temperature in a crucible lined with charcoal.

N. forms two compounds with oxygen—viz., a protoxide,  $\text{NiO}$ , and a sesquioxide,  $\text{Ni}_2\text{O}_3$ , which is not basic, and may be passed over without further notice. The *protoxide* occurs as a greenish-gray powder, which exhibits no magnetic properties, and is insoluble in water. It is obtained by heating the carbonate or the *hydrated protioxide* in a closed crucible. The hydrated protoxide,  $\text{NiO} \cdot \text{HO}$ , is obtained by precipitation from a solution of one of its salts by potash. The salts of the protoxide and their solutions are of a delicate, very characteristic green color; but in the anhydrous state most of them are yellow. The neutral salts, soluble in water, slightly reddish *litmus*, have a sweetish astringent metallic taste, and when administered in moderate doses, excite vomiting. The most important of the salts is the *enphate* ( $\text{NiO} \cdot \text{SO}_4 + 7\text{Ag}$ ), which crystallises in beautiful green rhombic prisms. It is obtained by dissolving the metal or its oxide in dilute sulphuric acid; and is the source from which the other salts of N., the carbonate, oxalate, &c., are obtained. The principal use of N. is in the composition of various alloys, such as German Silver (q. v.).

The sulphate of N. has been prescribed successfully by Professor Simpson in cases of severe headache.

**NICOBAR ISLANDS**, a group of islands in the Indian Ocean, north-west of Sumatra, and forming, with the Andamans (q. v.), an extension of the great island chain of which Java and Sumatra are the principal links. Lat.  $6^{\circ} 40' - 9^{\circ} 20' \text{ N.}$ , long.  $93^{\circ} - 94^{\circ} \text{ E.}$  They are divided by the Sombrero Channel into two groups, of which the principal members are the Great N. (area about 260 square miles), and the Little N. (area 86 square miles). The inhabitants, who are not numerous, are distinct from Malays and Burmese, and are said to resemble the hill-tribes in Formosa. The Danes made a settlement here in 1754, were dispossessed by Great Britain from 1807 to 1814, and finally withdrew in 1848. In 1869, the Indian government took possession of these islands, and affiliated a new settlement at Nancowry Harbor to the great penal colony at Port Blair in the Andaman Islands. The soil is fertile, and the cocoa-nut palm grows abundantly.

**NICOLAI**, Christoph Friedr., a celebrated German author, bookseller, and publisher, was born 18th March 1733, at Berlin, where his father was also a bookseller. He devoted himself very earnestly to literary and philosophical studies, and early distinguished himself by his "Briefe über den jetzigen Zustand der schönen Wissenschaften" (Berl. 1756), in which he exposed the errors of both Gottsched and Bodmer, then carrying on a controversy which was agitating the literary world of Germany. He became the associate of Lessing and Moses Mendelssohn. Jointly with the latter, he edited for some time the admirable "Bibliothek der schönen Wissenschaften" (Leip. 1757-1758); and with Lessing, he gave to the world

"Briefe die neueste deutsche Literatur betreffend (24 vols. Berl. 1759—1765). By this he was led to conceive the plan of the "Allgemeine deutsche Bibliothek" (106 vols. 1765—1792), a periodical which he edited for many years, and which contributed much, particularly in the early period of its existence, to the progress of literature and improvement of taste in Germany, but was too frequently characterised by an undue acerbity of tone. N.'s hostility to the new schools of literature and philosophy, which sprang up in Germany, exposed him to attacks from the pens of Herder, Goethe, Schiller, Lavater, and Fichte. His death took place 8th January 1811.

Among N.'s works may be mentioned his "Topographisch-historische Beschreibung von Berlin und Potsdam" (Berl. 1769, 3d edit. 1786); "Characteristicen Anekdoten von Friedrich II." (Berl. 1788—1792), both of permanent value; some novels, as his "Leben und Meinungen des Magisters Sebaldus Notthaker" (4th edit. Berl. 1799); "Geschichte eines dicke[n] Mannes," a sharply satirical performance (2 vols. Berl. 1794); "Beschreibung einer Reise durch Deutschland und die Schweiz" (Berl. 1781; 3d edit. 12 vols. 1788—1796); an autobiography, published in the "Bildnisse jetzt lebender Berliner Gelehrten;" and a work entitled "Ueber meine gelehrte Bildung, über meine Kenntniss der Critischen Philosophie und meine Schriften dieselbe betreffend" (Berl. 1799).

NICOLAI, Otto, a German musical composer of note, born at Königsberg in 1809. His early life was a struggle with poverty and difficulties. He studied for three years in Berlin under Kl. in; and in 1835 went to Rome, where he went through three more years of study under Baini. After travelling for ten or twelve years over Europe, he became, in 1847, Kapellmeister at Berlin, a post which he soon resigned. He appeared as a composer of dramatic music as early as 1831; but his first work of importance was "Il Templario," founded on Scott's romance of "Ivanhoe," which, produced at Turin in 1841, attained a high and permanent reputation. In 1848, he wrote at Berlin "Die Lustigen Weiber von Windsor," on which his renown as a musician is founded, a work charming for its clear design and lively vigorous tone, whose overture is almost worthy of Weber. Two months after the production of this his *chef d'œuvre*, its composer died at Berlin.

NICOLAS, St., a highly popular saint of the Roman Catholic Church, and revered with still greater devotion by the Russian Church, which regards him as a special patron, was one of the early bishops of Myra in Lycia. The precise date of his episcopate is a subject of much controversy. According to the popular account, he was a confessor of the faith in the last persecution under Maximian, and having survived until the Council of Nice, was one of the bishops who took part in that great assembly. This, however, seems highly improbable. His name does not occur among the signatures to the decrees, nor is he mentioned along with the other distinguished confessors of the faith who were present at the council, either by the historians, or what is more important, by St Athanasius. He may, with more probability, be referred to a later period; but he certainly lived prior to the reign of Justinian, in whose time several of the churches of Constantinople were dedicated to St Nicolas. Of his personal history hardly anything is certainly known, and the great popularity of the devotion to him rests mainly on the traditions, both in the West and in the East, of the many miracles wrought through his intercession. He is regarded, in Catholic countries, as the especial patron of the young, and particularly of scholars. In England, his feast was celebrated in ancient times with great solemnity in the public schools, Eton, Sarratt, Cathedral, and elsewhere; and a curious practice, founded upon this characteristic of St N., still subsists in some countries, especially in Germany. On the vigil of his feast, which is held on the 6th December, a person in the appearance and costume of a bishop assembles the children of a family or of a school, and distributes among them, to the good children, gilt nuts, sweetmeats, and other little presents, as the reward of good conduct; to the naughty ones, the redoubtable punishment of the "Klaubauf." The supposed relics of St N. were conveyed from the East to Bari, in the kingdom of Naples, towards the close of the 11th c.; and it is a curious fact that in the Russian Church the anniversary of this translation, 9th May, is still observed as a festival.

NICOMEDEIA, the capital of ancient Bithynia, was situated at the north-eastern angle of the Gulf of Astacus, in the Proponitis, now called the Bay of Ismid, was built about 264 A.D. by Nicomedes I., who made it the capital of his kingdom, and

It soon became one of the most magnificent and flourishing cities in the world, and some of the later Roman emperors, such as Diocletian and Constantine the Great, selected it for their temporary residence. It suffered greatly both from earthquakes and the attacks of the Goths. Constantine died at a royal villa in the immediate vicinity. Hannibal committed suicide in a castle close by. It was the birthplace of the historian Arrian. The small town of Iesmid or Ianikmid now occupies its site, and contains many relics of ancient Nicomedeia.

NICO'POLIS, recently a Turkish fortress, but since 1878 a city of the newly constituted principality of Bulgaria, is on the Danube, about 56 miles west of Rustchuk. The fortifications, though extensive, were never of much importance, and the Berlin Congress of 1878 provided for their demolition. The city used to be divided into two portions; the fortress and Turkish town, defended on every side by batteries and ramparts, and the eastern quarter, comprising the dwellings of the Bulgarians, Wallachs, and Jews. N. is widely built, most of the houses being surrounded by gardens. It is an important market for Wallachian wares, but otherwise is not a great centre of trade. Wine is produced in the vicinity. Pop. 16,000.

N., the ancient *Nicopolis ad Istrum*, was founded by Trajan, and fragments of the old wall still remain. Here the Hungarians, under their king Sigmund, were defeated by the Sultan Bajazet I. in 1396. The city gives title to a Greek archbishop and to a Catholic bishop.

#### NICOTIA'NA. See TOBACCO.

N'COTINE, or Nicotylia ( $C_{20}H_{14}N_2$ ), is one of the natural volatile oily bases destitute of oxygen, and constitutes the active principle of the tobacco plant, in the leaves, roots, and seeds of which it occurs in combination with malic and citric acids. It is likewise contained in the smoke of the burning leaves. It is a colorless, intensely poisonous liquid, of specific gravity 1.027 at  $66^\circ$ , which boils at  $480^\circ$ , evolves a very irritating odor of tobacco, especially on the application of heat, is very inflammable, and burns with a smoky flame. It is moderately soluble in water, and dissolves readily in alcohol and ether. If exposed to the air, it absorbs oxygen, and becomes brown, and ultimately solid. The quantity of N. contained in tobacco varies from 2 to 8 per cent.; the coarser kinds containing the larger quantity, while the best Havannah cigars seldom contain more than 2 per cent., and often less.

A remarkable case of poisoning by N.—that of the Count Bocarmé, who was tried and executed in Belgium for the murder of his brother-in-law—is recorded in the “Annales d’Hygiène” (1851), and was the occasion of Orfila’s publishing his “Mémoire sur la Nicotine.” A distinguished student of the College of Chemistry subsequently employed it for the purpose of suicide. The deaths that have taken place from the use of tobacco in the form of injection—of which several cases are on record—were doubtless due to the action of this substance.

NICOSI'A, a city of Sicily, in the province of Catania, 70 miles south-west from Messina. It is situated on the crest of a steep conical hill between two head-branches of the Salso. It has scarcely any manufactures, but carries on some trade in corn, wine, oil, and cattle. Near it are beds of alum, schist, a rich mine of rock-salt, and springs of petroleum. Pop. 14,250.

NIEBUHR, Karsten, a distinguished geographer and traveller, was born in 1733, in the Hanoverian territory of Hadeln, on the confines of Holstein. Being early thrown on his own resources, he spent several years of his youth in the position of a day-labourer; but his natural energy having led him to apply himself to the study of geometry, and having acquired a small property, he went to Göttingen, where he attended the classes at the university until his resources were wholly exhausted. At this period he entered the Danish service, and in 1761 he joined the scientific expedition which King Frederick V. sent to explore certain portions of Arabia, with a view of illustrating some passages of the Old Testament. The expedition reached Cairo at the close of the year 1761, and after having carefully explored the pyramids, and crossed the desert to Mount Sinai and Suez, proceeded to Arabia Felix. Here, however, the various members of the expedition, which included the eminent naturalist Forskål, all perished with the exception of N., who had himself suffered severely from fever. After the untimely death of his companions, he adopted the diet and dress of the natives—a measure to which he was probably indebted for

the good health which he enjoyed during the rest of the travels, which he prosecuted with extraordinary resolution for more than six years. He proceeded as far as India, visiting also Persia and Asiatic Turkey, and continued the observations and researches of his late colleagues in addition to his own special geographical investigations. On his return to Denmark, in 1767, N. at once devoted himself to the task of publishing the results of his important mission, which appeared in German under the following titles, "Beschreibung von Arabien" (Copenh. 1772), and "Reisebeschreibung von Arabien und andern umliegendem Ländern" (Copenh. 1774—1778, 2 vols.); the publication of the third volume of this work was unfortunately delayed, in consequence of the pressure of numerous other engagements arising from his professional and official duties, and it was not till more than twenty years after his death that the book made its appearance under the supervision of N.'s daughter, and through the liberality of the eminent bookseller Perthes of Hamburg. In addition to these valuable observations, N. edited and published at his own cost the natural-history notes of his deceased friend and fellow-traveller, P. Forskål which he arranged in two works, "Descriptiones Animalium," &c. (Copenh. 1775), and "Flora Ægyptiaco-Arabica" (Copenh. 1776). The accuracy of detail, fidelity of delineation, and careful avoidance of all exaggeration, which characterise N.'s geographical and social descriptions of Arabia and other Asiatic countries, have made his works classical text-books for all who wish to study the subject. Although N. accepted, in 1778, a civil post, which fixed his residence in the remote provincial town of Meldorf, in the Dithmarsch district of Holstein, where he devoted himself during the rest of his life to the fulfilment of his official duties, he never relinquished his interest in scientific inquiry, and contributed several valuable papers on the geographical and political history of the nations of the east to the "Deutsche Museum," and other periodicals. He died in 1815, leaving a character of being at once one of the most truthful and scientifically exact travellers of modern times.

NIEBUHR, Barthold Georg, one of the most acute historians, critics and philologists of modern times, was born August 27, 1776, at Copenhagen, where his father, Karsten Niebuh (q. v.) then resided. The aptitude for learning which N. displayed almost from infancy, led him to be regarded as a juvenile prodigy, and unlike many other precocious children, his powers of acquiring knowledge kept pace with his advancing years. After a carefully conducted preliminary education, under the superintendence of his father, he spent a session at Göttingen studying law, and from thence proceeded in his 19th year to Edinburgh, where he devoted himself more especially to the natural sciences. On his return to Denmark, he became private secretary to the finance minister, Schimmelmann, and from that period till 1804 held several appointments under the Danish government, which, however, he was led to resign in consequence of his strongly pronounced political tendencies, which made him enter heart and soul into the feeling of hatred of Napoleon, which was at that time agitating the minds of Germans. In accordance with these views, N. entered the Prussian civil service in 1806, and during the three succeeding years he shared in the vicissitudes which befell the government of his chief, Count Hardenberg, after the disastrous battle of Jena, and the consequent pressure of the Napoleonic influence on the management of the state. The opening of the university of Berlin in 1810 was a new era in the life of N., who, with the view of promoting the interests of the new institution, gave a course of lectures on Roman history, which, by making known the results of the new and critical theory which he had applied to the elucidation of obscure historical evidence, established his position as one of the most original and philosophical of modern historians. His appointment, in 1816, to the post of Prussian ambassador at the papal court, where he remained till 1823, gave him an opportunity of testing on the spot the accuracy of his conjectures in regard to many questions of local and social bearing. On his return from Rome, N. took up his residence at Bonn, where, by his admirable lectures and expositions, he contributed very materially to the development of classical and archaeological learning. He was thus employed when the revolution of 1830 roused him from the calm of his literary pursuits. N.'s sensitive nature, unstrung by physical debility, led him to take an exaggerated view of the consequences of this movement, and to anticipate a recurrence of all the horrors of the former French revolution, and the result was to bring about a state of mental depression and bodily prostration, which ended in his death in January 1831. N.'s attainments embraced a more extensive range than

most men are capable of grasping, for he was alike distinguished as a shrewd man of business, an able diplomatist, an accurate scholar, and a man of original genius. He had mastered twenty languages before the age of thirty, while the mass of facts which his tenacious memory retained, and the intuitive sagacity that enabled him to sift true from false historic evidence, and often to supply by felicitous conjecture the link wanting in some imperfect chain of evidence, exhibit the extraordinary scope of his intellect. It is not to be denied, however, that he is often arbitrary and unhistorical in his conjectures, and the stricter sort of sceptical critics, like the late Sir George Cornewall Lewis, even go so far as to regard his effort to construct a continuous Roman history out of such legendary materials as we possess as, on the whole, a failure. Among the many important works with which he enriched the literature of his time, the following are some of the most noteworthy : "Römische Geschichte" (3 Bde. Berl. 1811-1832; 2d edit. 1827-1842; 1838; 1853), the first two volumes have been translated by J. C. Hare and C. Thirlwall, and the third by Dr W. Smith and Dr L. Schnitz; "Grundzüge für die Verfassung Niederlands" (Berl. 1832); "Griech. Heroengeschichte" (Hamburg, 1842), written for his son Marcus; the "Kleinen historischen und philologischen Schriften" (2 Bde. Bonn, 1828-1843), contain his introductory lectures on Roman history, and many of the essays which had appeared in the Transactions of the Berlin Academy. Besides these, and numerous other essays on philological, historical, and archaeological questions, N. co-operated with Becker and other learned annotators in re-editing "Scriptores historiae Byzantinae"; he also discovered hitherto unprinted fragments of classical authors, as, for instance, of Cicero's "Orations" and portions of Gaius, published the "Inscriptiones Nubienses" (Rome 1821), and was a constant contributor to the "Rheinische Museum für Philologie," and other literary journals and societies of Germany.

**NIE'LLO-WORK**, a method of ornamenting metal plates by engraving the surface, and rubbing in a black or colored composition, so as to fill up the incised lines, and give effect to the intaglio picture. It is by no means quite certain when this art was originated; Byzantine works of the 12th c. still exist to attest its early employment. The finest works of this kind belong to the former half of the 15th c., when remarkable excellence in drawing and grouping minute figures in these metal pictures was attained by Maso di Finiguerra, an eminent painter, and student of Ghiberti and Massaccio. In his hands it gave rise to copper-plate engraving (see ENGRAVING), and hence much interest attaches to the art of niello-cutting. Genuine specimens of this art are rare, some of those by Finiguerra are very beautiful and effective, the black pigment in the lines giving a pleasing effect to the surface of the metal, which is usually silver. Those of his works best known are some elaborately beautiful patines wrought by him for the church of San Giovanni at Florence, one of which is in the Uffizia, and some are in various private collections. In the collection of Ornamental Art at South Kensington, there are no less than 17 specimens of this art.

**NIE'MEN** (called by the Germans *Memel*), a river in Prussia, rises a few miles south of the city of Minsk, flows westward to Grodno 180 miles, north and west along the frontier of the Polish province of Augustowo, and west through East Prussia to the Kurische Haff. Entire length, 640 miles. It is navigable for large craft at Grodno, 400 miles from its mouth, and is free of ice from March to November. Between Grodno and Kovno there are 55 rapids and shallows, and pilots are therefore required for the navigation of the river. At Winge, 8 miles below Tilsit, the N. divides into two branches, of which the northern, the Russ, reaches the Kurische Haff by nine mouths; and the southern, the Gilge, by seven mouths. The delta is traversed by numerous canals. The N. is of considerable commercial importance. Large barges bring down the produce of Lithuania and of a portion of Poland to Königsberg and Memel. Corn, hemp, flax, hides, and bacon are the principal articles brought from the interior. Its principal affluent is the Vilia on the right.

**NIEPCE DE ST VICTOR**, Claude-Felix-Abel, a French chemist and photographer, was born at Saint Cyr, near Chalon-sur-Saône, 26th July 1805. He served for some time in the army; but having made an important chemical discovery in connection with dyeing, he was permitted to exchange into the municipal guard of

Paris, that he might pursue his scientific studies with more facility. This was in 1845, at which time his attention having been forcibly attracted to the important discoveries in photography which had been made by his uncle Nicéphore Niépce (see PHOTOGRAPHY), he resolved to devote his energies to this subject. He was led, in 1847, to the discovery of methods for obtaining images on glass, coated with albumen, starch, or gelatin, and for reproducing designs by the use of vapor of iodine. His investigations were for a time interrupted by the revolution of 1848, but he soon resumed them, directing his attention more especially to the obtaining of photographic images in colors; and before the close of 1852, he had succeeded in obtaining faithfully colored images of flowers, natural and artificial, colored engravings, gold and silver lace, &c., upon silvered plates which had been sensitized by a chloride of copper. In obtaining these pictures, both photographic printing and the camera were employed; but to his intense disappointment, he found that the colors soon began to fade, and after a time disappeared. This process he named "Heliochrome." His third and most important invention, that of the art of "Heliography," or the production of engraved steel-plates by photography, was first communicated to the Academy of Sciences in May 1853. He does not deserve the credit of having originated the idea; for his uncle, previous to 1839, had communicated an imperfect sketch of a similar invention to M. Arago; and Mr Talbot and others had succeeded by similar process in obtaining images of simple objects on steel-plates; but to N. belongs the credit of having removed the almost insurmountable manipulative difficulties, and rendered the process of much more general application, thus making it practically serviceable. He afterwards employed himself in improving and perfecting his various discoveries.

In 1856, he published the various memoirs in which he had at different times communicated his three great discoveries to the Academy of Sciences, under the title of "Recherches Photographiques," which was followed, in 1858, by "Traité Pratique de Gravure sur Acier et sur Verre." He presented to the Academy a number of memoirs on the action of light on a variety of substances, the last being "Sur l'Action de la Lumière et de l'Électricité" (February 1860). N.'s scientific studies did not interfere with his military promotion, as he was successively appointed chef-d'escrdrion, and (1864) commandant of the Louvre. He died in April 1870.

NIE'R STEIN, a market village (pop. 2600) of Hessen-Darmstadt, in the province of Rhein-Hessen, and 9 miles south-south-east of Mayence, gives name to a well-known and highly-prized variety of Rhenish wine, which is produced in the neighbourhood.

NIEU WER AMSTEL, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of North Holland, five miles south-by-west from Amsterdam. Pop. 8066. A few miles to the east of it is the village of Ouder Amstel, with about 3000 inhabitants, on the Amstel, one of the smaller mouths of the Rhine, which passes through the city of Amsterdam, and falls into the Zuider Zee.

NIEU'WVELDT MOUNTAINS, a portion of the most northerly of the three ranges of mountains in Cape Colony, which at various distances from the southern coast all run parallel to it. Of these three ranges, the most northern attains the greatest altitude, having an average height of 7000 feet. The portion known as the N. M. extend in lat.  $31^{\circ} 40'$  to  $32^{\circ} 30'$  S., and are intersected by the meridian of  $22^{\circ}$  E. long. From their southern slopes, the Gaukka or Lion River draws its head waters; and from their northern, the Gariep or Orange River obtains an important tributary in the upper Zak.

NIÈVRE, a central department of France, occupies a portion of the watershed between the Loire and the Saône, and is bounded on the west by the rivers Allier and Loire. Area, 1,684,469 acres; pop. (1872) 839,917. Mountains occupy the eastern border, and extend in a line of heights from south-east to north-west, dividing the department into two great declivities. The soil is generally rocky and sandy, cut up by ramifications, almost always wooded, of the mountains of Morvan. There are several plateaux more or less fertile, a number of hills covered with vines, and valleys productive in pastures; but the principal wealth of the department consists in its forests and minerals. The Nièvre, whence the name of the department, is an inconsiderable affluent of the Loire from the right. The three chief rivers—the Allier, Loire, and Yonne—are navigable, and the Yonne, which belongs to the sys-

tem of the Seine, is connected with the Loire by a canal leading across the watershed. Of the entire area, 792,000 acres were in 1864 in cultivable land, and more than a third of the whole surface is covered with forests, the timber from which, forming one of the principal sources of wealth, is conveyed by water in great quantities to Paris, &c. About 6,000,000 gallons of wine are made yearly. From the mines of N., iron of good quality is obtained in abundance; lead, copper and silver are also found; and there are coal mines, and quarries of marble and granite. Arrondissements, Nevers, Château-Chinon, Clamecy, and Cosne; capital, Nevers.

**NI'FLHEIM** (from the same roots as Lat. *nebula*, cloud, and Eng. *home*), meaning the abode of clouds, was one of the nine separate abodes or homes, of which the old Scandinavians conceived the world as consisting in the beginning of time. It is the kingdom of cold and darkness, and is separated from Muspelheim, the kingdom of light and heat, by a huge chasm (Ginnugap, yawning gap). Here flows the spring Hvergelmir, watched by the dragoon Nidhugger; this spring sends out twelve ice-rivers, from the drops of which, thawed by sparks from Muspelheim, sprang the chaotic giant Ymir and the cow Audhumbla. N. was also the abode of Hel (q. v.), the goddess of death, who here received all who died of sickness or old age.

**NIGELLA**, a genus of plants of the natural order *Ranunculaceæ*, having five colored spreading sepals; five or ten small two-lipped petals, with tubular claw; the carpels more or less connected together, many-seeded; the leaves divided into threadlike segments, the flowers solitary at the top of the stem or branches. They are annuals, natives chiefly of the countries near the Mediterranean and the warmer temperate parts of Asia. Some of them, occasionally seen in gardens in Britain, are vulgarly known by the names *Devil-in-a-bush* and *Devil-in-a-mist*. The seeds are aromatic, and somewhat peppery. Those of *N. sativa*, a species common in cornfields in the south of Europe, are supposed to be the BLACK CUMMIN of the ancients, and perhaps the CUMMIN of the Bible. The seeds of a species of *N.* are much used by the Afghans for flavoring curries.

**NI'GER**, the great river of Western Africa. Its name, according to Dr Barth, is a contracted form of one of the native names, *N-eghîrén*, which, as well as all the other names, *Dhiúlibá* (*Joliba*), *Máyo*, *I'sa*, *Kucára* (*Quorra*), and *Báki-n-rúwa*, means simply "the river." The principal head-water rises on the slopes of Mount Loma, a peak of the Kong Mountains, in a barren, desolate, and treeless region, in lat.  $9^{\circ} 25'$  n. long.,  $9^{\circ} 45'$  w., about 1600 feet above sea-level. It flows north-east to Timbuktu, where it bends eastward, and after flowing in that direction for about 250 miles, it curves toward the south, and proceeds in a general south-south-east course, until arriving at the head of its delta, in lat. about  $5^{\circ} 30'$  n., it separates into many branches, and enters the Gulf of Guinen, between the Bigots of Benin and Biafra. It is called the Timbri for the first 70 miles of its course, after which it receives the name of the Joiba, or more correctly Dhiúlibá; and after passing Timbuktu, it is known principally as the Quorra. Little is known of its course until it reaches Sego (lat.  $12^{\circ} 30'$  n.), a distance of 350 miles from its source, but from that point it has been explored throughout nearly the whole of its course. From Sego to Timbuktu it flows through a fertile country, producing rice, maize, and vegetables, and abounding in good pasture. In lat.  $14^{\circ} 10'$  n. the river separates into two branches; the western is called the Joliba or Mayo, the eastern the Bara-Isa. These, as they proceed, are known as the White and Black rivers respectively; and they unite after enclosing the island of Jimballa, 220 miles in length, and from 2 to 20 miles in breadth. The river again bifurcates before arriving at Timbuktu, and after passing that town, the two branches, on one of which—the northern—Cabra, the port of Timbuktu is situated, again unite. In the district of union, in the south-west of Timbuktu, the country far and wide is intersected by numberless streams, forming a complicated net-work of water-courses. The river then flows east, sending off many creeks and branches to Bambu; its banks here are low and marshy, and during the rainy season are over-flowed. In this region, rice, tobacco, wheat, and even barley are grown. The river then passes the town of Burrum, where it curves to the south-east, and from this point—called from the bend, the *Knee of Burrum*—it bears the name Kwara or Quorra until it reaches the delta. Immediately below Burrum, the N. does not pre-

sent an imposing appearance. Its bed resembles a broad marshy valley, enclosed by ridges of rock or high dunes, thickly overgrown with reeds and sedges, and cut up by numberless streams and creeks. At the ferry of Burri (lat.  $15^{\circ} 55' N.$ ), the breadth of the river is from 800 to 900 yards; and here the whole valley, about ten miles broad, is fruitful, carefully cultivated, and well peopled. Further south, the towns of Garu and Sandu are passed, and here the bed is rocky and the navigation dangerous. At the town of Say, the N., after reaching a breadth of from 2500 to 3000 paces, is narrowed to a width of 1000 paces, flows at the rate of three miles an hour, and is enclosed by rocky banks. From Say to Wara, the course of the N. remains still unknown. From Wara, it flows east-south-east to Rabba; and from this town to its mouth, the course of the river is comparatively well known. In lat. between  $8^{\circ}$  and  $7^{\circ} 30' N.$ , it flows round the eastern shoulder of the Kong Mountains (2000 to 3000 feet high), and here the banks of the N. are extraordinarily beautiful. In lat.  $7^{\circ} 40' N.$ , it receives the Benue from the east. The delta consists of an immense mangrove forest, cut up into islands by the numerous branches (22 in number) of the river. The principal mouths are the Bouny, Mari, and Nun.

The existence of the N. seems to have been first made known in ancient times by travellers from the southern shores of the Mediterranean, who, crossing the great desert, came upon the upper course of a great river flowing toward the rising sun. This river Herodotus supposed to be a branch of the Egyptian Nile. Pliny speaks of the *Nigris* of Ethiopia, but he also thought that it flowed into the Nile. No definite notion of the river had been formed until it was visited by Mungo Park in July, 1796, when this traveller explored its banks for a distance of 160 miles. See PARK, MUNGO. Ouallié explored the river from the town of Jennee to Timbuktu; and the English expedition of 1832, under Lander and Allen, proved that the Quorra was navigable from Boussa to the sea; information, however, which was obtained at an immense cost of human life from the unhealthiness of the climate. Subsequent expeditions have ended with similar results. In 1854, Dr Barth followed the course of the river from Timbuktu to Say, and much of what is now known about the N. is due to his labors. The entire length of the river is estimated at upwards of 1500 miles.—Barth's "Travels in Central Africa."

**NIGHT-HAWK** (*Chordeiles Virginianus*), a bird of the Goatsucker family (*Caprimulgidae*), very common in America, from the Arctic islands to the West Indies. It is a bird of passage, visiting the north in summer. It is about nine inches in length, and 23 inches in expanse of wing. The gape is destitute of bristles. The tail is slightly forked. The general color is brown, but it is much mottled and marked with white; and there is a white mark on the throat, in shape like the letter V. The N. is seen pursuing its insect prey in the air, chiefly a little before sunset, and before dawn, and attracts attention by its rapid repetition of a sharp impatient cry, which has gained for it the name *Piramidig*. It produces also in its flight a remarkable hollow booming sound, "like blowing into the bung-hole of a barrel," in the moments of its perpendicular descent through the air. Its movements in the air are extremely beautiful and rapid. When fat and plump, as it usually is on its southward migration, it is esteemed for the table, and great numbers are shot.

**NIGHT HERON** (*Nycticorax*), a genus of *Ardeidae* (see HERON), intermediate in form between bitterns and herons, but with shorter and thicker bill than either, and legs shorter than in herons. The COMMON N. H. (*N. Gardeni* or *Europaeus*) is found in Europe, Asia, Africa, and North America, chiefly in the warmer temperate regions. It is most abundant in America, and is partly a bird of passage. It is a very rare visitor of Britain. Its length, from the tip of the bill to the end of the short tail, is fully two feet. It weighs nearly two pounds. Its plumage is soft, the general color ash-gray, passing into black on the neck and head, and into white on the breast and belly. The back of the head is adorned with three very long white feathers, which hang down on the neck. The nests are built in trees, and in general many together forming a *heronry*. The N. H. feeds chiefly by twilight or at night; and is never seen standing motionless, like herons, but walks about in search of prey, by the sides of ditches, ponds, &c.; its food consisting chiefly of fishes, frogs, and other aquatic animals. Its cry is very loud and hoarse.—Other species of N. H. are found in Africa and Australia.

**NIGHTINGALE**, Florence, famed for her labors in reforming the sanitary con-

dition of the British army, is the daughter of William Shore Nightingale of Embly Park, Hampshire, and Leigh Hurst, Derbyshire, and was born at Florence in 1828. Highly educated, and brilliantly accomplished, she early exhibited an intense devotion to the alleviation of suffering, which, in 1844, led her to give attention to the condition of hospitals. She visited and inspected civil and military hospitals all over Europe; studied with the Sisters of Charity in Paris the system of nursing and management carried out in the hospitals of that city; and, in 1851, went into training as a nurse in the institution of Protestant Deaconesses at Kaiserswerth, on the Rhine. On her return to England, she put into thorough working order the Sanitorium for Governesses in connection with the London institution. Ten years was the term of apprenticeship thus served in preparation for the work of her life. In the spring of 1854, war was declared with Russia, and a British army of 25,000 men sailed to the East. Alma was fought on the 20th of September, and the wounded from the battle were sent down to the hospitals prepared for their reception on the banks of the Bosphorus. These hospitals were soon crowded with sick and wounded, and their unhealthy condition became apparent in a rate of mortality to which the casualties of the fiercest battle were as nothing. In this crisis, Miss N. offered to go out and organise a nursing department at Scutari. The late Lord Herbert, then at the war-office, gladly accepted, and within a week from the date of the offer—viz., on the 21st of October—she departed with her nurses. She arrived at Constantinople on the 4th of November, the eve of Inkermann—the beginning of the terrible winter campaign—in time to receive the wounded from that second battle towards already filled with 2300 patients. Her devotion to the sufferers can never be forgotten. She has stood twenty hours at a stretch, in order to see them provided with accommodation and all the requisites of their condition. But she saw clearly in the bad sanitary arrangements of the hospitals the causes of their frightful mortality, and her incessant labor was devoted to the removal of these causes, as well as to the mitigation of their effects. In the spring of 1855, while in the Crimea organising the nursing-departments of the camp-hospitals, she was prostrated with fever, the result of unintermitting toil and anxiety; yet she refused to leave her post, and on her recovery remained at Scutari till Turkey was evacuated by the British, July 28, 1856. She, to whom many a soldier owes life and health, had expended her own health in the physical and mental strain to which she had subjected herself. It is known that for years Miss N. has been an invalid. It is not so well known that her sick-room has been the scene of the most arduous and constant labor for the improvement of the health of the soldier. In 1857, she furnished the "commissioners appointed to inquire into the regulations affecting the sanitary condition of the British army" with a paper of written evidence, in which she impresses, with the force and clearness which distinguish her mind, the great lesson of the Crimean War, which she characterises as a sanitary experiment on a colossal scale. Her experience in the Crimea, the results obtained by the labors of the sanitary commission, results accumulated under her own eyes, shewing that the rate of mortality among soldiers could be reduced to one-half of what it was in time of peace at home, turned the attention of Miss N. to the general question of army sanitary reform, and first to that of army hospitals. In 1858, she contributed two papers to the National Association for the Promotion of Social Science, on Hospital Construction and Arrangement, afterwards published, along with her evidence before the commissioners, by J. W. Parker and son. The "Notes on Hospitals," from their clearness of arrangement and minuteness of detail, are most valuable to the architect, the engineer, and the medical officer. In 1858, she published her "Notes on Nursing," a little volume which is already among the treasured textbooks of many a household. At the close of the Crimean War a fund was subscribed for the purpose of enabling her to form an institution for the training of nurses. The interest of the fund amounts to £1400 per annum; and though no separate institution has been formed, it is spent in training a superior order of nurses in connection with St Thomas's and King's College Hospitals. In the year 1863 was issued the Report of the Commission on the Sanitary Condition of the Army in India. The complete Report, with evidence, occupies two folio volumes of nearly 1000 pages each. The second of these huge folios is filled with reports from every station in India, occupied by British and native troops. These reports were sent in manuscript to Miss N., and at page 347 of vol. i. are inserted her observations upon

this immense mass of evidence. In these observations, the facts are brought together in an order, and with an incisive force of statement, which render it one of the most remarkable public papers ever penned. That Report is likely to inaugurate a new era in the government of India; for the views of Miss N. extend not only to the sanitary reform of the British army, but to that of the towns of India. In 1871, Miss N. published "Notes on Lying-in-Institutions, together with a proposal for organising an Institution for training Midwives and Midwifery Nurses." In the May number of "Fraser's Magazine," 1873, she published an article entitled, "A 'Note' of Interrogation," which attracted a good deal of attention, mainly on account of the way she handles religious beliefs and life.

**NIGHTINGALE** (*Philomela*), a genus of birds of the family *Sylviidae*, approaching in character to the *Merulidae*, the young having their first plumage mottled, as in the thrushes, and the legs being longer than in the fantails and other *Sylviidae*, with which they are commonly classed. The bill is straight, slender, not quite as long as the head; the wings do not much pass beyond the base of the tail; the first quill is very short, the third is the longest; the tail is slightly rounded.—The COMMON N. (*P. lucinia*) is well known as the finest of songsters. It is rather larger than the hedge-sparrow, with about the same proportionate length of wings and tail. It is of a rich brown color above, the rump and tail reddish, the lower parts grayish-white. The sexes are alike. It is a native of many parts of Europe and Asia, and of the north of Africa; and is a bird of passage, extending its summer migrations on the continent of Europe as far north as the south of Sweden, but in Britain it has scarcely ever been seen further north than Yorkshire. It is plentiful in some parts of the south and east of England, but does not extend to the western counties, and never appears in Ireland. It frequents thickets and hedges, and low damp meadows near streams. The extensive market-gardens near London are among its favorite haunts. It feeds very much on caterpillars and other larvae. It arrives in England about the middle of April, the males ten or fourteen days before the females. It is at this season, and before pairing has taken place, that bird-catchers generally procure nightingales for cage-birds, as they then become easily reconciled to confinement, whilst, if taken after pairing, they fret and pine till they die. The N. makes its nest generally on the ground, but sometimes on a low fork of a bush. The nest is loosely constructed of dead leaves, rushes, and stalks of grass, with a lining of fibrous roots. The eggs are four or five in number, of a uniform olive brown. The song of the male ceases to be heard as soon as incubation is over. In captivity, however, it is often continued through a more considerable period. The N. usually begins its song in the evening, and sings with brief intervals throughout the night. The variety, loudness, and richness of its notes are equally extraordinary; and its long quivering strains are full of plainness as well as of passionate ecstasy. The N. has been a favorite from most ancient times, and is often mentioned in the poetry of India and Persia, as well as of Greece and Rome. The loves of the N. and the rose are a fanciful theme in which eastern poets delight. The N. much resembles the redbreast in manners, and is equally pugnacious. It has been known to breed with the redbreast in captivity.—There is another and rather larger species of N. in the east of Europe, faintly mottled on the breast.

#### NIGHT-JAR. See GOATSUCKER.

**NI'GHTMARE** (*Incubus, Ephialtes*) consists in a horrible dream, the terror being inspired by a sense of weight or oppression referred to the pressure of mountains, giants, hags, serpents, upon the breast. It is attributed to acceleration or irregularity of the circulation in the chest or in the brain. It has been traced backwards to plethora, posture, heavy suppers; and forwards as a prognostic of heart disease or hydrothorax. It differs from ordinary dreams in possessing always the same characteristic of fear of some object in contact with the body, in a recognised inability to move or speak while there is a strong desire to do both, and in the presence of a semi-consciousness of the real source of the apprehension. The affection is recorded to have been epidemic; and modern instances have occurred where large communities have been agitated by night panics. A regiment of French soldiers, quartered in a ruined monastery, were awakened, at the same hour in two successive nights, by a black dog leaping on the breast of each. These veteran

warriors, inured to danger, inaccessible to superstition, could not be prevailed upon to make a third trial. Such frightful impressions occur during the day, and during mere somnolence or drowsiness, but more generally at the moment of awaking during the night. The time, the distinct recollection retained of the circumstance, and the bodily perturbation which remained when consciousness was re-established, all conspired to convert these visions into the objective hobgoblins, the owens and supernatural revelations of past ages; and which still linger as matter of belief where the temperament or situation of the individual resemble those of our ancestors. In a very large number of instances such dreams represent, or are continuations of, the previous waking thoughts and emotions. They are so far voluntary that indigestible food or excess may induce them. Fusil, for artistic purposes, created "chimeras dire" in sleep by supping on pork chops.

**NIGHTSHADE**, the English name of certain plants of the natural order *Solanaceæ* (q. v.), possessing the narcotic properties frequently developed in that order. Among them are some species of *Solanum* (q. v.), particularly the COMMON N., or BLACK N. (*S. nigrum*), an annual or biennial, with erect angular stem, ovate, sinuate-dentate leaves, drooping lateral umbels of white flowers, and globose black berries; a frequent weed in waste places in England and in most parts of the world. Few plants are more widely diffused. It is only slightly narcotic. The leaves, in a fresh state, are said to be injurious to animals which eat them, but seem to lose almost all narcotic property by boiling, and are used as spinach, particularly in warm climates. The berries, although generally dreaded or suspected, may also, it is said, be eaten at least in moderate quantity without danger. They contain, however, the alkaloid *Solanine*, found also in the shoots of the potato.—For WOODY N., see BITTERSWEET. For DEADLY N., see BELLADONNA. For ENCHANTER'S N., see CIRCEA.

**NIJ'MEGEN**, NI'MEGUEN, the *Noviomagum* of the Romans (*magum* or *magen* being a Celtic word for fixed dwelling), called by Tacitus *Batavorum oppidum*, in the middle ages *Numaga*, is the principal city of the district of Nijmegen, or the Betuwe, in the Netherlands province of Gelderland. Pop. 28,098, of whom three-fourths are Roman Catholic. It is pleasantly situated, 9 miles south of Arnhem, on several little hills, on the left bank of the Waal. Several of the streets are steep and narrow, passing up the Hoenderberg (*Hunerberg*, or Hill of the Huns), on which the Romans had a permanent camp, in order to keep in subjection the country of the Bataviers, which lay between the Rhine and the Waal; others are broad and well built. On a height stood, till 1797, when it was demolished by the French, the Castle of Valkenburg, said to have been built by Julius Caesar. Here Charlemagne built a palace, and made the castle his residence. The site is now planted with trees, and forms a pleasant public walk overlooking the river and quay. On the brow of the hill there is a little sixteen-sided chapel or baptistery, which some think was originally a heathen temple of the Bataviers, and converted into a Christian church by Pope Leo III. in 799. On another eminence, where the château of the Duke of Alva once stood, is a modern tower called Belvidere, from the summit of which there is an extensive view, including the rivers which branch off at the delta of the Rhine—viz., the Rhine, the Waal, and the Yssel, with the Maas flowing in the south. N. is strongly fortified and well garrisoned. The town-house, founded in 1554, is beautifully and antiquely fitted up within, and externally ornamented by several statues of emperors and kings of the Romans. St Stephen's, or the Great Church, standing on the highest part of the city, is a handsome Gothic edifice in the form of a Greek cross, and before the Reformation contained 30 altars. N. is a large market for cattle and agricultural produce, especially grain. Beer is extensively brewed, Eau de Cologne distilled, and there are factories for spinning and weaving linen, cotton, and silk.

N. is celebrated for the great peace congress of the European powers which was held here, and, 10th August 1678, concluded a treaty between Spain and France; on the 17th September, between France and the United Netherlands; and between the German Empire and France, and the same empire and Sweden, 5th February 1679.

**NI'JN'-NOVGORO'D**, an important government in the east of Great Russia, between the governments of Vladimir on the west and Kuzan and Simbirsk on the east. Area (according to the "Almanach de Gotha"), 19,390 square miles; pop. (1870) 1,971,564. The surface is divided into two distinct portions by the Volga with

its tributary the Oka. On the left, the northern bank of the river, the surface is flat; on the right bank it is hilly. As the soil is not very fertile, and there are few rich meadow-lands, neither agriculture nor cattle-breeding is pursued extensively. The inhabitants are principally engaged in manufactures. The chief rivers are the Volga, Oka, and their numerous tributaries. There is communication by water with 24 governments, and with the Baltic, the White, and the Caspian Seas. The northern districts of the government abound in forests, and here wooden utensils and tools are manufactured for the adjoining governments. There are several large iron-works, and the town of Gorbatof is the Sheffield of its district. Leather, especially that variety called Russian leather, is largely manufactured, and sheep and lamb skin dressing is a staple employment. On the right bank of the Oka are several ship-building and dock-yards. The towns and villages are filled with an industrious and thriving manufacturing population. Capital, Nijni-Novgorod (q. v.).

NIJNI-NOVGOROD (Lower Novgorod), a famous commercial and manufacturing town in the east of Great Russia, capital of the government of the same name, is situated at the confluence of the Oka with the Volga, in lat.  $56^{\circ} 20' \text{ n.}$ , long.  $44^{\circ} 1' \text{ e.}$ , 715 miles east-south-east of St Petersburg, with which, since 1862, it has been connected by railway. The fortified portion of the town occupies a hill overlooking the Volga, and is surrounded with a wall. It contains the Kremlin or citadel, two cathedrals, the palaces of the governors, and an obelisk 76 feet high, in memory of Minin and Pojarsky, the deliverers of Moscow. The town possesses several rope-walks, dock-yards, iron-works for building steamers, three steel-cutlery works, &c. The commercial portion of N. is situated on a projecting point of land which forms the right bank of the Volga and the left bank of the Oka. It has an area of 350 acres, consists of 60 ranges of brick buildings, is surrounded by a canal, and contains 2520 shops, a Russian cathedral, an Armenian church, a mosque, a temporary branch of the state bank, counting-house, post-office, &c. Here the great annual fair is held; but the commerce of N. is not confined to this area. On the further side of the canal are ranges of wooden erections, containing 5000 shops, exclusive of taverns, baths, and other public establishments. The fair, which lasts over a month, is officially opened on the 27th July; but owing to the tardy arrival of the Chinese and Siberian goods, a day or two generally intervenes before it actually commences. With the opening of the fair, the town becomes rapidly filled with merchants from every country and climate—Europeans, Bokharians, Khivans, Kirghizes, Tartars, Armenians, Persians, and even Chinese. The merchants are required to pay nothing in the way of taxes during their stay, except, indeed, the rent of the shops they occupy, and every one has the privilege of trading freely without any exaction from the crown. The fair of N. is of great commercial importance, especially with respect to the eastern and central provinces. The value of goods disposed of during the fair is great, and seems to be continually on the increase. In 1697, the value of the goods sold was £14,000; in 1741, £81,000; in 1790, £5,000,000; in 1857, £14,000,000; in 1863, £16,760,000; in 1874 it was £23,548,500. The goods may be divided into three groups: 1. *Russian raw and manufactured goods*, including cottons, linens, woollens, furs, metals, corn, &c. 2. *European and colonial goods*, including manufactured goods, viuves, &c. 3. *Asiatic goods*: tea, silk, cotton, &c. The total value of goods brought to the fair for sale, was in 1874 estimated at £25,743,000. For the convenience of buyers and sellers, an enormous market-house has been built, as also a cathedral, a mosque, an Armenian church, and 60 blocks of buildings for booths, containing 2590 store-rooms; besides 3400 temporary booths of wood, which are taken down after the fair.

N., an ancient town, was founded in 1221 by Prince Yury Vsevolodovitch as a stronghold against the invasions of the Bulgarians and the Mordva. It was devastated on several occasions by the Tartars; and in 1612, during the civil dissensions in Russia, when it was on the point of falling a prey to Poland, Minin, the famous butcher of N., collected an armed force here, which, under Prince Pojarsky, drove the invaders from the capital. See MOSCOW. The prosperity of this town dates from the year 1817, when the great fair was removed to N. from Makarief, on account of the destructive fire which broke out in the latter place, and destroyed the greater portion of the stores and magazines. The normal population of the town is (1867) 42,742; but it is increased to upwards of 200,000 during the fair. N., so

favorably situated for purposes of commerce, carries on a brisk trade during the whole season of navigation, and especially in spring during full water.

NI'JN'I-TAGI'LSK, a town of Russia, in the government of Perm, situated on the river Tagil, amid the Ural Mountains, 150 miles east of the city of Perm. It is one of the most important mining towns in Russia, or in the world. The soil in the immediate vicinity is everywhere rich in iron, copper, gold, and platina; not far off is the famous magnetic mountain Blagodat, 1422 feet high. Akinfi Demidoff (q. v.) established the first foundry here in 1725. The yield both of iron and copper is immensely large. Pop. 85,000.

NIKOLAE'F, a town of South Russia, in the government of Kherson, and 40 miles north-west of the town of that name, stands 25 miles above the mouth of the Bug, and at the confluence of that river with the Ingul. It was founded in 1790, and its situation was found so convenient for ship-building purposes, that it soon became the centre of the naval administration of the Black Sea. It has broad straight streets, contains several barracks, a cathedral, schools for pilots, hospital's, an observatory, and an arsenal. In the first half of the present century, about 10,000 men were employed at N. in ship-building and other naval operations. Since the opening of the railway system, by which it has connection with Moscow, &c., the population and trade has greatly increased. Pop. (1867) 67,972.

NIKOLAE'VSK, chief town of the Amur territory, in Eastern Siberia, situated on a well-wooded plateau on the left bank of the Amur, and 22 miles from its mouth, in lat.  $53^{\circ} 15'$  n., long.  $140^{\circ} 35'$  e., 6750 miles east from St Petersburg. It contains a wooden church with one large and five smaller steeples, the town residence of the governor, and the storehouse of the Amur Company. The approaches to the town are defended by four batteries, which command the upper as well as the lower part of the river. The Amur is here a mile and a quarter broad, but the landing-place is available only for small craft, all large vessels being compelled to lie in mid-stream. It was founded in 1851; in 1855, it consisted of 150 houses, and in 1868, of 249 houses. It is the seat of naval and civil administration, and the centre of the commercial activity of the district. Goods from the interior of Siberia and China are brought hither and shipped in foreign (chiefly American) vessels; and Siberian tradesmen now receive and despatch their goods by sea, as the land route formerly pursued was both tedious and expensive. Rich and extensive forests clothe the banks of the river, and the abundant pastures offer facilities for cattle-breeding. The chief hindrance to the rapid improvement of the settlement is a want of hands and capital. A line of telegraph already extends from St Petersburg to beyond Irkutsk, and is in process of extension to Nikolaevsk. Mean temperature throughout the year,  $89^{\circ} 42'$ . Pop. (1867) 5314.

NI'KOLSBURG, or Mi'kulov, a town of Austria, in the south of Moravia, 27 miles south of Brunn, lies at the foot of the Pollauer Hills, famous for their rich red wines. The town belongs to the princely family of Dietrichstein. It has several steam-mills, and cotton and silk factories. In the middle of the town, upon a rock, stands the Castle of the Dietrichsteins, w'th a library of 20,000 volumes, and a vat in the cellars capable of containing 2000 emers (more than 80,000 gallons). Pop. (1869) 7173, of whom more than a half are Jews.

NIKO'POL, a thriving town of Southern Russia, in the government of Ekaterinoslav, on the right bank of the Dnieper, about 200 miles from its mouth, in lat.  $47^{\circ} 33'$  n. N. is the centre of an extensive agricultural district, the produce of which is here shipped to Odessa. Between N. and the port of Odessa, there is regular communication by steam-boat. The natural advantages of N. promise to make it one of the principal commercial centres on the Dnieper. Pop. (1867) 8758.

NILE (*Nilus*), called by the Egyptians *Hapi Mu* (the genius of the waters), and by the Hebrews *Sihor* (the black), the river of North-eastern Africa formed by the union of the Bahr-el-Abiad (the White or True Nile) and the Bahr-el-Azrek (Blue Nile). Captains Speke and Grant discovered that the first of these, the true Nile, flowed out of the lake Victoria Nyanza, which extends from about lat.  $0^{\circ} 20'$  n., to  $20^{\circ} 50'$  s., and from long.  $81^{\circ} 40'$  to  $35^{\circ}$  e., and is 8800 feet above the level of the sea; and the river Shumiyu, the largest tributary of this lake, flowing into its southern ex-

tremity, must now be regarded as the most southerly source of the Nile. The second, the Blue Nile, has its source in Abyssinia, in lat.  $10^{\circ} 59' n.$  and long.  $36^{\circ} 55' e.$

The White Nile, from its outfall from the Victoria Nyanza at the "Ripon Falls," lat.  $0^{\circ} 20' n.$ , long.  $33^{\circ} 30' e.$ , flows north-west and west for about 230 miles, till it enters the lake Albert Nyanza, within 30 miles of its northern extremity, where the river again emerges. On issuing from the Victoria Nyanza, the Nile rushes down due north like a mountain torrent, running off at last into long flats, and expanding so as to form what is called Ibrahim Pasha Lake. In this part of its course the river is navigable, and continues to be so until it reaches the Karuma Falls. From these falls to the Murchi-on Falls (120 feet in height), near the Albert Nyanza, the river forms a series of rapids. Between the two Nyanzas the Nile is known as the Victoria Nile, or Somerset River.

After leaving the Albert Nyanza, the Nile begins its northward course to the Mediterranean, and has no further lake expansion. Between the Albert Nyanza and Gondokoro (Ismailia), in  $49^{\circ} 55' n.$  lat., and  $31^{\circ} 51' e.$  long., 1500 feet above the sea, the Nile River descends several hundred feet in a series of rapids and cataracts. For about 500 miles after Gondokoro, the Nile flows very tortuously, first in a north-westerly and then in a north-easterly direction, and is joined, in about lat.  $9^{\circ} 15' n.$ , long.  $30^{\circ} e.$ , by its first great affluent, the Bahr-el-Gazal, which joins the Nile from the west with hardly any perceptible current. The second tributary is the Giraffe River, about one-third the volume of the Nile at its point of junction, long.  $31^{\circ} e.$  From the Bahr-el-Gazal the Nile flows in a due easterly direction for about 80 miles, then south for 80 miles, when it is joined by its third tributary, the Sobat River, from the east. The Sobat is full and navigable. Between this and the town of Khartoum, a distance of 460 miles, the Nile runs in a northerly direction, with a width of from one to two miles, and is joined by several streams from the east side.

Khartoum, the capital of Nubia, is situated at the confluence of the Bahr-el-Azrek (Blue Nile) and the Bahr-el-Abiad (White Nile), 1189 feet above the sea-level, in lat.  $15^{\circ} 35' n.$  long.,  $32^{\circ} 30' e.$  The Bahr-el-Azrek, long supposed to be the main branch of the True Nile, is formed by the junction of the Abai and the Blue River. The Abai has its source in Abyssinia, 50 miles from Lake Dembea, which it enters from the south-west; emerging on the south-east of the lake, it flows for about 90 miles in that direction, when it describes a semicircle round the peninsula of Godjam, and continues north-westerly for about 150 miles. It is here joined by the Blue River from the south, and from this point the Blue Nile flows north-west to Khartoum, receiving from the east two large rivers running nearly parallel to each other, the Dender and the Rahad or Shunfa. From Khartoum, the united stream flows north for about 60 miles, passing the town of Halfaia and the ruins of Meroë to the first cataract, and thence north-east past Shendy (q. v.) to its junction with the Atbara, which enters the Nile at El Damer, lat.  $17^{\circ} 45' n.$  long.,  $84^{\circ} e.$

The Atbara, also called Bahr-el-Aswad, or Black River, because it carries down with it the greatest amount of the black mud and slime that manures and fertilises Egypt, is the last tributary received by the Nile. The Goang seems to be the direct source of the Atbara. It rises in the heights to the north of Lake Dembea. About 150 miles from its source it receives the Basalam River, and about 30 miles further on, the Takazze or Setit River, both from the east. The Takazze has a far greater volume of water than either of the preceding rivers. It rises in the Samen Mountains, round which it flows first easterly, then north, till in about lat.  $18^{\circ} 30' n.$ , long.  $33^{\circ} 50' e.$  it turns north-west, and then almost due west, joining the Atbara at right angles. It has many tributaries.

From its junction with the Atbara, the Nile continues to flow northerly through the populous and fertile district of Berber, full of villages, and then enters the desert. Turning westwards, in lat.  $19^{\circ} n.$ , it forms the large island of Mograt, and makes a curve to the south-westward known as the "great bend," in which there are two cataracts. Entering Nubia, the Nile resumes its north-westerly course, with narrow strips of cultivated land on each bank. Here it forms another cataract, and bends round to the north-east with a fifth cataract, in lat.  $21^{\circ} 40' n.$  After this the valley of the Nile narrows, and at Assouan, in lat.  $24^{\circ} 10' n.$ , it forms the last cataract in descending.

From Assouan to the sea, the average fall of the Nile is two inches to a mile, and its mean velocity about three miles an hour. It waters and fertilises the whole length of the land of Egypt. The delta of the Nile extends from lat.  $30^{\circ} 10' n.$  to  $31^{\circ} 30' n.$ , and has a base on the Mediterranean of about 150 miles. In it the Nile spreads out into numerous streams, the two principal being those of Rosetta and Damietta. The total length of the Nile, from its exit from the lake to the sea, is about 3300 miles, measured along its course, or 2200 miles direct distance.

A feature peculiar to the river of Egypt is, that from its junction with the Atbara to its mouth, a distance of upwards of 1500 miles, it receives no affluent whatever, and yet it is able to contend with the burning sun, and scarcely less burning sands of Nubia. With the ancient Egyptians the river was held sacred: the god Nilus was one of the lesser divinities. Its annual overflow is one of the greatest marvels in the physical geography of the globe, for it has risen to within a few hours of the same time, and to within a few inches of the same height, year after year for unknown ages. At Khartoum it begins to increase early in April, but in Lower Egypt the inundation usually begins about the 25th of June, and attains its height in three months. It remains stationary about twelve days, and then subsides. The cultivable soil of Egypt is wholly dependent on the rise of the Nile, and its failure causes a dearth; for virtually, the country has no rain. Continuous south wind brings a good, and north wind a bad year. During a good inundation, the rise is about 40 feet on the Tropic of Capricorn, 36 feet at Thebes, and 4 feet at the Damietta and Rosetta mouths in the Delta. If at Cairo the rise is only 18 or 20 feet, there is a scarcity; up to 24 feet, a deficiency; 25 to 27 feet is good: more than that causes a flood, and fosters plague and murrain. During the inundation the whole valley is covered with water, from which the villages rise like islands, protected by dykes. Of late years the overflow has been greater than the average of many centuries. The rise and fall of the trunk stream of the lower Nile is owing to the periodicity of the rains on the mountains of Abyssinia and in the basin of Lake Nyanza, where on the equator it rains more or less all the year round, most copiously during the equinoxes. The banks of the Nile swarm with birds, among which are vultures, cormorants, geese, pelicans, quails, and the white ibis; and its sweet, soft waters teem with fish. The average amount of alluvium brought down by the river is estimated at a deposit of  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches in a century—by some, it is made as high as 6 inches; the greater part of it is brought down by the Atbara.

The question of the source of the Nile is at once the oldest and the most recent of geography. That the sources of a river, at whose mouth one of the earliest and most civilised peoples was established, should have been so long veiled in obscurity, is unparalleled in geographical research. The want of success in exploring the upper basin of the Nile may be attributed to the great length of the river, to the difficulties which beset the traveller in the physical nature of the countries he must pass through, the climate, and the jealousy, ignorance, and barbarism of the native tribes. This problem of centuries may now be regarded as satisfactorily solved; for the question whether there may not yet be found important feeders of the White Nile carrying back its source to a still greater distance in the interior, is practically excluded by Stanley's exploration of the Lualaba or Congo basin. The journeys of Krapf and Rebmann to the foot of Kilimanjaro and the other snowy mountains in the east of Africa, believed by them to be the ancient "Mountains of the Moon," and the explorations of the White Nile, pointed to the conclusion that it was among these mountains that the sources of the great river would ultimately be discovered.

There was, however, another theory. Rumors gathered from the natives pointed to lakes in the regions south of the equator, as the true sources of the Nile. To explore this country, the distinguished traveller Captain Richard Burton, accompanied by Captain Speke, started from the Zanzibar coast in 1857. Their enterprise was so far successful that they discovered Lake Tanganyika, in lat.  $5^{\circ} s.$ , long.  $36^{\circ} e.$ , and a large crescent-shaped mass of mountains, overhanging the northern half of the lake and 10,000 feet high, considered by Captain Speke to be the true Mountains of the Moon. On the shores of Lake Tanganyika, Burton was laid up by illness, and his companion, after surveying the northern portion of the lake, left him there to recruit his health, while he (Speke) proceeded northwards to discover another huge "nyanza" or lake, of the existence of which he was informed by the natives. This he accomplished on the 3d of August 1858, when he discovered the southern end of the Vic-

toria Nyanza (q. v.). In his journal he says of this immense sheet of water: "I no longer felt any doubt that the lake at my feet gave birth to that interesting river, the source of which has been the subject of so much speculation, and the object of so many explorers."

In 1861, Captain Speke, taking with him Captain Grant, returned to the lake region. The expedition approached the Victoria Nyanza again from the coast of Zanzibar; and the first place from which they obtained a view of it, during the second expedition, was the town of Mashonde on its western side. Thence they pursued their way along the shore northwards. Crossing the equator, they reached streams which are said to flow out of the lake, and further on, in the centre of its northern coast, what they considered to be the parent stream of the Nile, 150 yards in breadth, flowing over rocks of an igneous character, and forming falls 12 feet high, which Captain Speke christened the "Ripon Falls," in honor of the president of the Royal Geographical Society at the time of his starting on the expedition.

In the kingdom of Karagwé, Captain Speke found a very superior negro race, much better disposed to strangers than any of the tribes he had formerly passed through. The country occupied by this race, and that of Uganda, stretches along the Nyanza, and covers half of its western and northern shores, the Uganda being bounded on the east by the main stream of the Nile. North of it lies the kingdom of Unyoro, where the dialects belonging to the language of South Africa, and which up to this point are used by the various tribes, suddenly cease, and give place to those of the language of North Africa.

At Gondokoro, Speke and Grant were met by Mr (now Sir Samuel) Baker, who had come from Cairo to their relief. Baker, accompanied by his heroic wife, pushed still southwards, and had the happiness of discovering, in 1864, another great lake, which he called the Albert Nyanza. In 1869, he undertook a second great expedition, of a military character, at the expense of the Pasha of Egypt, to suppress slavery in the upper regions of the Nile; and has reduced under the sway of that ruler the whole valley of the river as far as the Victoria Nyanza. Sir Samuel returned in September 1873.

Meanwhile, Dr Livingstone had been working for many years, from another quarter, at the solution of the great African problem—the true source of the Nile. In 1860, he began the great journey from which he was destined never to return. Starting from the Rovuma River, in the far south, he passed round the south end of Lake Nyassa, proceeded northward, exploring the lakes Bangweolo and Mocro; and in 1869 reached Lake Tanganyika, now known to send its outflow towards the Congo, but which he sought in vain to connect with the Victoria Nyanza. In 1871, he was found by Mr Stanley at Ujiji, on Lake Tanganyika, and it was then his opinion that neither Tanganyika, nor the Albert Nyanza, nor the Victoria Nyanza was the true source of the Nile, nor any of the feeders of these lakes; but that it was to be sought in a basin lying westward of them, through which flow three large rivers, all called Lualaba, and which unite to form another great lake, which he called Lincoln. Out of this a river runs northward, which he conceived to be the main branch of the Nile. Geographers at home generally believed that Livingstone was mistaken, and had struck instead upon the source of the Congo; but the death of the great traveller before the completion of his explorations left the problem unsolved. It was not until Mr Stanley in 1876-7 followed the course of the Lualaba to its mouth that this stream was definitely proved to be identical with the Congo. Mr Stanley's explorations in 1875, ere he struck the Lualaba, have given us more accurate information as to the size and shape of the Victoria Nyanza (see NYANZA) and as to its affluent the Shimiyu.

NILO'METER (the measurer of the Nile), the name of two buildings existing in Egypt, one in the island of Rhoda, opposite to Cairo, the other at Elephantine, close to Assouan, in  $24^{\circ} 5' 23''$  n. lat. The first consists of a square well, in which is placed a graduated pillar of marble, and is called a *mekkias* or measure; the pillar contains 24 *devakhs* or cubits, each of which measure 21.886 inches, or according to Greaves, 1.824 feet, and contains 24 digits; but in its present state, it does not appear to have been intended to mark a rise of more than 16 cubits. This pillar is exceedingly slender. The building formerly had a dome, bearing a Cufic inscription, dated 847 A.D., and is said to have been erected by the Calif Mamun, or his successor Wathek Billah. The first-mentioned monarch is said to have erected another nilometer at the village of Banbenouda, in the Suez, and to have repaired an old

one at Ekhmin. The Calif El Motawukkel built the present one. The mode of calculating the increase at the nilometer is rather complex, and to a certain extent arbitrary, political and financial reasons rendering the process a mystery even to the natives. At the present day the Nile is supposed to have risen to 18 cubits when the canals are cut; this is the height of the lowest inundation; 19 cubits are considered tolerable, 20 excellent, 21 adequate, and 22 complete, 24 are ruinous. In the time of Edrisi, however, 16 cubits were considered sufficient. The object of these nilometers was to measure the amount of taxation to be imposed on the country. The nilometer at Cairo is, however, much more recent than that existing at Elephantine, which consists of a staircase between two walls descending to the Nile. One of these walls has engraved on it a series of lines at proper intervals marking the different elevations to which the river rose under the Cæsars. The cubits here are divided into 14ths or double digits, and measure 1 foot 8-625 inches. This nilometer is described by Strabo. The probability is, that many nilometers existed in the days of the Pharaohs, probably one in each city. In the days of Mœris, 8 cubits were sufficient, but 15 or 16 were required in the time of Herodotus, 456 b.c., and this was the mean under the Romans. According to Pliny, if the inundation did not exceed 12 cubits it produced a famine, 13 starved the country, 14 rejoiced it, 15 was safety, and 16 delight, and this number is symbolically represented by the number of children playing round the river god on statues of the Roman period. The oldest nilometer appears to have been erected at Memphis, and it was transferred by Constantine to a church in the vicinity of the Serapeum; but Julian sent it back to this temple, where it remained till its destruction by Theodosius. At the present day, the rise is watched for with anxiety, and proclaimed by four criers.—Hervéolte, II. 18; Strabo, lib. xvii.; Wilkinson, "Topogr. of Thebes," pp. 311—317. Hekekyan Bey, "Siriadic Monuments" (Lou. 1863), p. 145.

**NI'MBUS**, in Art, especially in Sacred Art, is the name given to the disc or halo which encircles the head of the sacred personage who is represented. Its use is almost universal in those religions of which we possess any artistic remains—the Indian, the Egyptian, the Etruscan, the Greek, and the Roman. In the Hebrew scriptures, we trace, in the absence of representations, the same symbolised idea in the light which shone upon the face of Moses at his return from Sinai (Exod. xxxiv. 29—35), and in the light with which the Lord is clothed as with a garment, Ps. ciii. 1, Vulg. (civ. 1, anth. vers.); and in the New Testament in the transfiguration of our Lord (Luke ix. 31), and in the "crowns" of the just, to which allusion is so often made (2 Tim. iv. 8; 1 Peter v. 4; Apoc. iv. 4). Nevertheless, the nimbus, strictly so called, is comparatively recent in Christian art, appearing first towards the end of the 5th century. Later in Christian art, it became almost a necessary appendage of all representations of God or of the saints. Its ordinary form is the circular or semicircular; a form, indeed, in which later symbolists discover an emblem of perfection, and of eternity; but the nimbus of the Eternal Father is often in the form of a triangle, and that of the Trinity an emanation of light, the rays of which form the three arms of a cross. The nimbus of the Virgin is sometimes a simple ring, and sometimes a crown or diadem; occasionally it is encircled by an ornamental border, on which twelve stars are sometimes represented. Her nimbus, as well as that of the Divine Persons, is commonly of gold; but that of the Virgin Mary is occasionally in colors, as blue, red, purple, or white. The nimbus of the saints is ordinarily the semicircle or lunula. Dédrou mentions the curious instance of a picture of the traitor Judas *with a black nimbus!* In later art, the nimbus became lighter and more aerial, melting, as it were, into the picture; and in Raphael's saints it occasionally fades into the very faintest indication of a golden tinge around the head. In connection with the nimbus may also be mentioned two analogous forms—the *Aureole* and the *Glory*. The former is an illumination surrounding, not the head only, but the entire figure. If the figure be upright, the aureole is commonly oval, when it is called the *vesica piscis*, and is supposed to contain an allusion to the *ichthys*. With a seated figure it becomes circular, and is occasionally divided by radiating bands, in the form of a wheel; sometimes it takes a quatrefoil form. It is commonly of gold, but occasionally also is in colors. The Glory is a combination of the nimbus and the aureole, and is chiefly seen in Byzantine pictures, and those of the early South German school.

**NIMEGUEN.** See NIJMEGEN.

NÎMES (anc. *Nemamus*), a town of France, capital of the department of Gard, stands in a fertile plain surrounded by vine-clad hills, 80 miles north-east of Moullellier, with which it is connected by railway. It consists of the town proper (ill built and dirty), and of three handsome suburbs. In the vicinity are the beautiful remains of the Roman aqueduct called the *Pont du Gard*. The chief of the modern edifices are the *Palais-de-Justice*, the theatre, and the hospitals. The *Grande Place* is embellished with one of the most magnificent fountains in France. N. contains numerous and variously-constituted educational institutions, an important public library, Maria Theresa's Museum (in the *Maison Carrée*), a museum of natural history, &c. It is the general entrepôt for the silks produced in the south of France, and its manufactures are principally silk and cotton fabrics. More than 10,000 looms are constantly in operation in the city, and about 6000 in the immediate vicinity. Shawls, handkerchiefs, lace, brandy, wines, &c., are made. Within the town are numerous and beautiful Roman remains, the chief of which are the amphitheatre; the *Maison Carrée* (Square House), a fine specimen of Corinthian architecture; a temple and fountain consecrated to Diana; *La Tour Magne* (Great Tower); the baths, and two Roman gates. See Menard's "Histoire des Antiquités de la Ville de N. et des Environs" (1838). P.-P. (1872) 55.448.

Previously to the Roman invasion, N.—which is supposed to have been founded by a colony from Massilia (Marseille)—was the chief city of the Volcae Arecomici. It flourished under the Romans, and was one of the great cities of Gaul. It surrendered to the rule of the Visigoths between 466 and 535, and afterwards to that of the Franks. Subsequently, it became a possession of Aragon; but was finally restored to France in 1259 by the treaty of Corbeil. The inhabitants adopted Calvinism in the 16th c., and on many occasions suffered severely for their religious principles. In 1791 and 1815, bloody religious and political reactions took place here.

NIMROD. See BABYLON.

NI'NEVEH, or NI'uns, a very ancient and famous city, the capital of the great Assyrian empire, said in Scripture (Gen. x. 11) to have been founded by Nimus or Nimrod. It was situated on the east bank of the Tigris, opposite to the present Mosul. According to the accounts of the classic writers, the city was of vast extent, 480 stadia, or more than 60 miles in circumference. Its walls were 100 feet high, broad enough for three chariots, and furnished with 1500 towers, each 200 feet in height. In the "Book of Jonah" it is described as an "exceeding great city of three days' journey," and one "wherein are more than sixscore thousand persons that cannot discern between their right hand and their left hand" (children or infants are probably meant). After having been for many centuries the seat of empire, it was taken after a siege of several years and destroyed by the united armies of the Medes under Cyaxares, and the Babylonians under Nabopolassar, about 625 B.C. When Herodotus, not quite 200 years afterwards, and Xenophon visited the spot, there remained only ruins. Tradition continued to point pretty accurately to the site of N.; but it is only of late years that actual explorations have been made. For an account of these, see ASSYRIA.

NINGPO, a department in the province of Chekiang, China, comprising the city of that name, the Chusan group of islands, and the cities of Tsiske, Funghai, Chiuhai, and Tsiaungshan. The port of N. is situated at the confluence of two small streams, in lat.  $29^{\circ} 59' n.$ , long.  $121^{\circ} 22' e.$ , 12 miles from the sea, on an alluvial flat of extreme fertility, intersected by a network of rivulets and canals. Its walls are five miles in circumference, about 25 feet high, 22 feet wide at the base, and 15 at the top, with six double gates. As is the case with all the cities in this part of China, N. is permeated by canals communicating with a moat nearly surrounding the walls, and with the adjacent country. In one part of the city they expand into basins, and receive the name of lakes—the Sun Lake and Moon Lake. In the former, is an island devoted to temples, and accessible by bridges. These bridges—good specimens of those aerial stone edifices which adorn this part of China—are required to sustain little more than their own weight, as the roads here are all mere footpaths, and no wheeled vehicles are found. One of the rivers is crossed by a bridge of boats, 200 yards long. The entire city is well paved; the streets are wider than those of most Chinese cities, and the display of shops is indicative of wealth and luxury. Nowhere, save at Hanchau, are such extensive and beautiful

temples to be found. The most elegant and costly of these is dedicated to the Queen of Heaven; the goddess being the daughter of a Fukien fisherman, the people of that maritime province are her more special votaries. Elaborate stone sculpture, exquisitely fine wood carving, and a profusion of gilt and tinsel, shew that no expense has been spared to honor the popular goddess.

The centre of the city is ornamented with an elegant seven-storied hexagonal tower—the heaven-bestowed pagoda, 160 feet in height. A spiral flight of steps within the walls of the tower lead to the summit, from which the gazer beholds a splendid scene; innumerable villages dot the plain, which is reticulated by silvery water-courses, replete with evidence of successful commerce and agriculture. The population of the city is about 300,000; that of the plain, about 2,000,000. On many of the hills which environ these cities, green tea is successfully cultivated; while the mulberry, the tallow-tree, and numerous other stimulants of industry abound. Two crops of rice are procured annually from the fields; while the fisheries of the rivers and adjacent coast give employment to a numerous class of the population. Ice-houses close to the river give the banks a picturesque appearance; the ice is used for curing fish. N. has an extensive coasting trade; but no considerable foreign trade has been developed, owing mainly to portages on the inland water-communications and to the proximity of Shanghai, where no such obstructions exist. The district city of Chinhai, at the mouth of the Ningpo River, is also a port. A walled town, containing about 30,000 inhabitants, 10 miles to the east of Chinhai, is Kingtang, the nearest of the Chusan archipelago. Tinghai, is the district city of the island of Chusan, which is 20 miles long, from 6 to 10 wide, and 51 in circumference. It is mountainous, with fertile valleys in a high state of cultivation. It has an excellent harbor. Tinghai was garrisoned several years by Her Majesty's forces from 1841, and was again temporarily occupied by the allied forces in 1860.—Dr Macgowan's "Lectures."

**NINIAN**, St., the apostle of the Picts, lived in the latter half of the 4th and the beginning of the 5th century. Whether Christianity had been introduced among the Picts before the time of N., has been a subject of controversy; but although the details of the legendary account are uncertain, it seems, beyond all question, that some Christians were to be found, at least among the Southern Picts, in what is now known as the Lowlands of Scotland, from the end of the 2d century. Nevertheless, either their number was originally very small, or the rising church had fallen away under adverse circumstances; and it is certain that when N. appeared among them, the Picts were in the main a pagan people. He was a Briton, and of noble birth; but had been educated at Rome, and there ordained a bishop. The exact time of his preaching in Scotland is unknown. His labors appear to have commenced in Cumbria, and to have extended over the greater part of the district as far north as the Grampian Hills, his see being fixed at Candida Casa, or Whithorn in the modern Wigfoushire. His death is placed by the Bollandists in 432; his festival is the 16th September.

**NINON DE LENCLOS**, a celebrated Frenchwoman, one of those characters that could have appeared only in the French Society of the 17th c., was born of good family at Paris in 1615. Her mother tried to imbue her mind with a love of the principles of religion and morality, but her father, more successfully, with a taste for pleasure. Even as a child she was remarkable for her beauty and the exquisite grace of her person. She was carefully educated, spoke several foreign languages, excelled in music and dancing, and had a great fund of sharp and lively wit. At the age of ten she read Montaigne's "Essays." Six years later, she commenced her long career of licentious gallantry by an amour with Gaspard de Coligny, then Comte de Chatillon. To Coligny succeeded innumerable favorites, but never more than one at a time. Among N.'s lovers we may mention the Marquis de Villarsœu, the Marquis de Sevigne, the Marquis de Gersay, the great Condé, the Duc de Luzechoncauld, Marshal d'Albret, Marshal d'Estrées, the Abbé d'Effiat, Gonville, and La Châtre. She had two sons, but never shewed in regard to them the slightest instinct of maternity. The fate of one was horrible. Brought up in ignorance of his mother, he followed the rest of the world, and conceived a passion for her. When she informed him of the relation that subsisted between them, the unhappy youth was seized with horror, and blew out his brains in a frenzy of remorse. Even

this calamity did not seriously affect N.; she was too well-bred to allow it to do that. N. was nearly as celebrated for her manners as for her beauty. The most respectable and virtuous women sent their children to her house to acquire taste, style, politeness. So great was her reputation, that when Queen Christina of Sweden came to Paris, she said she wished particularly to visit the French Academy and Ninon de Lenclos. We may gather some idea of her wit and sense from the fact that LarocheFoucauld consulted her upon his maxims, Molière upon his comedies, and Scarron upon his romances. She died 17th October 1706, at the age of 90, having preserved some remains of her beauty almost to the last.—See Guyon de Sardiére's "Vie de Ninon de Lenclos;" Saint-Evremond's "Œuvres;" Douxmesnil's "Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de Mlle de Lenclos."

NINTH, in Music, the next interval above the octave, being the same interval which an octave lower is termed the second. See INTERVAL.

NI'OBÉ, in Greek mythology, the daughter of Tantalus and (according to the most popular version of the story) the sister of Pelops. She was the wife of Amphion, king of Thebes, and bore him six sons and six daughters. Proud of her children, she despised Leto or Latona, who had only two children, Apollo and Diana, and prevented the people from the worship of these divinities: whereupon Latona, enraged, moved her children to destroy all the children of N. with their arrows. They lay nine days in their blood unburied, when Jupiter changed them into stone, and on the tenth day they were buried by the gods themselves. N. wandered about in distress, and at last was changed into stone on Mount Sipylus, between Lydia and Phrygia, retaining, however, even as stone a sense of her woe. Such is the Homeric legend, which, however, was afterwards much varied and enlarged. N. was a favorite subject of the ancient artists. A group representing N. and her children was discovered at Rome in 1593, and is now in Florence. Some of the sculptures are very beautiful. Even the ancient Romans were in doubt whether the work proceeded from Scopas or Praxiteles.

NIO'BIUM (symbol, Nb) is a rare metal discovered by H. Rose in the mineral *Tantalite*. It is obtained by reducing the double fluoride of niobium and potassium with sodium; and forms a black powder insoluble in nitric acid, but readily soluble in a mixture of nitric and hydrofluoric acids. With oxygen it forms two compounds, niobous acid,  $\text{NbO}$ , and niobic acid,  $\text{NbO}_2$ ; and chlorine, bromine, fluorine, and sulphur compounds corresponding to these acids have been prepared and examined. Neither the metal itself nor any of its compounds are of any practical importance.

NIORT, a town of France, capital of the department of Deux-Sèvres, on the Sèvre-Niortaise, is situated in an agreeable country, occupying the slope of two hills and the valley which intervenes, 110 miles north of Bordeaux. Its principal edifices are the Church of Notre-Dame, the town-hall, the theatre, and the old castle. Besides these, the beautiful Fontaine du Vivier, the promenades, the library, and the college are worthy of notice. The dressing of chamois and the manufacture of gloves are the principal branches of industry. Dyeworks and tanneries are in operation. Pop. (1872) 17,470.

N. is an ancient town. In the 14th c. it was taken by the English, and held by them for 18 years.

NIPA, a genus of endogenous plants referred by some botanists to the order *Pandanaceæ*, and by others to *Palms*. *N. fruticans* is very common in the Eastern Archipelago, and northwards as far as the Mergui River, but becomes rare further north. It flourishes with the mangrove in places inundated when the tide rises. It abounds in saccharine sap, from which a kind of *Palm Wine* is made, and also excellent sugar. The leaves are much employed for roofing houses, and large quantities are sent from the Tenesseri provinces northward for this use.

NIPADITES, a genus of fossil palm fruits found in the Eocene clays of the Island of Sheppey, in Kent. They are referred to *Nipa* as their nearest living ally, and are considered to have resembled in habit that genus, and to have grown on the banks of an immense river which flowed from the tropical regions of a continent lying to the southward, and entered the sea at Sheppey, where it deposited the fruits

and leaves borne down with the current, by the side of the starfishes and mollusca which inhabited the estuary. Some 18 different kinds have been described.

NIPO'N, or Niphon, the largest by far of the group of islands forming the empire of Japan (q. v.). It is the mainland—the England and Wales—of Dái Nipon, or Great Nipon, the Japanese name for the empire as a whole. N. is included between  $33^{\circ} 30'$ — $41^{\circ} 30'$  n. lat., and  $130^{\circ} 50'$ — $142^{\circ} 20'$  e. long. The inland sea of Suomada separates it from the islands of Kiusiu and Sikopf, and the Strait of Sangar on the north-east from the island of Yesso. On the n. it is bounded by the Sea of Japan, and on the s. and e. by the Pacific Ocean. The length of N is 900 miles, and its breadth 240; and it has an estimated area of 42 000 square miles. Yedo (q. v.) or To-Kei, the capital of the empire, and the present residence of the Mikado; Miako (q. v.), his former residence; and Osaca (q. v.), are the largest towns. The chief treaty-ports are Hiogo, the outlet for the trade of Osaca, Yokohama (q. v.) and Canaguwa (q. v.). The ports of Yedo and Niagata, in the northern part of the island, on the Sea of Japan, the official capital of the province in which it is situated, and situated near the great mineral region of Aida, but unfortunately possessing a wretched harbor. Important meteorological observations, which give a good idea of the climate of the country generally, were made by Dr Hepburn at Kanagawa, the shipping port of Yedo, in 1860. These are exhibited in a condensed form in the following table:

|                | Highest. | Lowest. | Rain in<br>Inches. | Snow in<br>Inches. | Number of<br>Earthquakes. |
|----------------|----------|---------|--------------------|--------------------|---------------------------|
| January.....   | 59° F.   | 18° F.  |                    |                    | 1                         |
| February.....  | 53       | 19      | 3½                 | 2                  | 1                         |
| March.....     | 69       | 30      | 6½                 | 1½                 | 2                         |
| April.....     | 76       | 33      | 3½                 |                    |                           |
| May.....       | 80       | 44      | 16½                |                    | 2                         |
| June.....      | 87       | 54      | 18½                |                    | 11                        |
| July.....      | 92       | 63      | 8½                 |                    | 4                         |
| August.....    | 92       | 69      | 1 1-16th           |                    | 2                         |
| September..... | 89       | 62      | 2½                 |                    | 2                         |
| October.....   | 84       | 59      | 7½                 |                    | 2                         |
| November.....  | 68       | 56      | 5                  |                    | 4                         |
| December.....  | 71       | 22      | 3½                 | 1                  | 1                         |

Breezy sea-breezes make the heat of summer very endurable. The spring and autumn months are delightful.

NIRUKTA, or "Explanation," is the name of one of the six *Vedāngas* (see VEDA) which explains difficult Vedic words. That there have been several works engaged in such a task, even at a very remote period of Hindu antiquity, and that they bore the name of Nirukta is probable, for "Nirukta authors" are quoted either generally or by name in several Sanskrit authors; but the work which is emphatically called "Nirukta," and which, for the present, is the only surviving representative of this important Vedāṅga, is that of Yāska, who was a predecessor of Pāṇini (q. v.). His work consists of three parts—the *Naighanī'uka*, where, for the most part, synonymous words are taught; the *Naigama*, which contains words that usually occur in the Vedas only; and the *Dativata*, which contains words chiefly relating to deities and sacrificial acts. A Commentary on this work has been composed by the same Yāska, and it likewise bears the name of Nirukta. In the latter, Vedic passages are quoted in illustration of the words to be explained, and the comment given by Yāska on these passages is the oldest instance, known at present to Sanskrit philology, of a Vedic gloss. Besides the great importance which Yāska's "Nirukta" thus possesses for a proper understanding of the Vedic texts, it is valuable also on account of several discussions which it raises on grammatical and other questions, and on account of the insight it affords us into the scientific and religious condition of its time.—Text and Commentary of "Yāska's Nirukta" have been edited by Professor R. Roth (Göttingen, 1852).

NIRVĀNA (from the Sanscrit *nir*, out, and *vāna*, blown; hence, literally, that

which is blown out or extinguished) is, in Buddhistic doctrine, the term denoting the final deliverance of the soul from transmigration. It implies, consequently, the last aim of Buddhistic existence, since transmigration is tantamount to a relapse into the evils or miseries of *Samsara*, or the world. But as Hinduism, or the Brahmanical doctrine, professes to lead to the same end, the difference between *Nirvana* and *Moksha*, *Apavarga*, or the other terms of Brahmanism designating eternal bliss, and consequent liberation from metempsychosis, rests on the difference of the ideas which both doctrines connect with the condition of the soul after that liberation. *Brahman*, according to the Brahmanical doctrine, being the existing and everlasting cause of the universe, eternal happiness is, to the Brahmanical Hindu, the absorption of the human soul into that cause whence it emanated, never to depart from it again. According to this doctrine, therefore, the liberation of the human soul from transmigration is equivalent to that state of felicity which religion and philosophy attribute to that Entity (see INDIA—Religion). As, however, the ultimate cause of the universe, according to Buddhism, is the Void or Non-entity, the deliverance from transmigration is, to the Buddhist, the return to non-entity, or the absolute extinction of the soul. However much, then, the pious phraseology of their oldest works may embellish the state of *Nirvana*, and apparently deceive the believer on its real character, it cannot alter this fundamental idea inherent in it. We are told, for instance, that *Nirvana* is quietude and identity, whereas *Samsara* is turmoil and variety; that *Nirvana* is freedom from all conditions of existence, whereas *Samsara* is birth, disease, decrepitude and death, sin and pain, merit and demerit, virtue and vice; that *Nirvana* is the shore of salvation for those who are in danger of being drowned in the sea of *Samsara*; that it is the free port ready to receive those who have escaped the dungeon of existence, the medicine which cures all diseases, the water which quenches the thirst of all desires, &c.; but to the mind of the orthodox Buddhist, all these definitions convey but the one idea, that the blessings promised in the condition of *Nirvana* are tantamount to the absolute "extinction of the human soul," after it has obeyed, in this life, all the injunctions of Buddhism, and become convinced of all its tenets on the nature of the world and the final destination of the soul.

Although this is the orthodox view of *Nirvana*, according to the oldest Buddhistic doctrine, it is necessary to point out two categories of different views which have obscured the original idea of *Nirvana*, and even induced some modern writers to believe that the final beatitude of the oldest Buddhistic doctrine is not equivalent to the absolute annihilation of the soul.

The first category of these latter, or, as we may call them, heterodox views, is that which confounds with *Nirvana* the preparatory labor of the mind to arrive at that end, and therefore assumes that *Nirvana* is the extinction of thought, or the cessation, to thought, of all difference between subject and object, virtue and vice, &c., or certain speculations on a creative cause, the conditions of the universe, and so on. All these views the Buddha himself rejects, as appears from the work "*Lankavatara*" (q. v.), where relating his discourse on the real meaning of *Nirvana*, before the Bodhisattva Mahamati. The erroneousness of those views is obviously based on the fact, that the mind, even though in a state of unconsciousness, as when ceasing to think, or when speculating, is still within the pale of existence. Thus, to obviate the mistaken notion that such a state is the real *Nirvana*, Buddhistic works sometimes use the term *Nirupadhis esha Nirvana* or "the *Nirvana* without a remainder of substratum" (i. e., without a rest of existence), in contradistinction to the "*Nirvana* with a remainder," meaning by the latter expression that condition of a saint which, in consequence of his bodily and mental austerities, immediately precedes his real *Nirvana*, but in which, nevertheless, he is still an occupant of the material world.

The second category of heterodox views on the *Nirvana* is that which, though acknowledging in principle the original notion of Buddhistic salvation, represents, as it were, a compromise with the popular mind. It belongs to a later period of Buddhism, when this religion, in extending its conquests over Asia, had to encounter creeds which abhorred the idea of an absolute nihilism. This compromise coincides with the creation of a Buddhistic pantheon, and with the classification of Buddhist saints into three classes, each of which has its own *Nirvana*; that of the two lower degrees consisting of a vast number of years, at the

end of which, however, these saints are born again; while the absolute Nirvâna is reserved for the highest class of saints. Hence Buddhistic salvation is then spoken of, either simply as *Nirvâna*, or the lowest, or as *Parinirvâna*, the middle, or as *Mahâparinirvâna*, or the highest extinction of the soul; and as those who have not yet attained to the highest Nirvâna must live in the heavens of the two inferior classes of saints until they reappear in this world, their condition of Nirvâna is assimilated to that state of more or less material happiness which is also held out to the Brahmanical Hindu before he is completely absorbed into Brahman.

When, in its large stage, Buddhism is driven to the assumption of an Adi, or primitive, Buddha, as the creator of the universe, Nirvâna, then meaning the absorption into him, ceases to have any real affinity with the original Buddhistic term. See BUDDHISM and LAMAISM.

**NISCE'MI**, a town of Sicily, in the province of Caltanisetta, 10 miles north-east from Terranova, and on the right bank of the river Terranova. In 1790, this town was visited by an earthquake, and during seven shocks the ground gradually sank, in one place to the depth of 80 feet. Fissures opened, which sent forth sulphur, petroleum, hot water, and mud. Pop. 10,750.

**NISCH**, or Nissa, a town of Romenia, European Turkey, 122 miles south-east from Belgrade. It stands on the left bank of the river Nissawa, a branch of the Morava. The town is ill-built, but many new houses and a well-supplied bazaar, attest its present prosperity. N. has long been noted as the point of meeting of many roads, both of military and commercial importance. It seems likely to acquire fresh importance by the construction of a railway from Belgrade to Constantinople and Thessalonica. In ancient times, N. bore the name of *Naissoe*, and was a flourishing town of Upper Mœsia. About a mile from it is a tower composed of human skulls, erected to commemorate a victory of the Turks over the Servians; and not far off is the hill of Woinik, or Kriegsburg, where, in 1689, the Markgraf Louis of Baden, with 17,000 men, destroyed Turkish army of 40,000. Pop. 18,000.

**NISHAPU'R**, or Nûshapur. a town of Persia, province of Khorassan, 58 miles west-south-west of Meshid, is situated in a most beautiful and fertile valley. Pop. about 8000. It is surrounded by a rampart and trench, and has a considerable trade in *turquoises*, which are obtained from mines in its vicinity.

**NISI PRIUS** is the name (borrowed from the first two words of the old writ which summoned juries) usually given in England to the sittings of juries in civil cases. Thus a judge sitting at *nisi prius*, means a judge presiding at a jury trial in a civil cause, and the *nisi prius* sittings are the jury sittings.

**NI'SIBIS**, the capital of ancient Mygdonia, the north-eastern part of Mesopotamia. It was situated in a fertile district, and was of importance, both as a place of strength and as an emporium of the trade between the east and west. N. was a city of very great antiquity, but of its remoter history nothing is known. In the time of the Macedono-Syrian kings, it was also called *Antiochæa Mygdonæ*. It was twice taken by the Romans (under Lucullus and Trajan), and again given up by them to the Armenians; but being a third time taken by Lucius Verus, 165 A.D., it remained the chief bulwark of the Roman empire against the Persians, till it was surrendered to them by Jovian after the death of Julian in 363. The name *Nisibin* is retained by a small village in the Turkish ejalet of Diarbekr, round which are numerous remains of the ancient city.

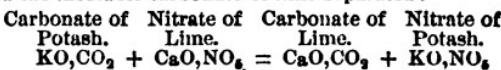
**NI'TI-GHAUT**, a pass of the Himalaya, between the British district of Kumaon and Tibet. It takes its name from the village of Niti, in Kumaon, 18 miles south of the pass, in lat.  $30^{\circ} 47' n.$ , and long.  $79^{\circ} 58' e.$  The pass is 16,814 feet above the level of the sea. This is regarded as the easiest pass between Kumaon and Tibet, and is consequently one of the principal channels of trade between Hindustan and Chinese Tartary. The Bhotias of Niti subsist chiefly by the carrying of goods in this trade. The articles of merchandise are conveyed on yaks, goats, and even sheep. Travellers often suffer much from difficulty of respiration on the pass of Nisi-Ghaut, on account of the rarefaction of the air.

1. **NITRATE OF POTASH.** See NITRE.

## NITRATE OF SODA. See NITRE.

NITRE, or Saltpetre, as it is frequently called, is the nitrate of potash ( $KO_3NO_6$ ). It usually occurs in long, colorless, striated, six-sided prisms; its taste is cooling, and very saline; it is soluble in seven times its weight of water at  $60^\circ$ , and in less than one-third of its weight of boiling water, but is insoluble in alcohol. When heated to about  $660^\circ$ , it fuses without decomposition into a thin liquid, which, when cast in moulds, solidifies into a white, fibrous, translucent mass, known as *sal prunelle*. At a higher temperature, part of the oxygen is evolved, and nitrate of potash is formed. Owing to the facility with which nitre parts with its oxygen, it is much employed as an oxidising agent. Mixtures of nitre and carbon, or of nitre and sulphur, or of nitre, carbon, and sulphur, deflagrate on the application of heat with great energy; and if nitre be thrown on glowing coals, it produces a brisk scintillation. *Touch-paper* is formed by dipping paper in a solution of nitre, and drying it.

Nitre occurs as a natural product in the East Indies, Egypt, Persia, where it is found sometimes as an efflorescence upon the soil, and sometimes disseminated through its upper stratum. The crude salt is obtained by lixiviating the soil, and allowing the solution to crystallise. A large quantity of nitre is artificially formed in many countries of Europe, by imitating the conditions under which it is naturally produced. The most essential of these conditions seem to be the presence of decaying organic matter whose nitrogen is oxidised by the action of the atmosphere into nitric acid, which combines with the bases (potash and lime) contained in the soil. "The method employed in the artificial production of nitre consists in placing animal matters, mingled with ashes and lime rubbish, in loosely aggregated heaps, exposed to the air, but sheltered from rain. The heaps are watered from time to time with urine or stable runnings; at suitable intervals, the earth is lixiviated, and the salt crystallised. Three years usually elapse before the nitre bed is washed; after this interval a cubic foot of the debris should yield between four and five ounces of nitre. As there is always a considerable quantity of the nitrates of lime and magnesia present, which will not crystallise, carbonate of potash, in the shape of wood-ashes, is added so long as any precipitate occurs. The nitrate of lime is decomposed, and the insoluble carbonate of lime separated:



The clear liquor is then evaporated and crystallised. It has been found that the earth in which nitre has once been formed furnishes fresh nitre more readily than on the first occasion. Care is taken that the *nitre plantations*, as they are termed, shall rest upon an impervious flooring of clay, so that the liquid which drains away from them may be collected and preserved."—Miller's "Elements of Chemistry," 2d ed. vol. ii. p. 359.

Nitre does not occur in any living members of the animal kingdom, but it is found in the juices of various plants, amongst which may be named the sunflower, nettle, goose-foot, borage, tobacco, barley, &c.

All the nitre used in this country comes from the East Indies. The common varieties, which have a dirty yellowish appearance, are termed *rough* or *crude salt-petre*, while the purer kinds are called *East India refined*. The purification or refining of nitre is effected by dissolving it in water, boiling the solution, removing the scum, straining it while hot, and setting it aside to crystallise. The most common impurities are sulphate of potash, chlorides of sodium and potassium, and nitrate of lime. Chloride of barium will detect the first of these impurities, nitrate of silver the second, and oxalate of ammonia the third.

Nitre is employed in the manufacture of sulphuric acid, in the preparation of nitric acid, as an oxidising agent in numerous chemical processes, as an ingredient of fireworks, and especially in the manufacture of gunpowder. It is extensively used in medicine. In moderate doses (from ten grains to a scruple) it acts as a refrigerant, diuretic, and diaphoretic, and hence its use is indicated when we wish to diminish abnormal heat, and to reduce the action of the pulse, as in febrile disorders and hemorrhages. In acute rheumatism, it is given in large doses with great benefit. Some physicians prescribe as much as one, two, or three ounces, largely diluted

with water, to be given in the course of twenty hours; but as in several cases a single ounce has proved fatal in a few hours, the effects of such large doses should be carefully watched. It is a popular remedy in sore throat, either in the form of nitre balls, or powdered and mixed with white sugar. In either case, the remedy should be retained in the mouth till it melts, and the saliva impregnated with it gently swallowed. The inhalation of the fumes produced by the ignition of touch-paper often gives speedy relief in cases of spasmodic asthma.

Nitrate of potash is sometimes called *Prismatic Nitre* or *Potash Saltpetre*, to distinguish it from nitrate of soda, which is known in commerce as *Cubic Nitre* or *Soda Saltpetre*.

*Cubic Nitre*, or *Nitrate of Soda* ( $\text{NaO}_2\text{NO}_3$ ), occurs abundantly on the surface of the soil in Chili and Peru. It derives its name from its crystallising in cube-like rhombobedrons. In most of its properties it resembles ordinary nitre, but in consequence of its greater deliquescence, it cannot be substituted for that salt in the preparation of gunpowder. Being considerably cheaper than the potash-salt, cubic nitre is often substituted for it in the manufacture of nitric and sulphuric acids; and it is used in agriculture as the top-dressing for wheat and oats. In several experiments it has been found that one cwt. per acre has produced an increase of twelve bushels in the wheat crop, and of four or five sacks in the oat crop.

**NITRIC ACID** is the most important of the five compounds which oxygen forms with Nitrogen (q. v.). Until 1849, it was only known in the hydrated form (the *aqua fortis* of the older chemists), but in that year Deville shewed that *Anhydrous Nitric Acid*, or *Nitric Anhydride* ( $\text{NO}_3$ ), might be obtained in transparent colorless crystals by the action of perfectly dry chlorine gas on well-dried crystals of nitrate of silver, the reaction being exhibited in the equation:

Nitrate of Silver. Chlorine. Chloride of Silver. Nitric Anhydride. Oxygen.



It is a very unstable compound, and sometimes explodes spontaneously. It dissolves in water with evolution of much heat, and forms hydrated nitric acid.

*Hydrated Nitric Acid* (symb.  $\text{HO}_2\text{NO}_3$ , equiv. 63, sp. gr. 1.551), when perfectly pure is a colorless limpid, fuming, powerfully caustic fluid, possessing an intensely acid reaction, as shewn by its action on litmus. It boils at  $184^\circ$ , and freezes at about  $-40^\circ$ . It parts very readily with a portion of its oxygen to most of the metals, and hence is much used in the laboratory as an oxidising agent. Its mode of action on the metals requires a few remarks. In order that a metal should unite with nitric, or any other acid, it is necessary that it should be in the form of an oxide. This oxidation is, however, effected at the same time that the metal and nitric acid are brought in contact, by one portion of the latter becoming decomposed and converting the metal into an oxide, while the remaining portion combines with the oxide thus formed, to produce a nitrate. The exact nature of the decomposition varies in the case of different metals.

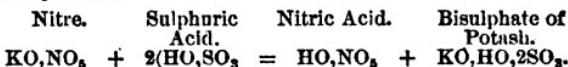
Nitric acid, whether in the concentrated or in a more dilute form, acts energetically on organic matters. As examples of such actions we may refer to its power of decolorising indigo; of staining the skin and all albuminous tissues of a bright-yellow color; of coagulating fluid albumen; and of converting cotton fibre into an explosive substance. See GUN COTTON.

The monohydrated acid ( $\text{HO}_2\text{NO}_3$ ) is by no means a stable compound. If it be exposed to the action of light it is decomposed into hyponitric acid ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) (the peroxide of nitrogen of Graham) and oxygen; and mere distillation produces a similar effect. When it is mixed with water it emits a sensible amount of heat, owing to the formation of a much more stable hydrate,  $\text{HO}_2\text{NO}_3 \cdot +8\text{Aq.}$  which distils at  $250^\circ$  without change, and is unaffected by exposure to light. Its specific gravity is 1.424; and it is found that a weaker acid when heated parts with its water, and a stronger acid with its acid, till each arrives at this density. The existence of this hydrate has, however, been recently called in question by Roscoe.

The so-called *Fuming Nitric Acid* is merely a mixture of the pure acid with hyponitric acid.

Nitric acid does not occur naturally in a free state; but it is found tolerably abundant in combination with potash, soda, lime, and magnesia; and after thunderstorms traces of it, in combination with ammonia, are found in rain water. It may

be formed in small quantity by passing a series of electric sparks through a mixture of its component gases in the presence of water, which is a mere imitation, on a small scale, of the mode in which it is produced in the atmosphere by a storm. It is usually prepared in the laboratory by the application of heat to a mixture of equal weights of powdered nitre (nitrate of potash) and oil of vitriol (hydrated sulphuric acid) placed in a retort. A combination of sulphuric acid and potash remains in the retort, while the nitric acid distils over, and is condensed in the receiver, which is kept cool by the application of a wet cloth. The reaction is explained by the equation :



During distillation red fumes appear, arising from the decomposition of a portion of the nitric acid and a formation of some of the lower oxides of nitrogen. In this operation two equivalents of oil of vitriol are taken for one of nitre, these being the proportions found by experience to be most suitable. If they are taken, equivalent for equivalent, a very impure red fuming acid is the result. In the manufacture of nitric acid on the large scale, the glass retort is replaced by a cast-iron cylinder coated with fire-clay, and the receiver by a series of earthen condensing vessels connected by tubes ; and nitrate of soda, found native in Peru, is substituted for nitre in consequence of its being a cheaper salt, and of its containing 9 per cent. more nitric acid.

Nitric acid combines with bases to form *nitrates*, some of which, as those of potash, soda, oxide of ammonium, silver, &c., are anhydrous, while others combine with a certain number (often six) equivalents of water of crystallisation. Most of them are soluble in water, crystallisable, and readily fusible by heat; and at an elevated temperature they are all decomposed, usually leaving only the oxide of the metal. If paper be soaked in a solution of a nitrate, allowed to dry, and ignited, it burns in the smouldering mode characteristic of *touch-paper*. This property is, however, shared by a few other salts.

The tests for this acid when it is present in small quantities are less satisfactory than those for the other ordinary mineral acids. All its compounds are so soluble that no *precipitant* for this acid is known. The best method for its detection is mixing the fluid to be tested with a little concentrated sulphuric acid, and then pouring a strong solution of proto-sulphate of iron upon it, so as to form a separate layer. If much nitric acid be present, a black color is produced; if only a small quantity is present, the liquid becomes reddish-brown or purple; the dark color being due to the formation of nitric oxide by the deoxidising action of a portion of the iron salt on the nitric acid.

The applications of this acid in the arts, in manufactures, and in chemical processes are very extensive.

**NITRIC ACID.** The medicinal uses of. In the British pharmacopœia there is both a strong and a dilute acid. The strong acid has a specific gravity of 1·6, and is represented by the formula  $8\text{HO}_2\text{NO}_3$ , while the diluted acid is prepared by mixing two ounces of the former with thirteen of distilled water, and has a specific gravity of 1·101.

The dilute acid is used internally as a tonic in conjunction with bitter infusions. In many cases of chronic inflammation of the liver, and in syphilitic cases in which the employment of mercurials is inadmissible, it may be prescribed with great benefit, either alone or in conjunction with hydrochloric acid, externally as a bath or lotion, or internally in doses of about 20 minims properly diluted. The strong acid is useful as an escharotic; as to destroy warts, some kinds of polyp, the unhealthy tissue in sloughing ulcers, &c., and as an application to parts bitten by rabid or venomous animals. Largely diluted, as 50 or 60 drops of the strong acid to a pint or more of water, it forms an excellent stimulative application to torpid ulcers.

**NI'TRO-BE'NZOL**, or Nitro-Benzide ( $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NO}_2$ ), is a yellow oily fluid, of specific gravity 1·2, which may be distilled without decomposition, crystallises in needles at  $37^\circ$ , and boils at  $315^\circ$ . It has a sweet taste, is insoluble in water, but dissolves freely in alcohol and ether. Its odor is very similar to that of oil of bitter-almonds,

which has led to its use in perfumery, under the name of *Essence of Nirbane*. It is obtained by treating benzol ( $C_{12}H_8$ ) with warm fuming nitric acid, when 1 equivalent of the hydrogen is replaced by 1 of hyponitric acid, so that the benzol ( $C_{12}H_6H$ ) becomes converted into nitro-benzol ( $C_{12}H_6NO_2$ ).

**NITRO-BENZOL.** This substance has recently taken a prominent place amongst the narcotic poisons. Under the name of *Essence of Nirbane*, it is largely employed, as a substitute, in perfumery and confectionery, for oil of bitter almonds, which it closely resembles in smell, and to confectionery it gives the smell, but not the agreeable taste of that oil. It is a pale, lemon-colored liquid, with a pungent, disagreeable taste, and distinguishable by its odor from all other liquids, except oil of bitter almonds, from which it differs in the following reaction: Pour a few drops of each on a plate, and add a drop of strong sulphuric acid. The oil of almonds acquires a rich crimson color with a yellow border, while the nitro-benzol produces no such color. In 1859, Professor Casper of Berlin published an account of this liquid under the name of "A New Poison," and described its effects on dogs and rabbits. In 1862, and since that date, various cases of human poisoning have been published, both in this country and abroad. We shall briefly notice three cases, in two of which the patient died, after swallowing a portion of the fluid; while in the other, the inhalation of the vapor proved fatal. A boy, aged 17, while drawing off some nitro-benzol by a siphon, swallowed a portion of the liquid. There were no immediate symptoms; but he soon felt sleepy, and when at dinner, ate but little, and said he felt as if he was drunk. This was between two and three hours after he had swallowed the liquid. He fell into a stupor, which became deeper and deeper, until death took place, without vomiting or convulsions, twelve hours after the ingestion of the poison. In the case of a man, aged 48, who spilled a quantity of nitro-benzol over his clothes, and went about for several hours breathing the vapor, the effects were nearly the same. The progress of each of these cases, both of which are described by Dr Letheby in the "Proceedings of the Royal Society" for 1863, was much the same as that of slow intoxication, excepting that the mind was perfectly clear until the coming on of the fatal stupor, which was sudden, as in a fit of apoplexy. From that moment, there was no return of consciousness or bodily power; the sufferer lay as in a deep sleep, and died without a struggle. The duration of each case was nearly the same, about four hours intervening between the swallowing or inhaling of the poison and the beginning of stupor or coma, which lasted five hours. Nitro-benzol, as well as aniline, into which it seems to have been partly converted in the body, was detected in the brain and stomach. It is unnecessary to describe the steps to be taken for the detection of the poison in all these cases: no one but a professed toxicologist should be intrusted with an investigation on the result of which the life and character of a human being may depend. It is satisfactory to read Dr Taylor's opinion, that "there is no probability that this liquid will be successfully employed for the purposes of murder without the certainty of detection"—"Principles and Practice of Medical Jurisprudence," p. 311. It is worthy of notice that the vapor of this substance, as it is evolved from almond glycerine soap, has seriously affected females; and Dr Taylor mentions the case of a gentleman who, from using a cake of the soap in taking a warm bath, fainted from the effects of the vapor, and was ill for some months afterwards. The mode of treatment that should be adopted in poisoning by this substance, is essentially the same as that which should be adopted in poisoning by opium. —

**NITROGEN** (symbol, N; equiv. 14; spec. grav. 0.9718) derives its name from the Greek words *nitron*, nitre, and *gen-*, to produce, in consequence of its being an essential constituent of that salt. It is frequently termed *azote* (Gr. *a*, priv., *zoe*, life), especially by the French chemists, in consequence of its being a gas incapable of supporting life, and for the same reason, the German chemists term it *stickstoff*, which may be translated *choking substance*. It was discovered by Rutherford in 1772; but for its name, nitrogen, we are indebted to Chaptal.

Nitrogen is colorless, tasteless, inodorous, permanent gas, which in its appearance in no way differs from the atmospheric air, of which it is the main ingredient. It is somewhat lighter than atmospheric air, 100 cubic inches at 60° F., and barometer 30 inches, weighing 30.119 grains, while the same volume of air weighs 30.935

inches. It is characterised rather by negative than by positive properties. It is not combustible, nor is it a supporter of combustion (a lighted taper being immediately extinguished if immersed in this gas); it is not respirable, although it is not positively poisonous; for when it is mixed with respirable gases (as with oxygen in atmospheric air) it may be breathed without injury. It is very slightly soluble in water, and hence may be collected over that fluid. Its combining powers are very slight, and although it unites with oxygen, hydrogen, chlorine, and many other substances, the union is never effected by the direct action of the elements on one another, but only by complicated processes, and many of the resulting compounds are of an exceedingly unstable nature.

Nitrogen is one of the most widely diffused elementary substances. It forms about four-fifths of the bulk of the atmosphere; for air, after having been freed from the small quantities of carbuncle acid and aqueous vapor which it contains, consists, according to the experiments of Dumas and Boussingault, of 20·81 per cent. of oxygen and 79·19 per cent of nitrogen by volume, or 23·01 of oxygen and 76·99 of nitrogen by weight; the two gases in this case being uniformly mixed, but not in chemical combination with one another. It occurs, however, in combination with oxygen in the form of nitric acid ( $\text{HO}_2\text{NO}_2$ ) in various nitrates, which are found as natural products in many parts of the globe. In combination with hydrogen, it is abundantly found as ammonia, and combined with oxygen, hydrogen and carbon, and sometimes additionally with sulphur and phosphorus, it forms the most important constituents of the solids and fluids of the animal body, and occurs in many vegetable products, especially in the alkaloids, such as morphia, strychnia, quinia, &c.

The ordinary methods of preparing and exhibiting this gas are based upon the removal of the oxygen from atmospheric air. This may be done (1) By setting fire to a small piece of phosphorus placed in a capsule, that floats on the water of the pneumatic trough, and by inverting a glass receiver filled with air over it. The phosphorus combines with the oxygen of the air to form phosphoric acid, which dissolves in the water, while the nitrogen is left, and must be transferred to another vessel. (2) By placing a stick of phosphorus in a jar of air which is standing over water. In two or three days there will be the same results as in the former experiment—viz., phosphoric acid and nitrogen; (3) Or by passing air through a tube containing heated copper filings, which absorb the oxygen. In the above cases, a little carbonic acid is present, which may be removed by passing the gas through a solution of potash. Pure nitrogen may be directly obtained by the action of chlorine gas on a solution of the nitrogenous substance, ammonia.

Nitrogen forms with oxygen no less than five distinct compounds, containing, respectively, 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 equivalents of oxygen, with 1 equivalent of nitrogen. These compounds are thus named and constituted: Protoxide of Nitrogen (known also as Nitrous Oxide and Laughing Gas),  $\text{NO}$ ; Biouoxide (or Dentoxide) of Nitrogen (known also as Nitric Oxide),  $\text{NO}_2$ ; Nitrous Acid,  $\text{NO}_3$ ; Hyponitric Acid (known also as Peroxide of Nitrogen),  $\text{NO}_4$ ; Nitric Acid,  $\text{NO}_5$ .

*Protoxide of Nitrogen* is a transparent, colourless gas, with a sweetish taste and smell. It is much more soluble in cold than in hot water, and therefore should be collected over the latter. Under a pressure of 50 atmospheres at  $45^\circ$  it is reduced to a colorless liquid, and it may be frozen into a transparent solid at about  $-150^\circ$ . This gas is about half as heavy again as atmospheric air, its specific gravity being 1·527. It supports the combustion of many bodies, such as carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, and iron, with a brilliancy similar to that which they exhibit in oxygen; and, like oxygen, when mixed with hydrogen, it forms a mixture which explodes on the application of a flame. The most remarkable property of the gas is its intoxicating power on the animal system. It may be respired for a short time if quite pure, or if only mixed with atmospheric air, without danger or serious inconvenience. The intoxication is frequently accompanied with an irresistible propensity to muscular exertion, and usually with uncontrollable bursts of laughter, and hence the gas has received the name of *laughing gas*. It is best obtained by heating solid nitrate of ammonia in a glass retort; when it is converted into protoxide of nitrogen and water. It has recently come into frequent use as an anaesthetic in dentistry and similar cases. It is less suited to protracted operations, as the effects are transient, \* produces much less disturbance of the system than chloroform.

*Binoxide of Nitrogen* is a colorless gas, very slightly soluble in water, and having a specific gravity of 1.089. Its taste and smell (if any) are unknown, since, in the presence of atmospheric air, it instantly becomes more highly oxidized, and forms yellowish-red fumes of hyponitric acid. As it is of little importance, it is unnecessary here to describe the mode of obtaining it.

*Nitrous Acid*, or *Nitrous Anhydride*, is a substance of which, in its uncombined state, very little is yet known further than that it is a dark-blue, very volatile fluid, which boils at 82°, and is then converted into an orange-red gas.

*Hyponitric Acid* presents a remarkable example of a body within comparatively small limits of temperature occurring in a solid, a fluid, and a gaseous form. At a temperature of -4° it occurs in the form of colorless prismatic crystals, which are converted at about 9° into a fluid which, till the temperature reaches about 30°, is colorless; but at a higher temperature becomes yellow and orange, and at about 82° boils, and is converted into a brownish-red vapor. It is chiefly the vapor of hyponitric acid that forms the orange fumes that are produced when binoxide of nitrogen comes in contact with the air. It possesses a very disagreeable suffocating odor, and a caustic action, and colors the skin yellow, like nitric acid. It does not enter into combination with bases, but is immediately decomposed by them into nitric and nitrous acids; and it is in consequence of its not possessing this essential character of an acid that Graham has given it the name of *peroxide of nitrogen*, a term that has since been adopted by Miller and other chemists.

*Nitric Acid* is described in a special article.

Nitrogen combines with hydrogen in four proportions, but none of these compounds can be formed by the direct union of the component elements, and only one of them, viz., ammonia, has been obtained in the isolated form. They are—*Imidogen*,  $(\text{NH}_2)_2$ , *Amidogen* ( $\text{NH}_3$ ), *Ammonia* ( $\text{NH}_3$ ), and *Ammonium* ( $\text{NH}_4$ ). Of these, the first two will be noticed under **ORGANIC BASES**, while the last two are sufficiently described under **AMMONIA**.

Nitrogen combines with chlorine, bromine, and iodine. The *chlorine of nitrogen* is a heavy, oily, orange-colored fluid, insoluble in water, and evolving a vapor of a highly irritating nature. It is one of the most dangerous compounds known in chemistry, as it explodes with extreme violence when brought in contact with phosphorus, arsenic, potash, ammonia, caoutchouc, numerous oily matters, &c., at ordinary temperatures, and spontaneously when heated to above 200°. It has occasioned so many serious accidents that we shall omit all details regarding its mode of preparation. Its exact formula is unknown. *Bromide of Nitrogen* is an oily-looking detonating liquid, resembling the chloride in appearance and properties. *Iodide of Nitrogen* occurs as a black powder, which, when dry, explodes upon the slightest touch, and often without any assignable cause.

Nitrogen enters into combination with various metals, as mercury, copper, titanium, molybdenum, and vanadium, forming a class of compounds to which the term *Nitrides* is applied. Their most marked characteristic is, that, like the preceding set of compounds, they are highly explosive, resolving themselves when struck, or at a high temperature, into their constituent elements.

**NITRO-GLYCERINE** [ $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{N}_3\text{O}_{10}$ , or  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5(\text{NO}_2)_3\text{O}_6$ ], known also as *Glonoin* or *Glonorn Oil*, is a compound which is produced by the action of a mixture of strong nitric and sulphuric acids on glycerine at low temperatures. Two methods of preparing it are given in Watts's "Dictionary of Chemistry," vol. ii. pp. 890, 891, to which we must refer the reader who seeks for details on this subject. According to whatever method it is prepared, it is obtained as a light yellow oily liquid, of specific gravity varying from 1.525 to 1.6, inodorous, but having a sweet pungent aromatic taste; a single drop, however, if placed on the back of the tongue, produces headache and pain in the back, which last for many hours. It is only slightly soluble in water, but dissolves readily in ether, alcohol, and methylated spirits; according to Adriani (the "Chemical News" for January 8, 1868), it does not inflame or explode when touched by a light; but regarding its inflammability there seems a difference of opinion, for Richter of Freiberg, in a recent Memoir, entitled "Experiments with Nitro-glycerine," observes that it does not take fire easily, and when lighted, burns, but does not explode, and goes out as soon as the flame with which it has been brought in contact is taken away. On this very important point further experiments are required. But although contact with flame does not cause it to explode,

this result follows if it is exposed to a moderately strong blow or concussion, to the concussion due to the explosion of gunpowder, to contact with red-hot iron, and especially to the action of detonating mixtures - and fulminates; it likewise explodes on exposure to a high temperature (see below); the explosion, however it is produced, being in all cases excessively rapid, and unaccompanied by smoke. It is this explosive power that renders this compound a useful agent in blasting. According to Dr Rudolf Wagner, the distinguished Bavarian technologist, it may be cooled down to  $4^{\circ}$  without becoming solid; but this statement probably refers to the chemically pure compound; for the nitro-glycerine of commerce, which has been patented by a German, under the name of *Nobel's Patent Blasting Oil*, becomes solid if exposed for a considerable time to a temperature of  $48^{\circ}$ , crystallising in long needles, which are most dangerous to handle, since they explode, even on being gently broken, with appalling violence. At  $320^{\circ}$ , nitro-glycerine begins (according to Dr Adriani) to decompose, giving off red vapors; and if the heat be suddenly applied, or slightly raised above this point, the substance explodes with great violence; while, according to other observers, it is liable to explode at  $240^{\circ}$ , or a little higher; and if exposed for a length of time to half that temperature, explosion may take place at  $180^{\circ}$  or less. It is obvious from the formula for nitro-glycerine that it may be assumed to consist of glycerine,  $C_3H_5O_3$ , in which three atoms of hydrogen are replaced by three of peroxide of nitrogen,  $NO_2$ . The products of the complete combustion of 100 parts of pure nitro-glycerine are—water, 20 parts; carbonic acid, 58; oxygen, 8·5; and nitrogen, 18·5; and hence, it has been calculated that one volume (say, a cubic inch) of this compound, at a specific gravity of 1·6, yields, on combustion or explosion:

|                    |      |                             |
|--------------------|------|-----------------------------|
| Aqueous vapor..... | 554  | volumes (say, cubic inches) |
| Carbonic acid..... | 469  | " "                         |
| Oxygen.....        | 39   | " "                         |
| Nitrogen.....      | 236  | " "                         |
|                    | 1298 | " "                         |

According to Nobel, these gases expand, on explosion, to 8 times their bulk; in which case, 1 cubic measure (say, 1 cubic inch) of nitro-glycerine will yield 10,384 cubic measures (say, cubic inches) of gases; while 1 cubic measure of gunpowder will only yield 800 cubic measures of gases. Hence, it follows that, for equal bulk, nitro-glycerine is 13 times as strong as gunpowder, while for equal weights it is 8 times as strong.

The danger of using this compound in mining, &c., is greatly increased by its instability. Even when pure, it is liable, at a heat of  $70^{\circ}$  or less, to undergo slow spontaneous decomposition into glycerine, oxalic and hydrocyanic acids, ammonia, &c., with a continuous escape of gaseous products, which, exerting pressure on the liquid, renders it so prone to explosion that even a slight concussion is attended with danger; and the impure commercial compound decomposes far more rapidly than the pure nitro-glycerine: indeed, impure nitro-glycerine may, from this cause, be regarded as "dangerously self-explosive even while standing quietly" (Adriani, *op. cit.*).

Many of our readers doubtless recollect the history of a terrific explosion that took place on board the ship *European*, when lying in harbor at Colon, Panama, on the 3d of April 1866. Amongst the cargo put on board at Liverpool were 70 cases of nitro-glycerine, and one case containing 70,000 percussion-caps. At 7 A.M. on the 3d, a most tremendous explosion occurred in the after-part of the ship. It was described as most rapid, without smoke, but with a great flame, and the ship was immediately seen to be on fire. The whole of the deck and cabin aft were carried away, and the side of the ship was also much damaged, the plates above the water-line being blown away, and the parts below it being much injured. For fear of further explosions, the ship was towed into the bay, where she shortly sank. Nor was the injury confined to the *European*; the jetty was nearly blown away, and a vessel lying on the other side of it was much damaged. Houses in the town were also partially destroyed, the floors in many cases being torn up; and altogether about 50 lives were lost. When the bodies were recovered, they presented no sign of smoke nor any symptoms of scalding; and hence it was inferred that the explosion could not have been produced either by the percussion-caps

or by steam. On these and other grounds, the conclusion was irresistible that the explosion was due to the nitro-glycerine. An action was (Augt-1 1867) brought at Liverpool by the owners of the *European* against the shippers of the nitro-glycerine, on the ground that no due notice of the dangerous properties of that compound had been given; and at this trial, several of the important points regarding the explosive properties of nitro-glycerine, which we have noticed, were elicited from Professor Abel, chemist to the laboratory at Woolwich; Colonel Boxer, superintendent of the Woolwich Laboratory; and Professor Roscoe, who appeared as scientific witness. To give some definite idea of the explosive force of this substance, Professor Roscoe stated that one case of it would have sufficed for the destruction of the *European*. It is used to a considerable extent in the slate-quarries in Wales, and in mining operations. A workman at one of those quarries described how he had been set to clean a wagon which had held some of it, which he did by scraping it with a piece of slate; and inadvertently throwing the piece of slate into the wagon when he had finished, the percussion exploded the remnants of the oil, and the wagon was blown to pieces. He stated that it is regarded as ten times as powerful an explosive agent as gunpowder.

We learn from a number of the "Nevada Gazette" (quoted in the "Chemical News," Aug. 16, 1867), that this substance has been advantageously employed in the blasting necessary for the construction of the summit tunnel on the Central Pacific Railway. The operation is said to have been carried on 25 per cent. faster than if powder had been used. The small holes required for the oil can probably be drilled in less than one-third the time required for the larger ones necessary in using powder. The oil does much more execution than powder, as it always breaks the rock from two to sixteen inches beyond the hole, and also throws out a much larger body. The oil was estimated as having, in hard rock, a strength five times greater than powder. It was made upon the spot, and was considered much stronger as well as safer than the imported compound. After having been used for several months, there had been no accident, nor had a single blast missed fire since the Chinamen commenced filling the cartridges. Colonel Schaffner of the U. S. army published an official Report on this compound, to which he gives the name of "nitroleum," which confirms the fact that its explosive properties are far greater than those of gunpowder. From a Report on the same subject by Captain Grant, R. N., it appears that it is exploded by percussion, and apparently, under ordinary circumstances, by nothing else—neither by friction nor fire. Generally a trifling blow is sufficient to explode it. Its explosive force is about ten times that of gunpowder. It has all the appearance of common oil, and is usually carried in tin cases, each of which holds 25 lbs. Each can is packed in a wooden case for carriage. In a paper on this subject by M. Kopp, that chemist holds the view already noticed, that accidents are mainly due to the presence of impurities. He states that, by means of charges of 1500 or 2000 grammes of oil, from 40 to 80 cubic metres of a hard rock may be detached.

We have already noticed Richter's observations on the slight inflammability of this compound; and as the employment of this explosive agent seems to be increasing, we shall give his other chief results, so as to bring up our knowledge to the latest possible date. The shaft in which the experiments were made was being sunk 80 feet long by 8 feet wide, in hard gray gneiss with occasional joints, which facilitated the working. From these experiments, it appeared not only that its power was four or five times greater than that of the nitrate-of-soda gunpowder commonly used for mining purposes in Germany, but that other advantages accrued from its use, which may be summed up as follows: (1.) Fewer men are wanted for working out a certain-sized piece of ground, and fewer holes have to be bored than at present. (2.) Nitro-glycerine does not take fire easily (see above). (3.) The amount of smoke after a blast is small, as compared with that of powder; and workmen can return at once to the spot when the blast has taken place. (4.) Holes that have missed, or only partly torn, can be retamped and shot off, which, with the present arrangements, is impossible, or very dangerous. Against these advantages must be set off the following disadvantages: (1.) The gases formed during the explosion of nitro-glycerine have an injurious effect on the organs of sight and respiration. (2.) Nitro-glycerine explodes on being struck smartly, and easily freezes. (3.)

The masses of rock which it removes are mostly very large, and considerable time has to be spent in breaking them up.

In another set of experiments, the relative cost of blasting by nitro-glycerine and gunpowder was compared, and it was found that a cubic fathom of ground could be removed by the former for £4, os. 4d.; the cost amounted to £5, os. 9½d. when the latter was used. In sinking a shaft in clay-slate by means of nitro-glycerine, the cost was under £3 per cubic fathom. For further details regarding these experiments, the reader is referred to the "Chemical News," November 15, 1867, which contains a translation of Richter's valuable Memoir.

In the "Times" for December 10, 1867, there was a notice of a serious explosion from the employment of this agent within a few miles of the city of New York. The accident happened in the Bergen quarries. Nine persons were blown to pieces, and ten or fifteen wounded, while the ground was shaken for fully a mile round, and several houses were destroyed.

A very serious accident took place on Tuesday, December 17, 1867, at Newcastle, and occasioned the loss of seven lives. The editor of the "Chemical News," December 20, 1867, remarks, that "unless means are taken by the manufacturers to prevent explosions causing such lamentable results as these, a valuable blasting agent will be lost to miners and quarrymen. If this be the case, however, the manufacturers of it will have themselves to blame, for explosions of nitro-glycerine during transport or storage ought to be unknown. It has recently been discovered that nitro-glycerine dissolved in two or three times its bulk of methylated spirit is quite inexplosive, and that, when required for use, the addition of water will precipitate the oil, the layer of water and spirit merely requiring decanting off. The nitro-glycerine separated in this way possesses explosive properties quite as active as the original oil, which, indeed, is frequently rather improved than otherwise by the treatment. Shipping agents and railway companies should refuse to receive nitro-glycerine unless protected in the manner indicated."

It will be observed that all these terrible accidents are of recent date. Although nitro-glycerine was discovered about 20 years ago by Dr Sobrero (now professor at Turin), it remained simply an object of scientific interest, till glycerine was manufactured on a large scale—that is to say, till eight or ten years ago. We believe that it was at the close of 1864 that it first became an article of commerce.

[More recently, a compound of nitro-glycerine with gun-cotton, the constituents of gunpowder, infusorial earth, and one or two other substances, forming a paste, has been invented by Professor Engels of Cologne, and is coming into extensive use for mining and other purposes. It is known as dynamite or litho-fracteur (stone-breaker), and is described as possessing immense power. Its great recommendation, however, is its safety; it can be exploded only by a percussion-cap. It may be let fall, or exposed to the most violent concussion, without being affected: when ignited by ordinary fire, as a cigar-fuse, it merely burns away with a slight hissing noise.]

NITROUS ETHER, or Nitrite Oxide of Ethyl, is represented by the formula  $C_4H_9O_2NO_2$ , or  $AeO_2NO_2$ ,  $Ae$  being the symbol for ethyl ( $C_2H_5$ ). It is a pale yellow fluid, having a specific gravity of 0·947, and evolving an agreeable odor of apples. On evaporation, it produces a great degree of cold, it boils at 62°, and it is very inflammable. It does not mix with water, but is readily miscible with alcohol. When kept in contact with water, it soon decomposes, and an acid mixture of a very complicated character is formed. It is made by mixing 1 part of starch and 10 of nitric acid in a capacious retort, which must be gently heated. The vapor of nitrous acid, which is evolved by the action of the starch on the nitric acid, is conducted into alcohol, mixed with half its weight of water, contained in a two-necked bottle, which is to be plunged into cold water. The second neck of this bottle is connected with a good cooling apparatus; and the vapor combining in its passage through the alcohol with the oxide of ethyl, forms nitrous ether, which distils in a continuous stream. This, which is known as Liebig's method, is the best process, but it is usually prepared by the direct action of nitric acid on alcohol, in which case the nitric acid is deoxidised by the hydrogen and carbon of the ethyl of part of the alcohol.

The Spirit of Nitrous Ether, or Sweet Spirit of Nitre, used in medicine, is a mixture of nitrous ether with about four times its volume of rectified spirit. Its specific

gravity should not exceed 0·35. It is used, in conjunction with other medicines, as a diuretic, especially in the dropsy which follows scarlatina; and it is employed, in combination with acetate of ammonia and tartarised antimony, in febrile affections. The dose in febrile cases is from half a drachm to a couple of drachms, and if we wish it to act as a diuretic, two or three drachms should be given. It is a rather expensive medicine, and consequently is extremely liable to adulteration. In the new British Pharmacopœia, it is recommended that this substance should be directly obtained by the distillation of nitrite of soda (five ounces), sulphuric acid (four fluid ounces), and rectified spirit (two pints)—a process open to many practical objections.

NITZSCH, Karl Immanuel, one of the most distinguished theologians that modern Germany has produced, was born September 21, 1787, at Borna. He studied for the church at Wittenberg, where he took his degree in 1810, and where, in 1813, he became parish minister. Here his religious opinions underwent a great modification, through the influence of Schleiermacher and Daub, and he awoke to a clearer perception of the essence of religion. From this time forward N. is to be regarded as one of that new school—of which Neander is the greatest representative—who endeavored to reconcile faith and science, not by forced and unnatural methods, but by pointing out their distinctive spheres, and by exhibiting in their own spiritual life that union of reason and reverence for which they argued in their writings. In 1822, N. was called to Bonn as ordinary professor of theology and university preacher, where he labored with great diligence for more than twenty years, not only in theology, but in all matters affecting the welfare of the Prussian church. In 1847, he succeeded Marheineke at Berlin, and as professor, university preacher, and upper consistorial councillor, he exercised with prudence and moderation a wide ecclesiastical influence. In his political (perhaps also in his religious) views he may be classed with the late Chevalier Bunsen. The High Lutheran party having denounced liberal politics as irreligious, N. and Bunsen and others have vindicated them on the ground of Christianity, not without success. In theology, his position will be best understood when we say that he subordinated dogma to ethics, or rather that he believed the only dogmas which can hope to permanently maintain themselves are those that result from an ethical apprehension of Christianity. Besides numerous smaller treatises on Dogmatics, the History of Dogmas and Liturgies, three larger works call for special mention. There are his "System der Christlichen Lehre" (Bonn, 1829; 6th edit. 1851); his "Praktische Theologie" (Bonn, 1847-1848); and his "Predigten," or "Sermons," of which several collections have appeared, and which are remarkable for their extraordinary richness of thought. He died in 1868.—NITZSCH, GREGOR WILHELM (born in 1790), brother of the preceding, acquired a high reputation as a philologist, and was professor of archeology at Leipzig till his death in 1861. He was considered one of the ablest opponents of Wolf's Homeric theories. His chief work is "Die Sagenpoesie der Griechen" (Brunswick, 1852).

NIVELLES (Flem. *Nivel*), a town of Belgium, in the province of Brabant, 18 miles south of Brussels. It has a fine church, called the Church of St Gertrude (built in the Romanesque style of architecture, 1048 A.D.), which claims to contain the relics of St Gertrude, daughter of Pepin, Maire du Palai. They are deposited in a shrine placed over the high-altar. N. has manufactures of linen, cotton, lace, &c. Pop. in 1870, about 9300.

NIVERNAIS, formerly a province in the middle of France, nearly corresponding to the present department of Nièvre. It was divided into eight territorial districts, and its towns enjoyed municipal privileges at a very early period. The principal landowners were the counts, afterwards dukes, of Nevers, who held under their vassalage more than 1800 fiefs.

NIX, in the masculine, and *nixe* in the feminine (Old High Ger. *nithus*; Anglo-Saxon, *nīcor*; Dutch, *nicker*; Old Norse, *níkr*; Swed. *nák, nek*; Dan. *nuk, nok*—whence our name for the devil, *Nick*, not as some absurdly suppose, from *Nicholas* Machiavelli), the common name for all water spirits in the Teutonic mythology. They are represented as of human form, or sometimes as passing into that of a fish or of a horse. They love music and dances, and possess the gift of prophecy, like the Greek Muses, Sirens, and other water gods. The nix taught, in return for

a good gift, the art of playing on a stringed instrument; and often in the evening sunshine the nixes, combing their long hair, were wont to mingle in the dances of mortals; but their company was dangerous, for, though sometimes wearing a mild appearance, they were more frequently cruel and malignant.—The water-kelpies of Scotland must be reckoned a member of the genus Nix, but in him the evil element alone exists. He generally, if not always, assumed the form of a water-horse; frequented fords and ferries, especially during storms; allured travellers to mount him, and then dashed furiously with them into the stream which he had flooded by his devilish power, and submerged them in the roaring currents.

NIZAM'S DOMINIONS, an extensive territory in the interior of Southern India, lying to the north-west of the Presidency of Madras, in lat.  $15^{\circ} 10'$ — $21^{\circ} 42'$  n., and long.  $74^{\circ} 40'$ — $81^{\circ} 32'$  e. Length from south-west to north-east 480 miles; extreme breadth, 340 miles. Area, 90,000 square miles, and population estimated at 9,000,000. The surface is a slightly-elevated table-land. The principal rivers are the Godavari (Godavery), with its tributaries the Dudhna, Manjera, and Pranhita; and the Kistna (Krishna), with its tributaries the Bhima and Tungabhadra. The soil is naturally very fertile, but poorly cultivated; yet, wherever it receives moderate attention, it yields harvests all the year round. The products are rice, wheat, maize, mustard, castor-oil, sugar-cane, cotton, Indigo, fruits (including grapes and melons), and all kinds of kitchen vegetables. The pasturages are extensive, and sheep and horned cattle are numerous. Marsh and jungle, however, occupy a great space, and originate, fevers, agues, diseases of the spleen, &c., though the climate is quite healthy where these do not abound. The mean temperature of the capital, Hyderabad, in January is  $74^{\circ} 30'$ , and in May  $93^{\circ}$ . The inhabitants manufacture for home use woollen and cotton fabrics, and export silk, dressed hides, dye-stuffs, gums, and resins. Good military roads traverse the territory. The revenue of the Nizam is reckoned at £1,550,000 yearly. The ruler is a Mohammedan, but his subjects are mostly Hindus.

In 1687, the territory, now known as the Nizam's Dominions, became a province of the Mogul empire; but in 1719, the governor or viceroy of the Deccan, Azof Jah, made himself independent, and took the title of *Nizam-ul-Mulk* (Regulator of the State). After his death, in 1748, two claimants appeared for the throne, his son Nazir Jung, and his grandson Mirzapha Jung. The cause of the former was espoused by the East India Company, and that of the latter by a body of French adventurers under General Dupleix. Then followed a period of strife and anarchy. In 1761, Nizam Ali obtained the supreme power, and after some vacillation signed a treaty of alliance with the English in 1768. He aided them in the war with Tippoo, sultan of Mysore, and at the termination of that war, in 1799, a new treaty was formed, by which, in return for certain territorial concessions, the East India Company bound itself to maintain a subsidiary force of 8000 men for the defence of the Nizam's dominions. The Nizam remained faithful to the British during the mutiny of 1857—1858. The territory is frequently called Hyderabad or Haidarabad. A British resident advises the Nizam.

NOBILITY OFFICIUM, the term used in the Law of Scotland to denote the high prerogative right of the Court of Session to exercise jurisdiction in certain cases—as, for example, to appoint a judicial factor to young children or to lunatics.

NOBILITY, that distinction of rank in civil society which raises a man above the condition of the mass of the people. Society has a tendency to inequality of condition, arising from the natural inequality, physical, moral, and intellectual, of those who compose it, aided by the diversity of external advantages, and of the principles and habits imbibed at an early age. This inequality is apt to increase; the son, inheriting the faculties of his father, is more favorably situated than his father was for making use of them; and hence, in almost every nation in even the very early stages of civilisation we find something like a hereditary nobility. Privileges originally acquired by wealth or political power, are secured to the family of the possessor of them; and the privileged class come to constitute an order, admission into which requires the consent of society or of the order itself.

The ancient Romans were divided into *nobiles* and *ignobiles*, a distinction at first corresponding to that of patricians and plebeians. A new nobility afterwards sprung out of the plebeian order, and obtained (830 B.C.) the right to rise to high

offices in the state; and in course of time the descendants of those who had filled curule magistracies inherited the *jus imaginum*, or right of having images of their ancestors—a privilege which, like the coat-of-arms in later ages, was considered the criterion of nobility. The man entitled to have his own image was a *nobilis homo*, while the *ignobilis* could neither have his ancestor's image nor his own.

The origin of the feudal aristocracy of Europe is in part connected with the accidents which influenced the division of conquered lands among the leaders and warriors of the nations that overthrew the Roman empire. Those who had acquired a large share of territorial possession, and their posterity to whom it was transmitted, were naturally looked on as the fittest persons to occupy the great offices of state and wield political power. The Frankish kingdom in Gaul was divided into governments, each under the authority of a chieftain called a Count or *Comes*—a designation derived from the *comes* of the Roman empire—whose Teutonic equivalent was *Graf*. A higher dignity, and more expensive jurisdiction, was conferred on the *Dux* or Duke, a term also of Roman origin, and implying the duty of leading the armies of the country. In the Lombard Kingdom of Italy, the same term was applied to the great officers who were intrusted with the military and civil administration of cities and their surrounding provinces. The Marquises were guardians of the frontier marches. In the subinfeudations of the greater nobility originated a secondary sort of nobility, under the name of Vavasours, Castellans, and lesser barons; and a third order below them comprised vassals, whose tenure, by the military obligation known in England as knight's service, admitted them within the ranks of the aristocracy. In France, the allegiance of the lesser nobles to their intermediary lord long continued a reality; in England, on the other hand, William the Conqueror obliged not only his barons who held in chief of the crown, but their vassals also, to take an oath of fealty to himself; and his successors altogether abolished subinfeudation.

The military tenant, who held but a portion of a knight's fee, participated in all the privileges of nobility, and an impassable barrier existed between his order and the common people. Over continental Europe in general, the nobles, greater and lesser, were in use, after the 10th c., to assume a territorial name from their castles or the principal town or village on their demesne; hence the prefix "de," or its German equivalent "von," still considered over a great part of the continent as the criterion of nobility or gentility. Britain was, to a great extent, an exception to this rule, many of the most distinguished family names of the aristocracy not having a territorial origin. See NAME.

Under the feeble successors of Charlemagne, the dukes, marquises, and counts of the empire encroached more and more on the royal authority; and in course of time, many of them openly asserted an independence and sovereignty with little more than a nominal reservation of superiority to the king. By the end of the 9th c., the Carlovingian empire had been parcelled into separate and independent principalities, under the dominion of powerful nobles, against whom, in Germany, the crown never recovered its power. In France, however, the royal authority gradually revived under the Capetian race, the great fiefs of the higher nobility being one by one absorbed by the crown. In England, where the subjection of the feudal aristocracy to the crown always was, and continued to be a reality, the resistance of the nobles to the royal encroachments was the means of rearing the great fabric of constitutional liberty. All those who, after the Conquest, held *in capite* from William belonged to the nobility. Such of them as held by barony (the highest form of tenure) are enumerated in "Domesday." Their dignity was territorial, not personal, having no existence apart from baronial possession. The *comes* was a baron of superior dignity and greater estates; and these were in England the only names of dignity till the time of Henry III. The rest of the landholders, who held by other tenures than barony, also belonged to the nobility or gentry.

After the introduction of Heraldry, and its reduction to a system, the possession of a coat-of-arms was a recognised distinction between the noble and the plebeian. In the words of Sir James Lawrence ("Nobility of the British Gentry"): "Any individual who distinguishes himself may be said to enoble himself. A prince judging an individual worthy of notice, gave him patent letters of nobility. In these letters were blazoned the arms that were to distinguish his shield. By this shield he was to be known or *nobilis*. A plebeian had no blazonry on his shield, because he

was *ignobilis*, or unworthy of notice. Hence arms are the criterion of nobility. Every nobleman must have a shield of arms. Whoever has a shield of arms is a nobleman. In every country of Europe without exception, a grant of arms, or letters of nobility, is conferred on all the descendants." On the continent, the term noble is still generally used in this sense; in England, it is now more common to restrict the words noble and nobility to the five ranks of the peerage constituting the greater nobility, and to the head of the family, to whom alone the title belongs. Gentry, in its more strict sense, corresponds to the nobility of Sir J. Lawrence and of continental countries. This difference of usage is a frequent source of misapprehension on both sides of the Channel; at some of the minor German courts, the untitled member of an English family of ancient and distinguished blood and lineage has sometimes been postponed to a recently-created baron or "Herr von," who has received that title, and the gentry accompanying it, along with his commission in the army. It has been taken for granted that the latter belongs to the "Adel" or nobility, and not the former.

The original higher nobility of Germany consisted of the dynasty nobles, i. e., the electoral and princely houses of the realm, with those counts and barons who had a seat in the diet or estates of the realm. These last have, since 1815, all been elevated to higher titles; most of the counts, in recompence for their acquiescence in the abolition of the German empire, receiving the diploma of prince, a title to which our dukes, marquises, and earls have also an undoubted right. The lower German nobility, corresponding to our gentry, were the merely titular Counts and Barons (i. e., those who had no seat in the Diet), the Edel-herrn and Banner-herrn (something like our Esquires), the Knights of the Holy Roman Empire, the "Edlen von" (who now take the style of baron), and the common nobles distinguished only by the prefix "von." Throughout the middle ages, the lesser nobility of Britain preserved a position above that of most continental countries, being, unlike the corresponding class in Germany, allowed to intermarry with the high nobility, and even with the blood-royal of their country.

The higher nobility, or nobility in the exclusive sense, of England, consist of the five temporal ranks of the peerage—Duke, Marquis, Earl, Viscount, and Baron (in the restricted signification of the word), who are members of the Upper House of Parliament. Formerly, all the barons or tenants-in-chief of the sovereign were bound to attend his councils; but after the reign of Edward I., only a select number of them were summoned, the rest appeared by representatives—the former were considered the greater, the latter the lesser barons. See MINOR BARONS. In Scotland the whole barons continued to sit in parliament till a much later period; and after the minor barons attended only by representatives from their body, these representatives sat in the same house with the greater nobility, and up to the Union, their votes were recorded as those of the "small baronies." By the Act of Union between England and Scotland, the Scotch peers elect 16 of their number to represent their body in the House of Lords in each parliament. The peers of Ireland, in virtue of the Irish Act of Union, elect 28 of their number to sit in the House of Lords for life. The Act of Union with Scotland has been understood to debar the sovereign from creating any new Scotch peerages; all peers created in either England or Scotland between that date and the Union with Ireland are peers of Great Britain; and peers created in any of the three kingdoms subsequently to the union with Ireland are peers of the United Kingdom, with this exception that one new peerage of Ireland may be created on the extinction of three existing peerages. When the Irish peers are reduced to 100, then, on the extinction of one peerage another may be created. All peers of Great Britain or of the United Kingdom have a seat in the House of Lords. A Scotch peer, though not one of the sixteen representative peers, is debarred from sitting in the House of Commons, a disability which does not attach to Irish peers. The peerage is, from time to time, recruited by new additions, the persons selected being in general peers of Scotland or Ireland; younger members of the families of peers; persons distinguished for naval, military, political, or diplomatic services; eminent lawyers, promoted to high judicial appointments; persons of large property and ancient family, noble in the more extended sense; and occasionally, but rarely, persons who have by commerce acquired large fortunes and social importance. At present, the peerage comprehends about 555 individuals—the number of peerage titles being much

greater, as several titles often merge in one person. Five royal dukes are included in this enumeration, as also 87 peers of Scotland, and 183 of Ireland. Only 25 of the present Scotch, and 89 Irish peers, are without seats in the House of Lords, in consequence of there being, besides the representative peers, 40 peers of Scotland, and 80 of Ireland, who are at the same time peers either of England, Great Britain, or of the United Kingdom. The privileges belonging to peers as members of parliament will be explained under PARLIAMENT; as peers they also possess the following immunities: They can only be tried by their peers for felony, treason, or misprision of treason, when the whole members of the peerage are summoned, and the accused is acquitted or condemned by the voice of the majority, given not on oath, but "on honor." This privilege, which extends to peeresses, either in their own right or by marriage, is in Scotland further regulated by Act 6 Geo. IV. c. 66. A peer answers to bills in Chancery upon his honor, and not on oath; but when examined as a witness in civil or criminal cases, or in parliament, he must be sworn. He cannot be bound over to keep the peace elsewhere than in the Court of Queen's Bench or of Chancery. Scandal against a peer is "*scandalum magnum*," a more heinous offence than slander against another person, and subjects the offender by various English acts to statutory punishments. All the privileges belonging to the English peers, except the right of sitting in the House of Lords, were extended to the peers of Scotland by the Treaty of Union. A peer who has different titles in the peerage, takes in ordinary parlance his highest title, one of the inferior titles being given by courtesy to his eldest son. Certain Courtesy Titles (q. v.) belong also to the daughters and younger sons of a peer, but do not extend to their children.

In France, a limited body of the higher nobility, styled the peers, were in the enjoyment of privileges not possessed by the rest. The title of Duke was subject to strict rule, but many titles of Marquis and Count, believed to be pure assumptions, were recognised by the courtesy of society. The head of a noble family often assumed at his own hand the title of marquis; and if an estate was purchased which had belonged to a titled family, the purchaser was in the habit of transferring to himself the honors possessed by his predecessor—a practice to which Louis XV. put a stop. Immediately before the Revolution, 80,000 families claimed nobility, many of them of obscure station, and less than 3000 of ancient lineage. Nobles and clergy together possessed two thirds of the land. Practically, the estimation in which a member of the French nobility was held depended not so much on the degree of his title as on its antiquity, and the distinction of those who had borne it. The higher titles of nobility were not borne by all members of a family; each son assumed a title from one of the family estates—a custom productive of no small confusion. Unlike "roturier" lands, which divided among all the children equally, noble fiefs went to the eldest son. The Revolution overthrew all distinction of ranks. On 18th Juillet 1790, the National Assembly decreed that hereditary nobility was an institution incompatible with a free state, and that titles, arms, and liveries should be abolished. Two years later, the records of the nobility were burned. A new nobility was created by the Emperor Napoleon I. in 1808, with titles descending to the eldest son. The old nobility was again revived at the Restoration. All marquises and viscounts are of pre-revolution titles, none having been created in later times.

Commercial pursuits have more or less in different countries been considered incompatible with nobility. In England, this was less the case than in France and Germany, where for long a gentleman could not engage in any trade without losing his rank. A sort of commercial "Bürger-Adel," or half-gentleman class, was constituted out of the patrician families of some of the great German cities, particularly Augsburg, Nürnberg, and Frankfurt, on whom the emperors bestowed coats-of-arms. In semi-feudal Italy, there was on the whole less antagonism between nobility and trade than north of the Alps. The aristocracy of Venice had its origin in commerce; and though untitled, they were among the most distinguished class of nobles in Europe. On the other hand, in Florence, in the 14th c., under a constitution purely mercantile, nobility became a disqualification from holding any office of the state. In order to the enjoyment of civil right, the nobleman had to be struck off the rolls of nobility; and an unpopular plebeian was sometimes ennobled, in order to disfranchise him. A little later, there grew up, side by side with the old nobility, a race of plebeian nobles—as the Ricci, the Medici—whose pretensions were originally

derived from wealth, and who eventually came to be regarded as aristocrats by the democratic party.

Italian nobility has this peculiarity, that it does not, for the most part, flow from the sovereign, but from the municipal authorities of the towns acting in entire independence of him. The municipalities can confer nobility on whom they please, by inscribing his name in their respective *Libri d'oro*. The registers of nobility of most of the Tuscan towns are deposited in the *Archivio della Nobiltà*, or Herald's Office at Florence—an institution created by the first sovereign of the House of Lorraine. The municipalities have, however, no power to confer titles, though at one time several persons, a few Englishmen included, on the strength of their names being in the *Libro d'oro* of Fiesole, assumed the titles of marquis, count and baron—an abuse put a stop to by the late grand duke of Tuscany. In Rome, there is a small number of nobles—as the Colonna, Caetani and Orsini—who hold their fiefs as sovereign princes; the rest of the nobility, many of them of very ancient lineage, are municipal, the power of creation being vested in the senator, himself a nominee of the pontiff, and the *Conservatori*, chosen by lot from the Capitoline nobles. In last century, so many undistinguished persons had been added to the roll of nobility, that Pope Benedict XIV. found it necessary to prohibit by a bull the admission of any one whose ancestors had not filled certain high office in the state. The same decree limited the number of noble families to 187, designating the *Patrizato Romano*, out of whom 60 of the oldest and most illustrious were chosen as *Nobili Conscritti*, otherwise called the Capitoline nobles, and restricted the admission to the patriziato for the future to persons who had rendered important services to the city, and whose names were approved by the *Congregazione araldica*, an exception being made in favor of members of the reigning pontiff's family. As the families of the conscritti became extinct, other patrician families, designated *Nobili Ascritti*, were added by the municipality to make up the number.

The titles at present borne by the Roman nobility are: 1. Prince or Duke, generally so called, but officially designed "Barone Romano"—a title acquired by the Borghesi, Rospigliosi, and others from popes of their respective families; in the case of the Colonna, Doria, Odescalchi, &c., from royal or imperial erection; and in other instances—as the Caetani and Massimi—from investiture by the pope as a temporal sovereign. 2. Marquis and Count; many of these are provincial nobles, with titles generally derived from small feudal tenuis, of which, in some instances, it would be difficult to shew the diploma, or point out the period of creation. In some parts of the Papal States it is understood that every head of a noble house is a marquis; and in the March of Ancona, Sixtus V. conferred the right to bear the title of count on all who were of noble blood at the period. 3. Knights (*Cavaliere*), a designation given to all who wear a Roman order, to Knights of Malta, and generally to younger sons of the titled nobility. 4. Princes, who, with the sanction of the pope, have purchased honors along with ancient fiefs, that carried with them ducal or princely titles, most of them *novi homines*, as the Torlonias. Titles do not descend to the younger members of the family; it is the general usage for the head of the house to bear the most ancient title, while the eldest son, on his marriage, assumes the second in point of antiquity. The title is sometimes the family name, sometimes the name of a feudal possession. The proper designation of the younger branches of titled families is "dei Principi," "dei Duchi," "dei Marchesi," &c.

The nobility of Spain boasts of a special antiquity and purity of blood, a descent from warriors and conquerors alone, without the infusion of any of the elements derived from the church, law, and commerce that are to be found in other countries. "Hidalgo" (*hijo d'algo*, son of somebody, not *filius nullius*) is a term which implies gentility or nobility. The hidalgo alone has in strictness a right to the title "Don," which, like "Sir" of our knights and baronets, requires the adjunct of the Christian name. When the Christian name is omitted, the title "Señor" instead is prefixed with the addition of "de." "Don" has latterly been used by persons who have no proper claim to it about as extensively as "Esquire" in England. Hidalguia, till recently, conferred important privileges and immunities. The higher nobility are styled Grandees; formerly the title was "ricohombre," and the ceremonial of creation consisted in granting the right of assuming the pennon and caldron (*pennon y caldera*)—the one the rallying

esign of command, the other of maintenance of followers. In contradistinction from the grandees, the class of nobility below them are called *los Titulados de Castilla*. Red blood is said to flow in the veins of the hidalgo, blue in that of the grande. Formerly there were three classes of grandees, whose mark of distinction was this—that a grande of the first class was entitled to put on his hat in the royal presence before the king spoke to him; the second, after the king spoke to him; the third, after the king had spoken and he had replied. The second and third classes are now absorbed into the first. Of the grandees, some bear the title of duke, some of marquis, some of count; but it is the ambition of every grande to unite in himself as many grandeeships, or have as many *hats*, as the phrase is, as he can. This is effected by the marriage of heiresses through whom *grandeza* descends, and whose names and titles are assumed by their husbands. An enormous accumulation of titles is sometimes found in the person of one grande. Titles as well as estates go only to heirs of entail. The titulants of Castile are designed "vuesta señoría;" in common parlance, "ucía." The title of Baron is little used in Spain. Physically and mentally, the grandees have degenerated from their ancestors, and they have not the influence at court and in the country which landed property ought to give them. Most of them reside at Madrid, clinging to their nominal rank and real nullity, while they are practically excluded from all the functions of state.

In Russia, what nobility existed before Peter the Great was of a patriarchal not a feudal kind; but in his anxiety to assimilate everything to a western standard, the czar took the existing aristocracies of states quite differently situated as the model to which to approximate the fortunate of his own subjects. The Russian nobles have ever since been enlarging their privileges by encroachments on those under them. Before Moscow was burned, the mass of the nobles connected with the court lived there in great splendor, and along with their domestic serfs constituted half the population of that city.

The preservation of noble blood, untainted by plebeian intermixture, has often been reckoned a matter of much moment. In Spain most of all, this purity of lineage has been jealously guarded. In the German empire, no succession was allowed to fiefs holding immediately of the emperor, unless both parents belonged to the higher nobility. In France, the offspring of a gentleman by a plebeian mother was noble in a question of inheritance or exemption from tribute, but could not be received into any order of chivalry. Letters of nobility were sometimes granted to reinstate persons in this position. It is in Germany still important for many purposes to possess eight or sixteen quarterings, i. e., to be able to shew purity of blood for four or five generations, the father and mother, the two grandmothers, the four great-grandmothers; and also, in case of the sixteen quarterings, the eight great-great-grandmothers, having all been entitled to coat-armour. Among the higher grades of the peerage in England, a considerable number may be pointed out who do not possess this complete nobility. It is in Scotland more usual and more regarded, both among peers and entitled gentry, where the eight or sixteen quarterings are still in use to be displayed on the funeral escutcheon. At some of the minor German courts, the sixteen quarterings were not unfrequently an illusion, diplomas being granted in the absence of a full pedigree, to declare the parties as noble as if they had sixteen ancestors.

NO'CERA, or Nocera Dei Paga'ni, a town of South Italy, in the province of Salerno, eight miles north-west of the town of Salerno, and on the highway from that town to Naples. It carries on linen and woollen manufactures. Pop. 8519.

NO'CTURN (Lat. *nocturnum*, recited "by night"). Under the head BREVIARY (q. v.) has been explained the general order of the services of the canonical hours, in the Roman Catholic Church. The service of MATINS on Sundays and festivals is divided into three nocturns, each of which consists of three (or more) psalms and three *lessons*. The lessons are either from the Scriptures, from the life of a saint, or from a homily of some Father. The name is derived from the recitation of the service "by night."

NO'CTULE (*Vesperilio noctula*), the largest British species of Bat (q. v.), being nearly three inches long without the tail, which is fully an inch and a half. The ears

are oval triangular, shorter than the head ; the muzzle is short and blunt. The N. is only seen on the wing during a short part of the year, retiring early in autumn to hollow trees, caves, or under the eaves of buildings, where many are sometimes found together.

**NODAL POINTS, Lines, and Sections.** When a string or metallic cord, under strong tension, is made to vibrate, we hear, besides the principal sound, several secondary and shriller sounds; these are denominated harmonic sounds, and are produced each by a certain portion of the cord which vibrates independently. Further investigation has shewn that every vibrating string is divided into a number of portions alternately vibrating in opposite directions, and that the points which separate these portions from each other are at rest. These points are known as *nodal points*, and their situation may be found by placing small pieces of paper on an extended string, and causing it to vibrate; the points from which the pieces of paper have not been displaced are the nodal points. If a plate of glass or metal be held in the hand, and a well-rosin'd fiddle-bow be drawn across the edge, particles of fine dust previously placed on the plate, will arrange themselves in lines, shewing that along these lines no vibration has taken place; these lines are *nodal lines*, and are found in most cases to group themselves together into geometrical figures, and occasionally to present the most beautiful designs. The arrangement of the nodal lines depends on the point by which the plate is held, and on the form of the plate itself. Similarly, if a column of air in a wholly or partially closed tube be acted upon by the force of the breath applied through a hole at any point in its length, the column will divide itself into cylindrical portions each in a state of vibration, and separated from one another by transverse sectional portions in which the air is at rest; these latter sections are known as *nodal sections*.

**NODDY** (*Megalopterus* or *Anous*), a genus of birds of the family *Laridae*, differing from terns in having the bill slightly angular, thus exhibiting an approach to gull-, and the tail not forked but somewhat wedge-shaped. Only one species is known (*M.* or *A. stolidus*), a bird widely diffused both in the northern and southern hemispheres, and familiar to sailors, not only as often seen skinning over the water in quest of fishes, but also as not unfrequently alighting on vessels, and particularly during the night, suff'ring itself to be taken by the hand. At its breeding-places also, where not accustomed to the visits of man, it scarcely gets out of the way, and the female sits undisturbed on the nest. Hence it commonly shares with the Booby the reputation of unusual stupidity. It is about fifteen or sixteen inches long, from the tip of the bill to the end of the tail, the general color being a brownish-black. The N. is a rare visitant of the British shores, but is very abundant in warmer latitudes; and on some of the *keys* of the West Indies, and other islets of different parts of the world, it breeds in immense numbers. Particular islets seem to be specially selected as the breeding-places of noddies; and there their nests are sometimes so closely placed that it is not easy to walk among them. Each nest generally contains three eggs, about two inches long, which are very good to eat, and are in some places collected in great numbers.

**NODES**, in Astronomy, are the two points in which the orbit of a planet intersects the plane of the ecliptic, the one through which the planet passes from the south to the north side of the ecliptic being called the *ascending node*, and the other the *descending node*. As all the bodies of the solar system, whether planets or comets, move in orbits variously inclined to the ecliptic, the orbit of each possesses two nodes, and a line drawn joining these two points is called the *line of nodes* of each body. It is scarcely necessary to add, that as the earth moves in the plane of the ecliptic she has no nodes. The places of the nodes are not fixed points on the plane of the ecliptic, but are in a constant state of fluctuation, sometimes *advancing* (eastward), and at other times *receding* (moving westward). This motion is produced by the mutual attractions of the planets, which tend to draw each of them out of the plane of its orbit; and it depends upon the relative positions of the planets with respect to another planet whether that planet's nodes shall advance or recede. On the whole, however, the majority of possible "relative positions," or *configurations*, as they are called, is in favor of a retrograde motion; and we find by observation, that in an average of many revolutions round the sun a constant retrogradation of the node takes place. The determination of this retrogradation in the case of the

planets is a most complicated problem, as the separate action of each on the others has to be taken into account; but in the case of the moon's nodes, the immensely preponderating attraction of the earth, and its great relative magnitude as compared with the moon, enable us to throw out of account any other disturbing influence, and at the same time to exhibit clearly the cause of this motion of the nodes. Suppose the moon to have attained her greatest north latitude, and to be descending towards the ecliptic, and the earth to be in longitude between her and her previous descending node, then the earth's attraction will tend to *depress* the moon's orbit, and cause her to descend to the plane of the ecliptic sooner than she would otherwise have done; in this case we have a retrogradation of the node. Again, supposing the moon placed as before, but the earth in advance of the line of nodes, then the earth's attraction will tend to draw the moon forward in her orbit so as to meet the ecliptic in a point beyond the previous descending node; in this case, the moon's node has advanced. As in the case of the planets, however, the retrograding tendency preponderates. The average annual retrogradation of the nodes is very small in the case of the planets, but considerable in that of the moon. See MOON. In calculating the courses of the planets, the "length" of the ascending node, or its distance in longitude from the vernal equinox is a most important element. See ORBIT.

**NODES**, in Botany. See STEM.

**NODES** are swellings, most commonly of an oblong form, which occur on superficial bones, such as the tibia, ulna, clavicle, and frontal bone, and are due to a syphilitic taint, to scrofula, or to rheumatism. Their immediate cause is the infiltration of lymph or serum into the periosteum, or between it and the bone. The treatment depends so essentially on the constitution of the patient, and the primary cause of the swelling, that it would be inexpedient to enter into any detail regarding it.

**NODIER**, Charles E., an eminent French littérateur, was born at Besançon, 29th April 1783; other authorities give 1780 and 1781. His father was a distinguished lawyer, who warmly embraced the side of the revolution, and brought up his son in the same principles. At the age of 12, he was a member of the famous society of *Amis de la Constitution*, and hated tyranny with a most ideal and classical hatred; but he soon afterwards became a royalist; then, again under Napoleon, a republican; and indeed during his whole career shewed a want of that robust opinionateness, without which it is impossible for a man to become a genuine politician. He died—after a life of the hardest literary work, in which time, and even admirable talents were wasted on inferior subjects—27th January 1844. Besides editions of the French classics, grammatical, lexicographical, and poetical works, he wrote numerous tales and memoirs. A portion of his writings was collected and published in 12 vols. at Paris, 1832—1834, under the incorrect title of "*Oeuvres Complètes*."

**NOETIANS**. See PATRIPASSIANS.

**NOGENT LE ROTROU**, a town of France, in the department of Eure-et-Loir, is situated in a pretty vale on the Huise, 82 miles west-south-west of Chartres. It is a station on the Great Western Railway from Paris to Rennes in Brittany. Pop. (1872) 5884. N. is a long, well-built town, with a ruined castle in the Gothic style, the residence of the great Sully.

**NOGGING**. Brickwork built in the panels of a timber-framed house. Noggings are horizontal timbers, introduced to strengthen the brickwork.

**NOILS**, a technical term employed for the short and broken hairs which are removed from wool in the process of combing and preparing it for worsted manufactures. The *noils* are used for making inferior yarns, and are valuable for *seiting* purposes, in which they are largely employed.

**NO'LA**, an episcopal city of South Italy, in the province of Caserta, 16 miles east-north-east of Naples, is built on the site of one of the oldest cities of Campania. The ancient N. was founded by the Ausonians, and fell into the hands of the Romans in the Samnite war, 313 B.C. For its protection, Marcellus in the second Punic war fought in its vicinity the first battles in which the Romans were victorious over Hannibal. Augustus died at Nola, 14 A.D. The first bells for Christian churches

are said to have been cast here in the 5th century. See **BELL**. Numerous coins, and beautiful vases made of a pale-yellow clay, with figures painted in crimson and maroon, and supposed to have been manufactured here by potters from Corinth, have been found in the vicinity. N. was a flourishing city in the middle ages, and has (1871) a pop. of 9128, or with suburbs, 10,771.

**NO'LI ME TA'NGERÉ**, a popular name for one form of the disease which has been already described under the term **Lupus** (q. v.).

**NO'LLE PRO'SEQUI**, a term used in English Law to denote that the plaintiff does not intend to go further with the action, or part of the action, in which case he enters or files a memorandum, called a nolle prosequi, after which the action, or part of the action, is at an end on that point, and the defendant is entitled to his costs thereon.

**NOLLEKENS**, Joseph, was born in London in 1737. His father, who was from Antwerp, and by profession a painter, died when he was young, and his mother, a Frenchwoman, not remaining long a widow, he received but little education. Being placed in the studio of Schoemakers the sculptor, in Vine Street, Piccadilly, he worked hard, and made such progress, that, in 1759, the Society of Arts awarded him fifteen guineas for a group in clay; in 1760, thirty guineas for a bas-relief; and during the same year, ten guineas for a model in clay of a dancing faun. Soon after this, N. set out for Rome. He was then in his twenty-third year; his purse was light, he had no patron to support him; but he was independent in spirit, and had been trained to habits of economy. A bas-relief he carved in stone brought him ten guineas from England, and the Society of Arts voted him fifty guineas for his group in marble of Timocleus before Alexander. But one of the most important events for him, after settling in Rome, was his meeting Garrick in the Vatican, who immediately recognized his countryman as the young sculptor to whom the prizes had been awarded by the Society of Arts, sat to him for his bust, and paid him handsomely for it. This was the first bust he had been commissioned to model, and it gave him the opportunity of proving where his strength lay. It was also executed in Rome a bust of Sterne in terra cotta, which added greatly to his reputation. After residing ten years in Rome, he returned to London, took a lease of extensive premises in Mortimer Street, where he set up his studio; and the reputation he had acquired in Rome was such, that he immediately had full employment, and within a year after (in 1771) was elected an Associate of the Academy, and a Royal Academician the following year. His forte was in modelling busts. Into these he infused much truth and character, and he has handed down the likenesses of most of the important personages who figured in this country in the end of the last and at the commencement of this c.—of Samuel Johnson, who was his friend and frequent visitor—of Fox, Pitt, and other political characters. George III. also sat to him; and his manner, which exhibited pretty strongly what is popularly set down as blunt and manly English character, made him a great favorite with the king. Besides busts, N. executed numerous commissions for public monuments and statues. He was selected by the Academy, with whom the choice lay, to execute the government commission of a monument to the three captains, Manners, Bayne, and Blair, who fell in Rodney's great battle of April 12, 1782; but in this he did not rise above the allegories of Neptune and his Sea-horse, and Britannia and her Lion. His statue of Pitt for Cambridge was much praised at the time. He also executed, either in the course of his studies, or to meet the views of those connoisseurs who advocate high art, a considerable number of classical and mythological statues and groups, a faun, a Bacchus, five Veneres, Cupid and Psyche, Petuns and Arria, &c. He died in Loudon, 23d April 1823. His wife, to whom he had been long married, and who had brought him some fortune, died a few years before him. He had no children, and his great wealth, upwards of £200,000, was left to certain friends, burdened with some legacies and annuities to his old assistants and servants.—See Cunningham's "Lives of British Artists," &c.

**NO'MADS** (Gr. *nemein*, to tend or feed), the name given (originally by the Greeks) to those tribes which, depending chiefly on their flocks and herds, have no fixed habitation, but move about for convenience of pasture. The nomad tribes are of a higher grade of civilisation than those that live by hunting and fishing, but

much inferior to those engaged in agriculture and manufactures. They are very generally addicted to robbery, and readily engage in aggressive war, so that they have frequently become conquerors of extensive cultivated countries, as in the instances of the Huns, Arabs, and Tartars. There are now few nomads in Europe, and these only in the steppes near the Black Sea, and the regions of the utmost north, where cultivation is impossible. Almost all the Finnish, Mongolian, and Turkish tribes and the tribes formed by mixture of these races, in the steppes and deserts of Central and Northern Asia are nomads, also the Kurds and the Bedouins, many of the tribes of Africa, and the Gauchos and some of the other Indian tribes in North and South America.

**NOMBRE DE DIOS**, a town of Mexico, 35 miles south-east from Durango, in a mountainous district. Near it are rich silver mines. Pop. 7000.

**NOMBRIL POINT**, in Heraldry. See ESCUTCHEON.

**NOME**, a term used in the ancient Greek music to denote any melody determined by inviolable rules.

**NONMINIMALISM**. This word refers to a celebrated controversy of the middle ages, respecting the nature of our general or abstract ideas. It was contended by some that abstractions—as a circle in the abstract, beauty, right—had a real existence apart from round things, beautiful objects, right actions. This was called Realism. Those that held the opposite view were called Nominalists, because they maintained that there is nothing general but *names*; the name “circle” is applied to everything that is round, and is a general name; but no independent fact or property exists corresponding to the name. There is nothing in a general name, they say, but a declaration of resemblance among a number of things; all things that the name is applied to resemble one another in some point, which point of resemblance the mind can consider apart from the points of difference; this act of isolated consideration being what is called the power of abstraction. We can be engaged in thinking of the smell of a rose, we can compare it with other sweet odors, and speculate as to the nature of the material that gives the odor, or as to the pleasure that we derive from it; all this is a process of abstract thinking, but it would not of itself suffice to prove that the odor has a separate existence. We might also confine our attention to the mere form, or outline of the rose, and compare it with other forms; but we should be still less able to affirm the independent existence of this particular form.

Realism must be traced back to Plato's system of Ideas, or the eternal and independent existence of general attributes, from which the concrete embodiments were derived. There existed in the Divine Mind, according to Plato, patterns, models, or archetypes, according to which individuals were formed. The archetype circle was the origin of all actual round things. Aristotle denied the separate existence of these general forms, and held that they existed only in connection with matter, or with objects in the concrete. The Stoics repudiated universals in both senses. The Aristotelian view constituted the Scholastic Realism, and prevailed until the 11 c., when a reaction took place in favor of the Stoical doctrine, headed by Roscelin of Compiègne and John the Sophist. This was the commencement of Nominalism. The celebrated Abelard was a disciple of Roscelin, and induced large numbers to depart from the Realistic notions, which were identified at the time with religious orthodoxy. The controversy raged with great violence through the 12th century. Thomas Aquinas and Duns Scotus, in the following century, gave their powerful adhesion to Realism. In the 14th c., William Occam, an English Franciscan friar, and a pupil of Scotus, revived the advocacy of Nominalism, which was once more maintained by a number of eminent men, in spite of the hostility of the church, carried the length of persecution. The controversy subsided at the Reformation.

A middle view between Nominalism and Realism was held by a few persons when the contest was at its height; which was, that although general properties have no separate existence in nature, they can be conceived in the mind apart from any concrete embodiment. Thus we may form an idea of a circle, irrespective of any individual round body. This view is spurious, and is tacitly implied in many opinions that have never ceased to be held. See GENERALISATION.

**NOMINATIVE**. See DECLENSION.

NON-APPEARANCE, the term used in the Law of England to denote that a party against whom an action or suit has been commenced has not entered an appearance, which is the way by which he comes before the court to defend his right. In many cases, if he does not appear, the suit will go on in his absence, provided he was duly served with the writ of summons or bill.

NON-ASSUMPSIT, is in English Law the usual plea or defence to an action for breach of a contract not by deed, and means that the defendant denies that he broke the contract, or that that there was any contract.

NON-COMMISSIONED OFFICERS, in the British army, constitute a numerous and very important class in the regimental system between the commissioned officers and the men. As the former are not permitted to mix with the private soldiers, lest familiarity should diminish the sway of absolute discipline, it is necessary to have an intermediate class to overlook the men in their barracks and at all times when off the parade. None are so suited for this duty as the best conducted of the men themselves, who are promoted by selection to non-commissioned rank, and hold many privileges and powers unattainable by the privates. The non-commissioned officers comprise the sergeants-major, all the sergeants, the trumpeters, drummers, and buglers, and, in the Life Guards and Royal Horse Guards only, the corporals. They can be reduced to the ranks by sentence of a court-martial, or by their colonel-commandant; but not by a lieutenant-colonel nor by any junior officer. Non-commissioned officers are entitled to quarters for their wives, or lodging-money in lieu of quarters. Accustomed themselves to obey, the non-commissioned officers are admirable assistants in preserving discipline; veterans, to whom military life is a second nature, they are looked up to by their comrades as examples, to lead in battle or to teach in drill. The non-commissioned officers have a Mess (q. v.) to themselves. In a battalion of infantry at home, there were, in 1874, 58 non-commissioned officers to 530 rank and file; in India, 66 to 890; but the rank and file may be greatly augmented without affecting the number of non-commissioned officers. In the whole British army (European) for the year 1874-1875, there were 20,049 non-commissioned officers. This rank is a necessity in all armies; in France, the non-commissioned officers are termed *sous-officiers*; in Germany, *unter-offizieren*.

NONCONFORMISTS, a name sometimes given generally to all sectaries who, at any period in English history since the establishment of Protestantism, have refused to conform to the doctrine and practices of the Episcopal Church. It is, however, more frequently used in a restricted sense to denote the 2000 clergymen who in 1662—two years after the Restoration—left the Church of England, rather than submit to the conditions of the Act of Uniformity, which required of every beneficed minister, every fellow of a college, and even every schoolmaster, unfeigned assent to all and everything contained in the Book of Common Prayer. The ejected ministers swelled the ranks of the Presbyterians and Independents, the latter of whom are sometimes called Nonconformists.

NON-EFFECTIVE (Fr. *non-activité*), is the term applied to the portion of the personnel of the army or navy not on active service or in immediate readiness for active service. It thus comprises all officers on retired or half-pay, pensioners, and superannuated officers. In a force liable to frequent augmentations and reductions, the non-effective charge must be considerable, and a large retirement is necessary, in order to rapid promotion. The great French war, also, with the reductions following it, bequeathed to the British an annual non-effective charge of several millions, which is not yet wholly expunged. In 1878-1879, the non-effective charges were £2,344,912 for the army, and £1,887,571 for the navy, being upwards of 16 per cent. on the gross cost of the two services.

NON-ENTRY, in the Law of Scotland, means that state of a feudal estate when the last vassal has died, and his successor has not been invested or seized of the land. On such an occasion, the superior is entitled to what is called a *casualty of non-entry*, which consists of the rent of the feu.

NON EST INVENTUS, a technical term used in that part of the law where, after judgment, the sheriff endeavors to arrest a party. If after a reasonable search he cannot find the debtor, he makes a return to the court that he has not been able to

find the debtor, which is shortly called a return of *non est inventus*, and his duty is then discharged until a fresh writ is issued to him.

NONE (Lat. *nona*, "ninth"), one of the lesser Canonical Hours (q. v.), so called from its recitation being primitively fixed at the ninth hour.

NONES. See CALENDAR.

NONFEA'SANCE, in certain parts of the Law of England, means the not doing what one is bound to do.

NONJOI'NDER, in English Law, is the omitting to join all the parties to the action or suit.

NONJU'RORS, the name given to that portion of the Episcopal clergy of England who at the coronation of William and Mary refused to take the oath of allegiance to these sovereigns, believing that they had unlawfully possessed themselves of the throne abdicated by James II. They were great champions of the doctrine of passive obedience on the part of subjects towards kings; and as the triumph of the Prince of Orange was obtained at the expense of that doctrine, it was impossible that they could, consistently with their antecedents, acknowledge him as their rightful king. The House of Commons allowed them six months longer than laymen to make up their minds, but declined to adopt the amendment of the Lords, viz. that the oath should not be imposed on the clergy. They refused, and were consequently deprived of their sees and benefices. The nonjurors comprised Archbishop Sancroft, 8 bishops, and about 400 of the inferior clergy.

NON-RE'SIDENCE, the name given in Church Law to the offence of a person holding a Spiritual Benefice who absents himself without legal justification from the local precincts within which the duties attached to the benefice are prescribed to be performed. The obligation of residence follows clearly from every principle of law, and from the constant tendency to relaxation on the part of the clergy, has been an unfailing subject of legislation, ecclesiastical and civil, from the very earliest times. The Council of Nice in 325, of Antioch in 382, and of Carthage in 401; the constitutions of the popes from the earliest genuine document of that class, the novels of Justinian, the capitularies of Charlemagne—all speak the same language, and enforce it by the same penalties. During the medieval period, and especially during the unhappy contests of the western schism, great abuses prevailed. The whole substance of the legislation of the Roman Church on the subject, however, is compressed in the decrees of the Council of Trent, which are mainly contained in the decrees of the XXII. and following sessions, "On Reformation." The decrees of the council regard all church dignitaries, and others charged with the cure of souls. Without entering into the details, it will suffice to say, that for all the penalty of absence without just cause, and due permission, consists in the forfeiture of revenues, in a proportion partly varying with the nature of the benefice, partly adjusted according to the duration of the absence. For each class, moreover, a certain time is fixed, beyond which, during twelve months, absence cannot be permitted. The duty is imposed on persons named in the law of reporting to the ecclesiastical superiors cases of prolonged absence. The same legislation has been confirmed by most of the recent concordats, and is enforced by the civil law of each country. In England, the penalties for non-residence are regulated by 1 and 2 Vict. c. 106. Under this act, an incumbent absenting himself without the bishop's licence for a period exceeding three, and not exceeding six months, forfeits one-third of the annual income; if the absence exceed six, and does not exceed eight months, one-half is forfeited; and if it be of the whole year, three-fourths of the income are forfeited. The persons excused from the obligation of residence by the canon law are sick persons, persons engaged in teaching the theological sciences in approved places of study, and canons in immediate attendance upon the bishop ("canonici a latere"), who ought not to exceed two in number. By the act 1 and 2 Vict. c. 106, heads of colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, the wardens of Durham University, and the head-masters of Eton, Westminster, and Winchester Schools are generally exempted, and temporary exemptions from residence are recognized in other cases, which it would be tedious to detail. In the Roman Catholic Church, besides the general legislation, most of the provincial and diocesan statutes contain special provisions on the subject of non-residence.

NON-SUIT is a legal term in England, which means, that where a plaintiff in a jury trial finds he will lose his case owing to some defect or accident, he is allowed to be non-suited, instead of allowing a verdict and judgment to go for the defendant. The consequence is, that the plaintiff has to pay the defendant's costs; but he can bring a fresh action, if he can get over the difficulty that rendered a non-suit necessary or expedient.

NOOSSA. See MOLUCCAS.

NOOTKA DOG, a large kind of dog, common in a domesticated state among the natives of the vicinity of Nootka Sound. It has erect, pointed ears. It is chiefly remarkable for the extreme abundance of its long woolly hair, which, when shorn off, holds together as a fleece, and is spun and woven into garments. The introduction of this wool-bearing dog into other countries has been suggested, but not yet attempted.

NOOTKA SOUND, an inlet on the west coast of Vancouver's Island, British North America, in lat.  $49^{\circ} 35' n.$ , long.  $126^{\circ} 35' w.$  Its entrance is protected by an island of the same name, and the Sound can be entered on both sides of the island. It extends inland for 10 miles in a north-north-east direction; but the greatest breadth of water is not more than 500 yards. Numerous small coves and inlets are found around the rocky shores. It affords good anchorage.

NORD, the most northerly department in France (whence its name), corresponding with the former province of French Flanders, and bordering on Belgium and the Strait of Dover. Area, 2185 sq. miles; pop. (1876) 1,519,585. It is composed of two parts, or at least narrows near the middle at Armentières, on the Lys, almost to a line. It is watered by the Scheldt and the Sambre, with their affluents, and by numerous canals. Next to that of the Seine, it is the most densely peopled department in France. The soil is fertile, well cultivated, and yields more abundant harvests than any other part of the country: 888,606 acres are arable. The principal products are wheat, hemp, beet-root, vegetables, tobacco, and fruits. Manufactures of lace, cambric, linens, and beet-root sugar are extensively carried on. It has a much larger proportion of railways, roads, and canals than any of the other departments, as well as the most important coal and iron mines. No other department has so many populous towns and strong fortresses; none adds so much to the national revenue; in none are the people so intelligent, so susceptible of culture, or so industrious. In respect of its educational and benevolent institutions, as well as of its learned societies, it ranks next to the department of the Seine. The arrondissements are Lille, Douai, Cambrai, Valenciennes, Avesnes, Hazebrouck, and Dunkerque. The chief town is Lille.

NO'RDEN, a town of Prussia, in the province of Hanover, 72 miles north-west from Oldenburg, and a few miles from the North Sea, with which it is connected by a canal. Pop. (1871) 5952.

NO'RDERNEY, a small island of the Prussian province of Hanover, lies three miles off the coast of East Friesland, and forms one of a string of islands that lie that coast. Area about 4 square miles; permanent pop. 1770. It has enjoyed, since 1797, a great reputation as a place for sea-bathing, and in the summer season has from 1600 to 2000 visitors. The little village at the west end of the island has a very tastefully-built *Conversations-Haus*, 130 feet long. Trees do not grow here.

NO'RDAUSEN, a flourishing town of Prussian Saxony, pleasantly situated at the southern base of the Harz Mountains, on the Zorge, 38 miles north-north-west of Erfurt. The surrounding country is very fertile in corn, and in the vicinity commences the *Goldene Aue* (Golden Plain), a fertile valley watered by the Helme. It contains a gymnasium, numerous churches, one of which, St. Blasius, contains two pictures by Luke Cranach. It carries on a thriving general trade, is the dépôt from which the Harz Mountains are supplied with necessaries, and has most extensive distilleries and considerable manufactures of tobacco, succory, chemicals, cloth, leather, &c. Its spirit distilleries, of which there are sixty in almost constant operation, produce annually for export upwards of 100,000 hogsheads of corn-brandy. Pop. (1875) 23,676.

NÖRDLINGEN, a town in the west of Bavaria, is situated on the river Eger, 44 miles north-west of Augsburg by the Munich and Nürnberg railway. It has a Gothic church, with a high tower and fine organ, and manufactures of Tyrolese carpets, linens, and woollens, besides a large trade in feathers. Pop. (1875) 7224. N. is historically interesting as the scene of several battles, the most famous of which was fought, 6th September, 1634, between 24,000 Swedes under Count Horn and Duke Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, and 45,000 imperialists under King Ferdinand. The former were defeated with the loss of 12,000 killed and wounded, 800 banners and standards, 80 cannons, and several thousand prisoners, among whom was Horn himself.

NORE is a sand-bank in the estuary of the river Thames, 4 miles north-east of Sheerness, on which there is a floating light called the Nore light, in lat.  $51^{\circ} 29' \text{ N.}$ , long.  $0^{\circ} 48' \text{ W.}$  The name, however, is more commonly applied to the portion of the estuary in the vicinity of the Nore light and sand bank.

NORFOLK, a large and important maritime county of England, bounded on the north and north-east by the North Sea, and on the south by the county of Suffolk. Area, 1,356,173 acres; pop. (1871) 488,511. Its coast-line, extending from Yarmouth, on the east, to the mouth of the Nen in the Wash, is about 100 miles in length. From Yarmouth to Happisburgh, the coast is low and sandy; from Happisburgh to Weybourne, it is skirted by low cliffs; and west of Weybourne to the Wash, where the banks are in great part dry at low-water, and where a considerable extent of land has been reclaimed from the sea (see WASH), it is low, and covered with sand or shingle. The surface of the county is level, or nearly so, none of the rising-ground being considered worthy of being called hills. The principal rivers are the Ouse, the Yare, with its affluents the Wensum and the Waveney, and the Bure. Communication is kept up by the navigable rivers, and by the Gr. at Eastern Railway. The climate is affected in spring particularly by cold north-east winds, but the air is in general dry and healthy. The soil consists chiefly of light sands and loams, and comprises a great extent of land, which, though naturally not fertile, has been made so by judicious management. The agriculture of the county is in an advanced condition, and all the usual crops are extensively grown; while that of barley is especially celebrated. Half the acreage is devoted to rearing food for cattle, and thus the necessary supply of manure is secured. Geese and turkeys are extensively reared for the London market. The county is divided into three parts, North, South, and West N., each returning two members to the House of Commons. The capital is Norwich.

NORFOLK, a city and port of entry of Virginia, U. S., 88 miles south-east of Richmond, and 32 miles from the ocean. The city is irregularly built on low ground, and contains a city hall, military academy, mechanics' hall, court-house, jail, custom-house, 9 banks, 26 churches. Its large deep harbor is defended by Fort Calhoun and Fortress Monroe, the largest fortress in America. A government navy yard, dry dock, and marine hospital are in the suburb of Gosport. N. was built in 1736; in 1776, it was burned by order of Lord Dunmore, the British colonial governor. In 1853, a large number of the inhabitants died of yellow fever. In 1874, the exports of N. (including Portsmouth) amounted in value to \$906,318 dollars; and, in the same year, the number of vessels belonging to these ports was 376. The population in 1870 was 19,229.

NORFOLK ISLAND lies in the Pacific Ocean, 1100 miles east-north-east of Sydney in Australia, in lat.  $29^{\circ} 10' \text{ S.}$ , and long.  $167^{\circ} 58' \text{ E.}$  Length, 5 miles; breath,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles; area, 8960 acres. It is the largest of a small cluster of islands, comprising N., Nepean, and Phillip Islands, together with several rocky islets. The coasts are high and steep, and the surface generally uneven, rising in Mount Pitt to upwards of 1000 feet in height. The soil is fertile and well watered, and the climate healthy. In 1825, N. I. was made a penal settlement by the British government for the worst class of convicts sent out to New South Wales; but the experiment was a failure, and the establishment was broken up in 1855. In 1856, the inhabitants of Pitcairn Island (q. v.)—194 in number, descendants of the mutineers of the "Bounty"—were transferred hither by the British government. In 1871, the pop. was 481, the Pitcairn community numbering 297.

## NO'RIC ALPS. See ALPS.

NO'RUM is the name assigned by Svanberg to a metal, whose earth (or oxide) is associated with zircon in certain varieties of the mineral zircon. Its existence is not as yet definitely established.

NORMAL SCHOOLS, institutions where teachers are instructed in the principles of their profession and trained in the practice of it. The name of Normal School is of French origin (*Ecole Normale*, from Lat. *norma*, a rule or model), and is generally used in Scotland; such institutions, in England, are oftener called "Training Colleges;" and in Germany "Seminaries." That in acquiring knowledge the mind follows certain processes, and that any one imparting knowledge should do so in harmony with these processes, are truths which seem sufficiently obvious. It is only recently, however, that they have secured much attention; and they are even at this day deliberately denied by some men of thought, and of the highest educational position. The recognition of these truths has, however, been sufficiently extensive to secure the institution in Great Britain, America, France, Germany, and Switzerland, of schools in which the principles of teaching form the subject of study, and in which model specimens of the art are given. Italy, and even Russia, are following in the wake of the countries named. These schools also afford a thorough course of instruction in the subjects which are taught in elementary schools. The only normal school for training the higher class of teachers for colleges and academies exists in Paris.

One of the earliest, if not the earliest, normal school in Great Britain was the Sessional School of Edinburgh (1830), afterwards developed into the "General Assembly's Normal Institution." The first attempt of a similar kind in England was that of the Battersea Training College, instituted by Mr, afterwards Sir J. P. K. Shuttleworth, and Mr Tuffnell. Sir J. P. K. Shuttleworth subsequently, acting as secretary to the Committee of Privy Council on Education, suggested measures which have resulted in the institution of about 50 colleges for the training of teachers in Great Britain in connection with the Established and Dissenting Churches. These turn out hundreds of male and female teachers annually, who having, after a two years' course of training, received government certificates of merit, become teachers of elementary schools.

There has been for some years a reaction against the necessity of normal schools, and their maintenance at the public expense. But this reaction can only be temporary, and the great facts will survive, that every subject of instruction is best taught according to a certain method, and that all methods are based on the study of the human mind. This is a position which it is impossible permanently to shake. The real founders of normal schools are those men who, with more or less clearness and width of view, have brought prominently forward these principles. Such were Plato and Quintilian, in ancient times; in more recent years, the most prominent names have been Comenius, Pestalozzi, Rousseau; and, in our own country, Ascham, Milton, Locke, Professor Pillans, and Dr Arnold.

NORMAN ARCHITECTURE. As its name implies, this style was originated and chiefly used by the Normans. Soon after their conquest of the north of France, they began to erect churches and cathedrals in memory of their victories. Their conquests supplied them with the means for making these large edifices. They were not contented with the small churches then common in France, but desired to erect monuments worthy of their great conquests. They accordingly expanded the dimensions, while to a great extent retaining the style of the buildings they found in France. They seem also to have borrowed some of their ideas from the Rhine. See GOTHIc ARCHITECTURE.

The leading characteristics of their style were size and massiveness. They adopted the old Latin plan (derived from the Basilica) of central and side aisles; and at the east end, they invariably placed a semicircular apse. They seized on the tower as a distinguishing feature, and developed it as their style progressed. The ornaments are simple and of great variety; but the most common and distinctive are the zigzag, billet, chevron, nail-head, &c. The windows and doors are simple, with semicircular arched heads—the former without tracery. The tympanum of the door-arch is occasionally filled with sculpture.

The nave arches are carried sometimes on single pillars, but more frequently,

especially as the style advanced, on piers with shafts. The shafts are almost always recessed in nooks or ("nook shafts"). Owing to the great size of the buildings, the architects were unable at first to vault the main aisle, which, accordingly, had usually had a wooden roof, the side aisles only being vaulted.

The masonry is rude; the joints being large, and the stones generally unhewn. The style prevailed from about the beginning of the 10th c. till the death of William the Conqueror, near the end of the 11th century. There are many examples in Normandy, the churches at Caen being well-known buildings of the date of William.

This style of architecture was brought into England by the Normans at the Conquest, 1066. They there extended the scale of the buildings, as they had done in Normandy, preserving, however, many local peculiarities of the Saxon style, which they found in the country. The chapel in the White Tower of the Tower of London is the earliest example of pure Norman work in England. There are, however, many buildings, both in England and Scotland, which date from before the end of the 12th c., when the pointed style began to be used. Durham, Lindisfarne, Canterbury, Dunfermline are partially Norman, besides many other churches and castles. The Anglo-Norman is heavier than the French-Norman, the cylindrical nave piers of the above buildings being much more massive than those of French works. To relieve this heaviness, the chevron, spiral, and other groovings were cut in the piers. The mouldings and forms of doors, windows, &c., are the same as those of Normandy. There is one remarkable difference in the plans of the Early Norman churches in the two countries: in France, the apse at the east end is always semi-circular; in England, this form was gradually given up; and towards the end of the style, the square east end was universally adopted.

**NORMANDY** (Fr. *Normandie*), formerly a province in the north of France, bordering on the English Channel; now divided into the departments of Seine-Inferior, Eure, Orne, Calvados and Manche. It is in general a very fertile, richly-cultivated land, resembling a garden in many districts. Its chief agricultural products are corn, flax and fruits (from which cider is largely made); its fisheries and manufactures of great importance, and its horses the best in the kingdom. The inhabitants are for the most part descendants of the old Normans, and bear the stamp of their splendid ancestors. They are intelligent, strongly built, and of a noble and energetic character; warm-hearted and patriotic, they produce the boldest sailors, the most skilful fishermen, agriculturists, cattle-rearers and gardeners in all France. In the north-eastern and more level part (formerly *Upper Normandy*), the principal towns are Rouen, Dieppe, Havre-de-Grace, Harfleur, Honfleur, Lisieux, Evreux, Yvetot; in the south-western or hilly part (*Lower Normandy*), the principal towns are Caen, Falaise, St.-Lo, Bayeux, Coutances, Avranches, Balonne, Alençon, Cherbourg and Mont-St-Michel.

In the time of the Romans, the country bore the name of *Gallia Lugdunensis II.* Under the Frankish monarchs it formed a part of Neustria, and was first called N. after Charles the Simple, in 912, had given it to Rolf or Rollo, the leader of a band of Norse rovers (see **NORMANS**), to be held by him and his posterity as a fief of the French crown. From Rolf (baptized into Christianity under the name of Robert) and Gisela, the daughter of Charles, sprung the later Dukes of N., of whom Richard I., grandson of Rolf, vigorously maintained his authority against his liege lords, Louis IV., and Lothaire. William II., son of Robert II., became Duke of N. in 1086; and in 1066, established a Norman dynasty on the throne of England (see **WILLIAM THE CONQUEROR**), thereby politically uniting N. with the latter country. In 1077, his eldest son, Robert, wrested N. from him, but it was again united to England under Henry I. in 1105. With this monarch, Rolf's male line became extinct. Henry II., the son of Henry I.'s daughter, Matilda, after the death of Stephen of Blois, obtained in 1154 the government of England and N.; but in the reign of his son, John Lackland, it was conquered by Philippe Auguste (1203-1240). It remained a portion of the French monarchy for more than 200 years; but after the battle of Agincourt (1415) it was reconquered by the English, who held it till 1449, when it was finally wrested from them by Charles VII. See Lique's "Histoire de la Normandie" (1885); Palgrave's "History of N. and of England" (1851-64).

**NORMANDY**, Customary Law of (Fr. *Coutumier de Normandie*). The ancient

provinces of France were governed principally by a system of laws called *Coutumes*, which had originated in local usages, and been in the course of time reduced to writing and formally sanctioned by the sovereign. *Coutume* was distinguished both from *lot*, which originated with the king, and from *us*, or usage not reduced to writing. Of the codes of customary law, one of the oldest and most famous was the *Coutumier de Normandie*. It was divided into the ancient and modern custom. The former was first reduced to a written form, in 1229, under St Louis; the latter was the ancient *coutumier*, modified and reformed in 1585, by commissioners appointed by Henry III., with the concurrence of the three estates of the nobility, clergy, and people of Normandy. The ancient *coutumier* treats principally of the duties of the judicial officers, the proceedings in the different courts, and the rights and obligations of the kings of France, the Dukes of Normandy, the feudal lords, and the people. In the modern *coutumier* are minute regulations regarding the transmission of property by will and inheritance. Each of the twenty-two vicomtés, into which N. was divided, had a different mode of devising real property. The law by which the Channel Islands are still governed is based on the customary law of Normandy. The chief judge in Jersey, Guernsey, and Alderney retains the Norman name of *bailli* or *bailliff*, and his authority is much the same as that officer possessed under the Norman law. One of the most remarkable remnants of the *coutumier* still subsisting in the Channel Islands is the *Cameur de Haro*. Any one who considers that his rights of property are infringed, protests in the presence of two witnesses, and calling out three times "Haro" (said to be a way of invoking Duke Rollo, noted for his justice), summons the trespasser to desist. He then applies to the authorities, relating what he has done, and proceeds to the Record Office, where note is taken of the circumstances; all which ceremonial must be gone through before bringing an action of trespass. The decision is generally referred to *une vue de justice*, and the losing party is subjected to a fine, and liable in costs; he had formerly also to undergo *un regard de château*, or twenty-four hours' imprisonment, for having implored the aid of the prince without cause.

NO'RMANS (i. e., Northmen), a name generally limited in its application to those sea rovers who established themselves in that part of France called after them, Normandy; but sometimes embracing also the early inhabitants of Norway. During the middle ages, the name Northmen, or Norsemen, was often used in a broader sense, to denote the entire population of Scandinavia, and still more frequently, perhaps, to designate the Danes and Norwegians, exclusive of the Swedes. The Germans and French called the piratical wretches who ravaged their shores Normans or Northmen; the Saxons, usually Danes or Eastmen. They were also distinguished by the latter as *Mark*- or March-men (from *Den-mark*), as *Aek*-men (i. e., men of the *ashen*-ships), and as the *Heathen*. The primary cause of the plundering expeditions southward and westward across the seas, undertaken by the Norse Vikings (*Vikingar*, meaning dwellers on the *vics*, i. e., bays or fjords), as they called themselves, under leaders, who took the name of "Sea-Kings," was doubtless the over-population and consequent scarcity of food in their native homes; besides, the relish for a life of warlike adventure, conjoined with the hope of rich booty, strongly attracted them; while—at least as long as the old Scandinavian religion lasted (i. e., till about the end of the 10th c.)—death in battle was not a thing to be dreaded, for the slain hero passed into a region of eternal strife in the *Walhalla* of Odin. Finally, discontent with the ever-increasing power of the greater chiefs or kings, induced many of the nobles with their followers to seek new homes.

The first Danish Norsemen made their appearance on the eastern and southern coasts of England in 787. After 832, their invasions were repeated almost every year. To one of these belongs the legend of Ragnar Lodbrok (i. e., Ragnar of the "Shaggy Brogues"), who is said to have been taken prisoner by Ella, king of Northumbria, and thrown into a dungeon filled with vipers, where, while expiring amid horrible torments, he sung with heroic exultation the story of his life. The very existence, however, of such a person as Ragnar Lodbrok is questioned by many Scandinavian scholars. In 861, the Norsemen wintered for the first time in the island, and after 866 obtained firm footing there. The Anglo-Saxon Ethelred I. fell in battle against them in 971. His brother Alfred, known as Alfred the Great

(q. v.), after a long and doubtful struggle, partially reduced them to subjection; nevertheless, he was compelled to leave them in possession of Northumbria and East Anglia; and had not only to defend himself against a new and fierce invasion led by the famous rover Hastings (q. v.), but like his immediate successors, to contend against the revolts of his Dano-Norman subjects. A period of external peace now ensued; but in 991 the invasions of the Danes and Norwegians began anew. The Saxon king, Ethelred II., at first sought to buy them off by paying a sort of tribute-money, called *Danegeleyt* (q. v.); but the massacre of the Danes living in England, by command of that monarch, 13th November 1002, was avenged by four expeditions under the Danish king, Sven, who frightfully wasted the country, and finally conquered it in 1013, dying the following year. His son Knut, or Canute (q. v.), after carrying on a struggle for the supreme power with Ethelred and his successor Edmund Ironside (q. v.), at length, on the death of the latter, became sole monarch of England, which now remained under Danish or Norse rulers till 1042. The government of the country then reverted into the Saxon hands of Edward the Confessor (q. v.), who was succeeded in 1066 by Harold II. (q. v.), son of the powerful Godwin, Earl of Wessex (q. v.); but in October of the same year, Harold lost his life and crown at the battle of Hastings, and William the Conqueror, a descendant of a Norwegian chief who had settled in Normandy, once more established a Norse dynasty on the throne of England, but one greatly refined and improved by long residence in a comparatively civilised region.

It was also Danish Norsemen, in particular, who ravaged the western coasts of the European mainland, from the Elbe to the Garonne. As early as 810, the Danish king, Gottfried, had overrun Friesland; but the power of the great Charlemagne was too much for these undisciplined barbarians, and they were overawed and subdued for a time. Soon after his death, however, they recommenced (*circa* 820) their piratical expeditions, and favored by the weaknesses and dissensions of the Carlovingian rulers, became, during the 9th c., the terror and scourge of Northwestern Germany and France. They plundered Hamburg several times, ravaged the coasts of the Frisians (which then extended as far as the Scheldt), and in 843 firmly planted themselves at the mouth of the Loire. But ere long they ceased to be satisfied with making descents and settlements on the coasts, and in their small piratical craft they swarmed up the great rivers into the interior of the country, which they devastated far and wide. Thus, in 845, they ascended the Seine and plundered Paris—an exploit which was frequently repeated. In 855, not less than 40,000 of these Vikings are said to have ascended the river from Rouen under the leadership of one Siegfried in 700 vessels, and besieged the capital for ten months. It was only saved at the expense of Burgundy, which was abandoned to their ravages. In 881, Louis or Ludwig III., king of the West Franks, inflicted a severe defeat on the invaders at Vimenet, near Abbeville in Picardy, the memory of which has been preserved in a song still popular among the country-people; but neither that, nor the repulse which they sustained from the brave German monarch Arnulf, near Louvain in 891, could hinder them from making fresh irruptions. In 892, they appeared before Bonn, and tradition says that bands of Danish rovers penetrated even into Switzerland, and established themselves in the canton of Schweiz and the vale of Hasli. From their settlements in Aquitania they proceeded at an early period to Spain, plundered the coasts of Galicia in 844, and subsequently landed in Andalusia, but were defeated near Seville by the Moorish prince Abd-ur-Rahman. During 859—860, they forced their way into the Mediterranean, wasted the shores of Spain, Africa, and the Balearic Isles, penetrated up the Rhone as far as Valence: then turning their piratical prows in the direction of Italy, entered the Tyrrhenian Sea, burned Pisa and Lucca, and actually touched the distant isles of Greece before their passion for destruction was satiated, or before they dreamed of returning west.

Undoubtedly Norwegian rovers also took part in these so-called Danish expeditions. We know that as early as the beginning of the 9th c. they made voyages to the north of Ireland, Scotland, the Hebrides, the Orkney and Shetland Isles; and the increasing power of Harald Haarfager in the 9th and 10th centuries, exciting great discontent among the smaller chiefs, great emigrations took place, and these islands became the new homes of these Norwegian Vikings. About the same period, colonies were settled in the Faroe Isles and Iceland, from which some Vikings

proceeded westwards across the North Atlantic to Greenland in 982, and thence, in 1002, south to a region which they called *Vinland*, now universally believed to be the coast of New England, thus anticipating the discovery of America by Columbus by nearly 500 years. From Norway also issued the last and most important expedition against the coast of France. It was led by Rolf or Rollo, who had been banished by Harald Haarfager on account of his piracies. Rolf forced Charles the Simple to grant him possession of all the land in the valley of the Seine, from the Epte and Eure to the sea. By the time of Charles the Bald the invaders had firmly planted themselves in the country, which then went by the name of Normandy (q. v.). They and their descendants are, strictly speaking, the Normans of history—warlike, vigorous, and a most brilliant race. They rapidly adopted the more civilised form of life that prevailed in the Frankish kingdom—its religion, language, and manners, but inspired everything they borrowed with their own splendid vitality. At a later period (the 12th c.) they even developed a great school of narrative poetry, whose cultivators, the *Trouveurs* or *Trouveres*, rivalled in celebrity the lyrical Troubadours of Southern France. Their conquest of England, in 1066, gave that country an energetic race of kings and nobles, on the whole well fit to rule a brave, sturdy, but somewhat torpid people like the Anglo-Saxons. But though the Normans had acquired comparatively settled habits in France, the old passion for adventure was still strong in their blood; and in the course of the 11th c., many nobles with their followers took themselves to Southern Italy, where the strife of the native princes, Greeks and Arabs, opened up a fine prospect for ambitious designs. In 1059, Robert Guiscard, one of the ten sons of the Norman count, Tancred de Hauteville, all of whom had gone thither, was recognised by Pope Nicholas II. as Duke of Apulia and Calabria, and in 1071 as lord of all Lower Italy. His brother and liege-man, Roger, conquered Sicily, 1060—1099. Roger II. of Sicily united the two dominions in 1127; but in the person of his grandson, William II., the Norman dynasty became extinct, and the kingdom passed into the hands of the Hohenstaufen family.

The Swedish Norsemen directed their expeditions chiefly against the eastern coasts of the Baltic—Courland, Estonia, and Finland, where they made their appearance in the 9th c.—the very time when their Danish and Norwegian brethren were roving over the North Sea, the English Channel, the Bay of Biscay, and were establishing themselves on the shores of England and France. According to the narrative of the Russian annalist, Ne-tor, they appear to have penetrated into the interior as far as Novgorod, whence they were quickly banished by the native Slavic and Finnish inhabitants, but were as quickly solicited to return and assume the reins of government. Hither, consequently, in 862, accompanied by other noted warriors, came three Swedish chiefs, Rurik, Sineus, and Truwor, sons of the same father, and belonging to the tribe of *Ros* (whence *Russ* and *Russians*). Rurik founded one kingdom at Novgorod, which stretched northwards as far as the White Sea. His successor, Oleg, united with that & second established by other Swedish adventurers at Kiev, which town now became the capital of the wide-extended Russo-Swedish kingdom. See RUSSIA. For a long period these Norsemen, who, it appears, became completely identified with their Slavic-speaking subjects in the 10th c., were dangerous enemies of the Byzantine empire, whose coasts they reached by way of the Black Sea, and whose capital, Constantinople, they frequently invaded, as, for instance, in 941, when Igor is said to have appeared before the city with upwards of 1000 ships or boats. Earlier in the same century, these Swedo-Russian warriors had found their way into the Caspian Sea, and actually penetrated to the coasts of Tartary and Persia. Partly from them, and partly from native Scandinavians, came those soldiers who from the 9th to the 12th c. formed the body-guard of the Byzantine emperors.—See Depping's "Histoire des Expéditions Maritimes des Normands et de leur Etablissement en France au 10me Siècle" (2 vols. 2d edit. 1848); Wheatley's "History of the Northmen from the Earliest Times to the Conquest of England" (1831); Worsaae's "Minder om de Danske og Normændene i England, Skotland, og Irland" (1851); Freeman's "History of the Norman Conquest" (1867–1876).

NO'RNE, the *Parcs* of the northern mythology. They were three young women, by name Urd, Verðandi, and Skuld—i. e., Past, Present, and Future. They sit by the Urdar-well under the world-tree Yggdrasil, and there determine the fate both of

gods and men. Every day they draw water from the spring, and with it and the clay that lies around the wells, sprinkle the ash-tree Yggdrasil, that its branches may not rot and wither away. Besides these three great horns, there are also many inferior ones, both good and bad; for, says the Prose Edda, when a man is born there is a horn to determine his fate; and the same authority tells us that the unequal destinies of men in the world are attributable to the different dispositions of the horns. These lesser horns corresponded to the *genii* of classic mythology. Women who possessed the power of prediction or magic also bore this name.

NO'RRISTOWN, a borough of Pennsylvania, U. S., on the north bank of the river Schuylkill, 16 miles north-west of Philadelphia, containing cotton and woollen factories, from rolling-mills and foundries, machine-shops, court-house, jail, public library, bank, 18 churches, seminary, 5 public schools, 1 German and 7 English newspapers, and in 1870, 10,753 inhabitants.

NO'RRKÖPING, the first manufacturing town of Sweden after Stockholm, is the chief town of Linköping-Lan, in East Gotland, and is situated at the junction of the Motala with the Gulf of Bravike, in  $58^{\circ} 30'$  n. lat., and  $16^{\circ} 15'$  e. long. Pop. in 1874, 26,366. It is a fine, well-built town, with broad streets, large squares, and numerous churches and charitable institutions. The rapid river Motala, which is spanned by several substantial bridges and lined with commodious wharfs, affords very considerable water-power, by which numerous systems of machinery are worked. The manufactures are cloths, stockings, starch, tobacco, soap, &c., while in the neighborhood are the extensive ironworks and cannon foundries of Finspång. N. is a good salmon station, and is the principal Swedish port for the importation of wines and foreign spirits.

NORTH, Frederic, Lord, English minister, was born April 18, 1732, and educated at Eton, and Trinity College, Oxford. His father, Baron Guilford, a descendant of Roger, Baron North (*temp. Henry VIII.*), was created an earl in 1752. N. entered the House of Commons at an early age, was made a Lord of the Treasury in 1768, and inherited the Tory politics which, in the days of Charles II., had placed his ancestor in the highest ranks of the law and the state. It was his boast in the House of Commons, that "since he had had a seat there he had voted against all popular, and in favor of all unpopular measures." On the death of Charles Townshend, in 1769, he was made Chancellor of the Exchequer and leader of the House of Commons, a post for which he was well qualified by his eloquence, good humor, wit, and readiness of resource. His folly was, however, one of the immediate causes of the American War. Earl Russell, in his "Life and Times of C. J. Fox," says that "for £100,000 a year of revenue George Grenville provoked America, and that for £16,000 a year of revenue Lord North lost America." In 1770, he succeeded the Duke of Grafton as prime-minister. As a minister he was too ready to surrender his own judgment to that of George III., who, with a narrower understanding, had a stronger will, and was determined to subdue America. N. was called by Horace Walpole the ostensible minister; the real minister was the king. N. had to encounter an ardent and powerful opposition, led by C. J. Fox and supported by Burke. It has since been proved that N. "so early as 1776 was of opinion that the system he was pursuing would end in ruin to the king and to the country." In 1778, he renounced the right of taxing the colonies. In 1782, it being impossible to carry on the war with America any longer, N. resigned. "A more amiable man never lived," says Earl Russell; "a worse minister never since the Revolution governed this country." With N.'s retirement came to an end George III.'s scheme of governing the country by his own will, and ruling the House of Commons by court favor and thinly disguised corruption. N. was succeeded by the Marquis of Rockingham, on whose death Lord Shelburne became premier. Fox's dislike of the terms of peace with America led him to enter into a coalition with N., whom he had for so many years inveighed against as a minister without foresight, treacherous, vacillating, and incapable. N. and Fox took office under the Duke of Portland in 1788, but the coalition destroyed Fox's popularity, and the Portland administration only lasted a few months. N. was affected by blindness during the last five years of his life. He succeeded to the earldom of Guilford, in 1790, on the death of his father, and died in August 1792.

NORTH BERWICK. See BERWICK, NORTH.

NORTH CAPE. See MAGEROÉ.

## NORTH CAROLINA. See CAROLINA.

**NORTH-EAST AND NORTH-WEST PASSAGES.** The numerous and important discoveries made by the Portuguese and Spaniards in the southern latitudes of Asia, and the reports which, on their return, they spread of the fabulous wealth of those regions, excited the attention of the other maritime nations of Europe, and prompted them to send out expeditions to the East Indies for the purpose of obtaining a share in the lucrative traffic of which Spain had hitherto possessed the monopoly. But the latter power, then at the height of her prosperity, was not disposed to admit other nations as sharers of her good-fortune, and dealt so summarily with all intrepid, having at that time the complete command of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans, that her rivals were reluctantly compelled to abandon all thoughts of trading in those seas. Unwilling, however, to lay aside their designs of opening a trade with the far-famed India and Cathay (as China was then called), they resolved to attempt to reach those regions by some other route. Two plans appeared most feasible—the one to reach Eastern Asia by coasting along the north of Europe and Asia, the *North-East Passage*; the other by sailing westward across the Atlantic. The latter was first attempted by John Cabot in 1497, but he found his progress barred by the American continent, or, at least, those parts of it known as Newfoundland and Labrador. Three years afterwards, Gaspard Cortereal and his brother made three several voyages in the same direction; and on reaching Newfoundland, sailed northwards, but were stopped on the coast of Labrador, in lat. 60° n. Both brothers afterwards perished, with all their followers. Several voyages were soon after made to discover if a passage for ships existed to the north of America (the *North-West Passage*), but without success; and the hardships which navigators were subjected to in these inhospitable climes, caused the abandonment for the time of all further investigations in that direction.

*North-East Passage.*—The search for a North-East Passage was now vigorously prosecuted, and England had the honor of sending out the first expedition for this purpose in 1553. It consisted of three ships, commanded by Sir Hugh Willoughby, and was fitted out under the direction of the celebrated Sebastian Cabot; but on rounding the North Cape, one of the ships was separated from the others during a violent storm, and subsequently entered the White Sea, then unknown to western Europeans. The other two, under Willoughby, drifted hither and thither in the vast waste of water surrounding the pole, till the navigators sighted Nova Zembla. Being unable to land, they sailed back along the north of Russia, and took up their winter quarters on the coast of Russian Lapland, where they were subsequently found frozen to death. Several other expeditions were, at different times, sent out by the English and Dutch, but none of them ever succeeded in penetrating further than the east coast of Nova Zembla, though they rendered good service to geography by making accurate surveys of Northern Europe and the adjacent islands of Spitzbergen, Nova Zembla, Waygatz, &c. It was for a long time believed that the promontory which forms the eastern boundary of the gulf of Obi was the *Tabis* of Pliny, and formed the north-east corner of Asia; and this opinion, which received the assent of the celebrated Gerard Mercator, tended greatly to encourage renewed explorations, as according to it, the eastern coast of Asia was not more than 400 miles from Nova Zembla. The following is a list of the chief expeditions for the discovery of the North-East Passage:

|   |               |           |
|---|---------------|-----------|
| Willoughby and Chancellor.....            | English.....  | 1553      |
| Burroughs.....                            | " .....       | 1556      |
| Pet and Jackman.....                      | " .....       | 1590      |
| Barentz, William (three expeditions)..... | Dutch .....   | 1594-1596 |
| Hudson, Henry, {first expedition.....     | English ..... | 1608      |
| Hudson, Henry, {second expedition.....    | Dutch .....   | 1609      |
| Wood.....                                 | " .....       | 1676      |

In his third expedition Barentz nearly reached Icy Cape, about long. 100° e., but was, with his crew, imprisoned by the ice, and died before the return of spring. Various important discoveries were made during this expedition, which proved that in favorable seasons a passage could be found to the eastward, but after the subsequent failures of Hudson and Wood, the attempt was abandoned in despair. The Russian government now took up the search, and both by overland expeditions, and by vessels

starting from various points on the north and east coasts of Siberia, sought to discover a practicable passage. The chief of these expeditions were those of Behring in 1741, which started from Petropavlovski, and was stopped at the East Cape; of Shalaoff; and of Billings. In 1875, and again in 1876, Professor Nordenskiöld reached the eastern shores of the Gulf of Obi; and in July 1878 a well-equipped Swedish expedition, under that veteran explorer, attempted once more the n. e. passage. The party successfully rounded Cape Chelynskin, and in September were able to start from the mouth of the Lena for Behring's Strait.

*North-West Passage.*—As was formerly mentioned, Sebastian Cabot and the brothers Cortereal were the first who attempted to double the north coast of America; Cabot had reached as far north as lat.  $67^{\circ} 30'$ , in the strait between Greenland and America, but the courage of his crew failing, he was compelled to return. Notwithstanding his urgent representations, he was unable to prevail upon the English monarch to send out another expedition, and it was not till after several unsuccessful attempts had been made to find a North-East Passage that investigations of the north coast of America were resumed. As these investigations were carried on till within the last few years solely by the English, their prosecution till a definite result was arrived at came to be looked upon as a point of national honor, and repeated expeditions were sent out long after it had been clearly shewn that a North-West Passage, when found, would be needless in a mercantile point of view. In all, more than 200 voyages were made in search of the North-West Passage, so that only the most important of them can be even mentioned. The first expedition, after that of Cabot, was sent out in 1576, under Martin Frobisher, who made a second and third voyage in the two following years, but without any important discovery. In 1585–1588, northern enterprise received an impetus from the successful expeditions of Captain John Davis. This navigator sailed up the strait which bears his name, as far as lat.  $72^{\circ}$  north, and reported open sea still further north; he then surveyed the east and west sides of the strait, but without further important results. Henry Hudson (q. v.), who had previously attempted the North-East Passage, followed in 1610, and discovered the Hudson Strait and Bay, believing the latter to be none other than an inlet of the Pacific Ocean, an opinion which was proved erroneous by the investigations of Button in 1612; the latter, however, disseminated on his return the equally erroneous opinion that the bay was closed in on all sides, with the exception of the two eastern entrances. Button's account was not universally credited, and accordingly in 1615, Captain Bylet, who had been one of Hudson's company, was sent out, accompanied by Baffin, the most skilful navigator and scientific observer of the time; but their first expedition, which was to Hudson's Bay, was devoid of results. In their next voyage (1616), they sailed up Davis' Strait, reaching lat.  $78^{\circ}$  n., and satisfying themselves by a very superficial investigation that there was no northern outlet, the bay (as it was then believed to be) was named in honor of its explorer Baffin's Bay. On their return southwards, they coasted along the west side, and discovered an opening to the west which they named Lancaster Sound, but believing it to be only an inlet, did not explore further. On his return, Baffin gave it as his decided opinion that no outlet to the west existed from Baffin's Bay, and the attention of explorers was again directed to discover an outlet from Hudson's Bay. In 1619, the solitary attempt by foreign powers to aid in the search was undertaken by Jens Munk, a Dane, but he made no discoveries, and the attempt was not renewed. The expedition of Fox and James, in 1681, led to the partial exploration of the channel since known as the Fox Channel, which forms the northern outlet to Hudson's Bay, and from this time the spirit of discovery slumbered till 1741. Between this date and 1746, several expeditions were sent out to discover an outlet from the north-west corner of Hudson's Bay, but their united researches satisfactorily proved that no such outlet existed. Owing to these disappointments, the search for a North-West Passage was discontinued for more than half a century, notwithstanding the fact of the British parliament having promised a reward of £20,000 to the fortunate discoverer. In 1818, the Admiralty took up the search, and sent out Captain John Ross and Lieutenant Parry, who sailed up Davis' Strait, and ascended Lancaster Sound for thirty miles; here Captain Ross gave up the search, considering it to be hopeless. But this opinion was by no means coincided in by Parry, who was accordingly sent out in the following year, and succeeded in far outstripping all his predecessors in the career of northern dis-

covery. He entered Lancaster Sound on 30th July, and a few days afterwards discovered a large inlet, thirty miles broad, which he named Prince Regent Inlet. After exploring this inlet for some distance, he returned, and continued his course westward, as the ice allowed him, passing through a strait which he named after Sir John Barrow, the promoter of the expedition. Continuing his westward course, he reached long.  $110^{\circ}$  w., in Melville Sound, where he was stopped by the ice; and after wintering here, and giving names to the numerous islands, seas, and straits he had discovered, returned to Britain, with the glory of having advanced  $30^{\circ}$  of longitude further west than any previous explorer. On his arrival, he was welcomed with the utmost enthusiasm, and his discoveries imparted renewed energy to the half-dormant maritime enterprise of the British. There was now no doubt in what direction the North-West Passage was to be sought, but Parry's second expedition (1821—1823) was for the purpose of determining whether the Fox Channel was connected with the Arctic Sea of his previous voyage; it was, however, unsuccessful. A little before this time, the coast-line of North America from Behring's Strait to Point Turnagain, in long.  $109^{\circ}$  w., had been fully traced, so that it only remained to find some navigable passage from Regent Inlet to this point, and the long-wished-for result would be attained. For this purpose, Captain John Ross was sent out with an expedition in 1829, and after a laborious and difficult voyage up Prince Regent Inlet, reached a point only 200 miles from Point Turnagain. It was during this voyage that he discovered the magnetic pole. Dease and Simpson, in 1838, extended the survey of the American coast from Point Turnagain to within 90 miles of the magnetic pole, but the hopes of a channel between these points were dashed by the discovery made by Dr. John Rae, in 1847, that Boothia (the land which bounds Regent Inlet on the west) is a peninsula of the American continent. We now come to the unfortunate expedition of Sir John Franklin, which, it was fondly hoped, would settle the question of a North-West Passage. It sailed from England, May 19, 1845, and was last seen in Baffin's Bay. Franklin is believed to have sailed through Lancaster Sound, and ascended Wellington Channel to lat.  $77^{\circ}$  n., and thence returned southwards, crossing Barrow Strait, and sailing down the channel (now called Franklin Channel) which separates North Somerset and Boothia Felix from Prince of Wales Island to the west, where, in lat.  $70^{\circ}$  n., long.  $98^{\circ} 30'$  w., his ships were beset with ice, 12th September 1846, and Franklin died 11th June 1847. The survivors abandoned the vessels 20 miles southwest of this point, and perished in the attempt to reach the American mainland. Many expeditions were sent out to search for the missing voyagers, and one of these expeditions, under Collinson and M'Clure, sailed from Plymouth, 20th January 1850, and reached Behring's Strait in August of the same year. Sailing eastward the following spring, M'Clure's ship became fixed in the ice, about 60 miles west of Barrow Strait, and the crew were picked up by Sir Edward Belcher, who had been sent out in April 1852 to their assistance. Belcher, who had reached Melville Sound by the eastern passage through Lancaster Sound and Barrow Strait, returned the same way; and thus M'Clure and his company enjoyed the envied honor of being the only ship's crew who had ever penetrated from Behring's Strait to Baffin's Bay. To M'Clure, then, belongs the honor of having finally set at rest all doubts as to the existence of a North-West Passage. By the various English and American expeditions (1848—1859) sent out to search for Sir John Franklin, the whole region to the north of the American mainland as far as lat.  $77^{\circ}$  n., and long.  $109^{\circ}$  w., has been thoroughly explored, and various channels of communication between Davis' and Behring's Straits have been discovered, such as the route by Hudson's Bay, Fox Channel, Fury and Hecla Strait and Bellot Strait, into Franklin Channel, and thence by either the M'Clintock or the Victoria Channel, or the routes by Lancaster Sound, and the M'Clintock Channel, Prince Regent Inlet, or Prince of Wales Strait, to the open sea n. of Alaska, but all these routes are useless in a mercantile point of view. See POLAR EXPEDITIONS.

**NORTHERN LIGHT-HOUSES.** Commissioners of, the body corporate which has under its management the whole of the light-houses of Scotland and Isle of Man. The body was first constituted by act of parliament 26 Geo. III., but has been frequently since the subject of legislation. The light-houses of the Isle of Man were assigned to it in 1815. By the Merchant Shipping Act, 1854, the Commissioners are so far limited in their powers, that any proposal for a new light-

house must receive the approval of the Trinity House, London, and the outlay must be sanctioned by the Board of Trade; the cost, however, is borne by the imperial light-house fund. The Commissioners act wholly in virtue of office, and give their services gratuitously. The body consists of the Lord Advocate, Solicitor-General, Lord Provost and senior Baillie of Edinburgh; Lord Provost and senior Baillie of Glasgow; Lord Provost of Aberdeen; provosts of Inverness, Campbeltown, Dundee, and Greenock; the sheriffs of the following counties—Aberdeen, Argyle, Ayr, Berwick, Bute, Caithness and Sutherland, Edinburgh, Elgin, Fife, Forfar, Haddington, Inverness, Kincardine, Lanark, Orkney and Shetland, Renfrew, Ross, Wigton, and Kirkcudbright. The business of the Commissioners is conducted at an office in Edinburgh, with the assistance of a secretary and consulting engineers. In 1877, the number of light-houses under charge of the commission was 60, besides buoys and beacons. The Commissioners own a steam-vessel, the "Pharos," for supplying stores to the several light-houses, and performing annual visits of inspection. The whole system of northern lights is remarkably well organised, the merit of which is in a great measure due to the late Robert Stevenson (q. v.). A Royal Commission appointed some years ago to inquire into the management of the English, Irish, and Scottish light-houses, has acknowledged that the "Scotch light-houses are in the best state of general efficiency, the English next, and the Irish third."

**NORTH SEA** (*ancient Germanicum Mare*; Ger. *Nord See*), that arm of the Atlantic Ocean which separates the British Islands on the west from the continent on the east. It is 700 miles in extreme length (from north to south), about 400 miles in greatest breadth, and has an area of not less than 140,000 square miles. The great commercial highways from the N. S. to the Atlantic are by the Pentland Firth and the Strait of Dover; while on the east it communicates with the Baltic by the Skagerrack, the Cattegat, Sound, and Great and Little Belts. Along its south-eastern and southern coasts the shores are low, and are skirted by sand-banks, formed by the sand deposits carried to the sea by the waters of the Elbe, Wear, Rhine and Scheldt, which are the principal rivers that flow into this sea from the east. The shores of England, especially in the south, are also low, and here sand has also accumulated, though not nearly to the same extent as on the continental coasts. The chief British rivers that fall into the N. S. are the Thames, Ouse, Humber, Tyne, Tweed, Forth, and Tay. Besides the sand-banks on the coast already referred to, there are others extending to the middle of the sea-bed, similar in their origin to those on the coasts, and occupying altogether about three-fourths of the entire area. Of these, the principal are the bank running north-east from the mouth of the Firth of Forth for 110 miles; the one extending north-west from the mouth of the Elbe for about the same distance; the Doggerbank (q. v.) &c. These sand-banks, combined with the storms and fogs so common in the N. S., render its navigation unusually dangerous. Another peculiarity of the bed of this sea is, the number of extraordinary "holes" which have been found in it. Of these the most remarkable are the Little Silver Pitt off Holderness in Yorkshire, and the North-north-east Hole, 8 leagues further east. Little Silver Pitt is 25 miles in length, and from half a mile to two miles in width. At its edges there is a depth of from 50 to 80 feet of water, but the "hole" has a depth of 380 feet. In the north, along the Norwegian coasts, the shores are steep and rocky, and there is a depth of about 190 fathoms. The depth (31 fathoms on an average) increases from south to north. The currents of this ocean are extremely various, and demand the greatest caution on the part of the navigator. Owing to the prevalence of south-west winds, the currents shew a general tendency towards the north-east. On the south-western coast of Ireland, the great tidal wave of the Atlantic is broken into two portions, one of which, coarsing up the Channel, passes through the Strait of Dover; while the other, sweeping north, passes round the north of Scotland, and then southward along the east coast of Britain, and meets the southern wave off the coast of Essex. The northern portion of the tidal wave spreads over the whole of the German Ocean, and though on its entrance into the N. S. it is only 12 feet in height, it rises in its progress southward, as the sea becomes narrower, in the same way as the bore (q. v.) is formed in a contracting estuary. In the estuary of the Humber it rises to the height of 20 feet. This sea yields immense quantities of fish, the most important kinds being cod, hake, ling, turbot, sole, mackerel, and herring, also lobsters. The fisheries employ many thousand people. On all available points of the coasts, light-houses have been

erected, and there are numerous floating light-vessels moored to detached banks. The traffic on the N. S. is enormous. It is surrounded by countries whose inhabitants have from the earliest times been famous on the seas, and the enterprise and national bias that formerly covered the Scandinavian waters with conquering fleets, may now be traced in the vast commercial intercourse carried on on the North Sea.

**NORTH WALSHAM**, a small market-town of England, in the county of Norfolk, on an acclivity on the right bank of the Ant, 14 miles north-north-east of Norwich. Its market-cross, repaired after the great fire in 1600, by which the town was almost entirely burned down, dates from the reign of Edward III. Pop. (1871) 2842.

**NORTH-WEST PROVINCES**, a great political division of British India (see INDIA), between Nepal and Oude on the north-east, and Rajpootana and the Indore Agency on the south-west, consisting of seven subordinate divisions—Meerut, Kumaon, Rohilkund, Agra, Jhansi, Allahabad, and Benares. Each of these divisions comprises from three to six districts. They are treated under separate articles. The area of the North-West Provinces is 81,403 square miles, and the population in 1871 amounted to 30,781,204. The capital is Allahabad.

**NORTHA'LLERTON**, capital of the North Riding of Yorkshire, a market-town and parliamentary borougn, 250 miles north-north-west of London, and 30 miles north-north-west of York by railway. It stands near the left bank of the Wiske. It contains a large number of public schools and other institutions. Manufactures of linen and leather, brick-making, and malting are carried on on a limited scale. Pop. (1871) of parliamentary borough, 4961, who send a member to the House of Commons. The battle of the "Standard," so called from a huge standard erected on a car by the English, was fought here, August 22, 1138, between the English under the Earls of Albemarle and Ferrers, and the Scotch under King David. The latter were defeated, and forced to retreat with great loss.

**NORTHAMPTON**, a village of Massachusetts, U. S., 1 mile west of the Connecticut River, 95 miles west of Boston, on the Connecticut River Railway. It is celebrated for its beautiful scenery. Mounts Tom and Holyoke rising from a picturesque valley. It contains many elegant residences, the county buildings, 6 banks, several academies, 11 churches, 1 cotton factory, 2 silk factories, 3 paper-mills. A bridge, 1080 feet long, connects it with Hadley. Pop. (1870) 10,160.

**NORTHAMPTON**, capital of the county of the same name, a market-town, and parliamentary and municipal borougn, on a rising-ground on the left bank of the Nen, 67 miles north-west of London by railway. In the centre of the town is a spacious market-square. The principal edifices are the shire-hall, the new and handsome town-hall, the corn exchange, the numerous churches, several of which are unusually interesting, as St Peter's, a recently restored and beautiful specimen of enriched Norman, and St Sepulchre's, much improved in 1865, one of the very few round churches in the empire, and referred to the 12th century. The hospitals of St John and St Thomas were religious houses prior to the Reformation. Boot and shoemaking, which affords employment to about 3000 persons, is the principal branch of trade carried on here. Leather is made, and hoseery and lace are manufactured. Iron and brass foundries are in operation, and brewing is carried on. Two markets are held here weekly, a general one on Wednesday, and one for cattle on Saturday. Pop. (1871) of parliamentary borougn, 44,871, who return two members to parliament.

**N.**, a very ancient town, was held by the Danes at the beginning of the 10th c., and was burned by them in 1010. After the Conquest it was bestowed on Simon de St Liz. Its castle was besieged by the barons in 1215, during the civil wars of King John. It was the scene of a great battle fought (July 10, 1460) during the Wars of the Roses, between the rival houses, in which the Earls of March and Warwick defeated the Lancastrians.

**NORTHAMPTONSHIRE**, a central county of England, bounded on the w. by the counties of Warwick, Leicester and Rutland, and on the s. w. by Oxfordshire. Area, 629,913 acres; pop. (1871) 243,891. Its surface is marked by gently undulating hills, alternating with well-watered vales. The chief rivers are the Nen and the Welland, both of which flow north-east, and fall into the estuary of the Wash. The county is traversed by the London and North-Western, the Great Northern, the

**Eastern Counties**, and other lines of railway, and communication by water is maintained by the Union. Grand Junction, and other canals, as well as by the rivers. The climate of the county is mild and healthy; the soil, a black mould in the fen districts in the north-east, and a brown loam on the uplands, is very productive. White and green crops are abundantly produced, and on the rich pastures cattle are extensively reared for the London market. Four members are returned to the House of Commons for the county.

**NORTHUMBERLAND**, the most northern county of England, is bounded on the e. by the North Sea, and on the n. w. by the Scottish counties of Roxburgh and Berwick. Area, 1,290,312 statute acres; pop. (1871) 386,646. The surface of the county has a rugged, and especially in the west and south-west a naked and barren aspect. The Cheviots run along the western border of the county, and send out spurs toward the east, which, gradually declining, are separated by fertile valleys, that widen as they approach the coast. About one-third of the area of the county is occupied by moorland, and along the Cumberland border the broken and bleak-looking hills are valuable for their lead-mines. Allenheads, the centre of the lead-mining district, is the highest inhabited spot in England, being 1400 feet above sea-level. The inclination of the surface toward the east is indicated by the direction of the rivers Ane, Coquet, and North Tyne, which with the Tyne and Till are the principal rivers of the county. The Tweed forms the boundary of the county on the north for about 5 miles, and the south boundary is formed in part by the Derwent and Tyne. The climate is cold, but is milder on the coast than amid the hills, which, however, produce sufficient herbage for the maintenance of large flocks of "Cheviot" sheep. The principal agricultural tracts occur along the coast, and inland along the river valleys for several miles. In these districts, the soil, for the most part, is a strong, fertile clayey loam, productive in wheat, barley, beans, and clover. Agriculture is pursued on the most improved methods, and cattle, chiefly shorthorned, are extensively reared. The south-east portion of the county forms a part of the great Northumberland and Durham coal-field, which produces about 25,000,000 tons annually. There are upwards of 100 pits in operation in the county. N. is traversed by the Newcastle and Carlisle, North-Eastern and Border Counties Railways. The county returns four members to the House of Commons; the county town is Alnwick (q. v.).

**NORTON**, Rev., American scholar and theologian, was born at Hingham, Massachusetts, December 31, 1786. Having graduated at Harvard College in 1804, he was appointed, in 1809, a tutor of Bowdoin college, and in 1811 mathematical tutor at Harvard, and in 1813 librarian of the university, and succeeded Dr Channing as lecturer on biblical criticism and interpretation. In 1819, he was appointed Dexter Professor of Sacred Literature, which office he retained until failing health compelled his retirement in 1830. Dr Norton was, after Dr Channing, the most distinguished exponent of Unitarian theology, a clear and perspicuous lecturer, an able and conservative critic, and a voluminous writer. Rejecting the doctrine of the Trinity, and protesting against Calvinism, he also opposed the school of Theodore Parker and the naturalistic theology. Besides his contributions to the "General Repository and Review," the "North American Review," "Christian Examiner," he published (1833) "A Statement of Reasons for not believing in the Doctrine of the Trinity;" (1837) "The Genuineness of the Gospels;" (1839) "On the Latest Forms of Infidelity;" and left some poems and a translation of the gospels. He died at Newport, Rhode Island, September 18, 1853.

**NORTON**, the Hon Caroline Elizabeth Sarah, a poetess and novelist of some reputation, the daughter of Thomas, and the granddaughter of Richard Brinsley Sheridan, was born in 1808. Her father died while she was still a child, and her education, which embraced an unusually varied course of studies, was superintended by her mother. In 1827, she married the Hon George Chappel Norton. In 1831, she first met Lord Melbourne, then prime-minister, and the intimacy which succeeded having given rise to some scandalous rumors, Mr Norton brought an action against Lord Melbourne, which resulted in a verdict for the defendant. She died 15th June 1877, after having been for some months the wife of Sir W. Stirling Maxwell. Her chief works are "The Sorrows of Rosalie" (1829); "The Undying One" (1830); "The Child of the Islands" (1845); "Stuart of Dunleath," a novel (1847); "English

*Laws for Women in the Nineteenth Century* (1854); "The Lady of Garsye" (1862); "Lost and Saved," a novel (1863); and "Old Sir Douglas" (1868). Her prose works, several of which depict the wrongs incident to the position of women, are written with considerable cleverness and vigor; and her verse, though overstrained and stagy in sentiment, has numerous admirers, and manifests some degree of that brilliancy for which the Sheldanes have been so famous.

NO'RWALK, a township of Connecticut, U. S., on both sides of the mouth of Norwalk River and Long Island Sound, on the New York and New Haven Railway, 45 miles north-east of New York, and 31 south-west of New Haven. It has manufactures of iron, machinery, hats, felt-cloth (of which two companies make 500,000 yards per annum), 16 churches, &c. Pop. (1870) 12,119.

NO'RWAY (*Norweg. Norge*), the western portion of the Scandinavian peninsula, which, together with Sweden, forms one joint kingdom, is situated between  $57^{\circ} 55'$  and  $71^{\circ} 10'$  n. lat., and between  $5^{\circ}$  and  $28^{\circ}$  e. long. It is bounded to the e. by Sweden and Russia, and on every other side is surrounded by water, having the Skagerrak to the s., the German O can to the w., and the Arctic Sea to the n. Its length is about 1100 miles, and its greatest width about 250 miles; but between the lat. of  $67^{\circ}$  and  $68^{\circ}$ , it measures little more than 25 miles in breadth. The following table shews the areas and populations of the 20 *ämter* into which N. is divided, as given in the last census of January 1870:

| AEMTER.                    | Area in Eng. Sq. Miles | Population in 1870. |
|----------------------------|------------------------|---------------------|
| Smaalenene .....           | 1,548                  | 107,629             |
| Akershus.....              | 1,988                  | 114,773             |
| Christiania.....           | 2                      | 77,841              |
| Hedemarken.....            | 10,034                 | 119,774             |
| Christians.....            | 9,670                  | 115,983             |
| Buskerud.....              | 5,659                  | 101,867             |
| Jarlsberg and Laurvik..... | 861                    | 69,320              |
| Bratsberg.....             | 5,707                  | 83,986              |
| Nedenes.....               | 3,855                  | 75,979              |
| Lister and Mandal.....     | 2,428                  | 77,306              |
| Stavanger.....             | 3,421                  | 114,164             |
| Söndre Bergenhus.....      | 5,854                  | 121,577             |
| Bergen (town of).....      | 1                      | 34,984              |
| N. Bergenhus.....          | 7,045                  | 86,205              |
| Romsdal.....               | 5,650                  | 116,833             |
| S. Trondhjem.....          | 7,684                  | 116,814             |
| N. Trondhjem.....          | 8,794                  | 81,889              |
| Nordland.....              | 14,860                 | 103,579             |
| Tromsø.....                | 9,70                   | 53,937              |
| Finmarken.....             | 18,306                 | 24,232              |
| Total.....                 | 122,280                | 1,617,237           |

Of this total, only 332,933 live in towns. At the preceding census on Dec. 31, 1865, the population was 1,101,756.

The Scandinavian peninsula consists of more or less connected mountain masses, which, in the southern and western parts of N., constitute one continuous tract of rocky highlands, with steep declivities dipping into the sea, and only here and there broken by narrow strips of arable land. South of Trondhjem ( $63^{\circ}$  n. lat.), the ridge expands over nearly the entire breadth of Norway. The northern portions of the range, known as the Kjöllen Fjelle,\* occupy a space of about 25 miles in width, and form, as far north as  $69^{\circ}$ , the boundary-line between Sweden and Norway. South of  $63^{\circ}$  n. lat., the range of the Scandinavian mountains is known as the Norska, or Dovre Fjelle, although the latter name belongs properly only to the part immediately in contact with the Kjöllen. The general elevation of the Norska Fjelle does not rise

\* *Fjelle* is the plural of *fjeld*, a mountain-side.

above the line of perpetual snow, whose average height in these latitudes is 500 feet; but it ranges above that of the growth of trees, which may be stated to lie 1000 feet lower. Only two carriage-roads traverse the Norska Fjelle, the one connecting Christiania with Bergen, and the other with Trondhjem. The Jistedal glacier, in Bergen amt, is the largest on the continent of Europe, and covers an area of 588 sq. miles. The whole of the west coast of N. is densely fringed with islands and insulated rocky masses, which, north of 68°, in the Lofoden (q. v.) group, assume larger dimensions, and form extensive insular districts. The more important are Hindø (357 sq. m., 8190 inhabit.), on the borders of Nordland and Tromsø; Langø (147 sq. m., 5812 inhab.); Karmø (only 21 sq. m., although the pop. is 11,827); and Senjen (27 sq. m., with 3339 inhab.). To the south of the Anden group, near the little islands, Mosken and Værø, occurs that eddying whirl of counter-currents known to us as the Maelstrom; but with this and a few other similar exceptions, no serious obstacles impede navigation along the numerous channels of the coast. The most important of the rivers are the Glommens (350 miles long, with a basin of 6657 sq. miles), the Drams-elv, of less than half the length and basin, Tana, Pasvikel, Skiens, Laagen, and Vormieu. These and numerous other streams are of more importance for floating down timber to the fjords than for navigation. The fjords or inlets form a characteristic feature of Norwegian scenery, and give a coast-line of upwards of 800 miles.

The most considerable of the lakes of N. is the Mjøsen, near Christiania; but even this lake, which in some places is more than 1400 feet deep, is scarcely 60 miles long, and has an area of less than 200 sq. miles. Swamps and morasses, which occupy a large area, have of late years engaged the attention of the government, which is endeavoring to drain and utilise them for agricultural purposes, and with a view of converting them into fields of turf and peat for fuel.

*Climate, Soil, &c.*—The peculiar physical character of N. necessarily gives rise to great varieties of climate in different parts of the country. The influence of the sea and of the Gulf Stream, and the penetration into the interior of deep inlets, greatly modify the severity of the climate, more especially on the west coast. Thus, while the mean annual temperature is for Christiania, on the east coast, 41°, it is 46°-8 Fahr. for Bergen on the west coast, which is only 30° further north. On the coast generally, rain and fogs prevail; while in the regions near the North Cape, storms are almost incessant. In the interior, the air is clear and dry, and the winters are cold and the summers hot, while on the coasts the opposite conditions prevail. The longest day, which in the south is 18 hours, may be said to be nearly three months in the high latitudes of the northern districts, where the longest night lasts almost an equal length of time. The protracted winter of the northern regions follows almost suddenly on the disappearance of the sun, when the absence of solar light is compensated for by the frequent appearance of the aurora borealis, which shines with sufficient intensity to allow of the prosecution of ordinary occupations.

It is estimated that 1-38th of the area of N. lies within the region of perpetual snow, while elevations exceeding 2000 feet above the level of the sea are unfitted for human habitations, although for a portion of the brief summers, the herdsman can occupy *setre* or huts at elevations of 3000 feet and upwards. A large extent of the mountain districts yields no produce beyond scanty grasses, mosses, lichens, and a few hardy berry-yielding plants. Only birch and juniper grow north of 67°, which is the boundary of the pine. The Scotch Fir, *Pinus sylvestris* (Norwegian, *Furu*), and Spruce, *P. abies* (Norwegian, *Gran*), cover extensive tracts, and with birch, constitute the principal wealth of Norway. The hardier fruits, as strawberries, gooseberries, cherries, and raspberries, are abundant and excellent of their kind. Hemp, flax, rye, oats, and barley are grown as far north as 66°; but although agriculture has been more systematically pursued of late years, the crops are not always sufficient for home consumption, and hence it is found absolutely necessary annually to import considerable quantities of corn and potatoes. The frugal peasantry do not, however, rely wholly upon importation, but prepare a species of cake or bread from the bark of the pine when corn is scarce, and in plentiful years store away some of the produce of the harvest in the national corn-magazines, which are established in every part of N. by way of a provision for an unfavorable season. A culture is most successfully prosecuted in the amts of Jarlsberg and Larvik, at the south generally; while in the northern parts, in the upper valleys, the rearing of cattle constitutes an important branch of industry. The herds and flocks are

from the distant farms to the pasture-lands in these high mountain valleys, known as Sæterdale, where they remain till the approach of cold weather obliges the herdsmen to return with their charges to the shelter of the farms. Although the cattle and horses are small, they are generally strong and capable of bearing much hard labor.

*Products, &c.*—Fish are caught in almost every stream and lake of the interior, as well as in the fjords of the coast, and in the bays and channels which encircle the numerous islands skirting the long sea-line of Norway. Salmon, herring, and cod are of the greatest importance, and together give occupation to upwards of 50,000 men, who pursue the herring and cod fishing in the spring, and again in the summer, while cod is also fished in the winter-time. The value of the fish, fresh and dried, exported from N. in 1870, was 7,981,000 sp. d.,\* although that year was unfavorable in regard to the returns of deep-water fish. The average annual value of the fish and oil produce is between 9 and 10 millions of sp. d. In 1869 there were 33,000 men employed in the herring fisheries, and the value of the fish for that year was 250,000 sp. d. In the same year 15 Norwegian ships were engaged in the Jan Mayen (70° n. lat.) seal fisheries, when 33,000 young and 20,000 old seals were taken, and the profits of the captures were 45,000 sp. d. Next to the fisheries, N. derives its greatest sources of wealth from the produce of its woods. In 1870 there were 850,000 tons weight of timber (both deals and unhewn trunks) exported, of the net value of 7,600,000 sp. d. Within the last few years the Norwegian forests have yielded a new product of industry, known as wood-paste, extensively employed in the manufacture of paper, for which it promises to serve as a cheap and efficient substitute for rags.

The fauna of N. includes the bear, wolf, lynx, elk, otter, reindeer, red-deer, seal, the eider-duck, and many other kinds of sea-fowl, blackcock, capercailzie, and a great variety of small game. According to the census of 1865, there were in N. 149,167 horses, 953,036 horned cattle, 1,705,394 sheep, 290,985 goats, 96,166 swine, 101,768 reindeer.

The mineral products, which comprise silver, copper, nickel, cobalt, iron, chrome ironstone, &c., yield a large annual return. The value of the metal exports was, in 1870, 885,000 sp. d. for raw and partially worked ores, and 16,000 sp. d. for wrought metals. The richest mines are situated in the south, and chiefly in the district of the Glommen, as the celebrated and ancient silver-works of Kongsgberg, the copper mines of Røros, Alten, and Vigsnes, the nickel mines of Modum and Bamble, and the cobalt-works of Buskerud, and the numerous iron shafts on the southern declivities of the mountains between Kongsgberg and the Glommen. Latterly, however, some productive copper-works have been opened in the northern districts of Kaafjord in Finnmark.

Ship-building in all its branches is almost the only industrial art that is extensively and actively prosecuted. In many parts of the country there are absolutely no special trades, the inhabitants of the small fishing-ports, no less than the inmates of the widely separated farms, employing their compulsory leisure during the long winter in weaving, spinning, and making the articles of clothing and the domestic implements required in their households.

*Trade, &c.*—The principal seats of trade are Christiania, Drammen, Arendal, Bergen, Stavanger, and Trondbjem. The merchant fleet numbered, in 1874, 7447 vessels of 1,220,000 tons, manned by 56,147 seamen. In 1873 13,404 vessels cleared the ports of N. The exports, which consist mainly of timber, fish, mineral rails, furs, feathers, and down, amounted in 1873 to 33,987,000 sp. d., or about £7,000,000; while the imports for the same year were 45,859,000 sp. d., or £10,800,000 sterling. The value of the exports to Great Britain in 1877 was £5,295,000, the imports thence being valued at £1,728,000. The imports consist not only of the ordinary colonial goods, and objects of luxury, but in a large proportion of the most necessary articles of consumption, as cereals to the annual amount of 2,000,000 tons, salt in nearly half that quantity, fresh and salted meat, butter, soap, hemp, and flax, sailcloth, tow, oil, wine, tobacco, and manufactured goods of all descriptions. The most important commercial relations of N. are with Great Britain and Germany. Russia and Denmark stand next in order as importers to N., while the Catholic countries of the Mediterranean are the principal purchasers of the smoked and dried Norwegian fish.

\* The specie daler is worth about 4s. 6d.

**Revenue, &c.**—By the budget for 1876-77, the revenue was estimated at 39,200,000 kroner (the *krone*, worth 1s. 1½d., having in 1875 superseded the old *specie-daler*), or about £2,190,420, the expenditure being presumed to equal the receipts. The national debt of N. amounted in 1875 to 48,307,600 kroner.

**Administration, &c.**—N. is divided into 20 units, or administrative circles, as given in the table preceding. These circles are subdivided into 56 fogderier (bailliages), each presided over by a rural magistrate, and containing in all 446 herredes, or administrative districts, which have similarly their own judicial or official heads. N. has a representative government, based on the constitution which was established in 1814, and ratified at Eidevold. The Storthing, or legislative chamber, meets annually, and is composed of representatives who are elected by deputies who have been selected for the purpose of nominating the members. These deputies are elected by a system of almost unrestricted universal suffrage, the only qualifications necessary being the attainment of the age of 25, and the possession of property in land to the value of 150 sp. d., or a five years' tenancy of such property. The election of the deputies takes place every third year, when the electors meet in their respective parish churches, and choose deputies, whose number is in the proportion of 1 to 50 voters for towns, and 1 for 100 in rural districts. These deputies then select from their own body, or from among other eligible persons, the representatives for the Storthing, which is further subdivided into two distinct chambers, the Lagting and Odelsting, with the former of whom rests the framing of legislative and financial measures, and with the latter the power of accepting or rejecting them, and the right of taking cognizance of the conduct of the ministers, judges, and other officers of the state. The members of the Storthing receive an allowance for their time and travelling expenses during the session. The Storthing votes the taxes, which are collected by officers of the king of Sweden and N.; it proposes laws, which must be ratified by the king; but if they pass the Storthing three times, they acquire validity even without the king's sanction. Although N. constitutes one joint kingdom with Sweden in regard to succession, external policy, and diplomacy, it is in all other respects an independent state, having its own government, legislative machinery, finances, army, and navy. The king is indeed commander-in-chief of all the forces of the country, whether military or naval; but he can neither augment or decrease their number, nor proclaim peace or war without the ascent of the Norwegian Council of State, which must consist of ten members, natives of the country; nor, excepting in time of war, can he bring foreign soldiers within the frontiers, or send native troops out of Norway. In accordance with the constitution, no title can be conferred independently of the tenure of office, and no one can be raised to the rank of a noble; while with the death of the members of the few still surviving noble families who were born before 1821, all personal honor, privileges, and distinctions belonging to nobility will cease. The constitution may therefore be regarded as purely democratic in its character. The Council of State constitutes the highest court of justice, under whose jurisdiction the provincial magistrates or *amtmænd* administer justice, in conjunction with the bailiffs and *sorenskriver* or advocates, who preside over petty rural courts. These lower courts are controlled by the *Stift* or Diocesan Courts of Justice; while the latter are, in their turn, under the High Court of Appeal, or *Høieste Ret*, which is located at Christiania.

**Religion, &c.**—The Lutheran is the predominant church, to which all persons holding public offices of trust must belong, although freedom is allowed to all other Christian denominations and to Jews. The church is under the administration of six bishops, whose sees are Christiania, Christiansand, Trondhjem, Bergen, Hamar, and Tronoso. There are 80 deaneries, 437 higher rectories, and 960 parish and district, town and country churches in all. There were, in 1870, 582 beneficed clergymen, and 337 theological candidates without fixed preferment. The whole number of dissenters in that year did not exceed 5200. The clergy, who receive tithes, exercise considerable influence in remote country districts, where they frequently are called upon to settle disputes, and exercise various judicial functions. Much has been done of late years in N. for the diffusion of knowledge, and provision is now made to extend education to the inhabitants of the most inaccessible districts by means of itinerant teachers, a certain number of whom, corresponding to the number of farms in each parish, are nominated to the office of schoolmaster. These men proceed

from house to house, being supplied with a schoolroom, and fed and entertained by each householder in succession for the number of days at which the farm is mulcted; and by the aid of these means, education is so universally diffused that it is rare to meet with Norwegians who cannot read and write. In 1869, there were 150 higher poor schools, 15 normal schools for the parish-school teachers, 96 higher private schools, 16 military, naval, and navigation schools, and 12 polytechnic institutions. The expenses incurred for education were, for the country districts, 865,000 sp. d., and for the towns, 111,367 sp. d. The university of Christiania (q. v.), which was founded in 1811, has 47 professors, and is attended by about 1000 students; amongst whom are the sons of many of the peasant land-owners, who receive a university education without intending to follow the learned professions.

*Army, &c.*—By the terms of the laws of 1866 and 1876, the army of N. is composed of troops of the line, the military train, the militia or Landevaern, the civic guards, and the Landstorm, or final war-levy. In 1876, the troops of the line numbered 12,000 men and 750 officers. All young men above twenty-one years of age are liable to serve, with the exception of the inhabitants of the three northern amts of the kingdom. The fleet numbered, in 1876, 123 vessels, of which 32 were steamers, carrying 156 guns. The navy was manned by 2400 sailors, but the number of men liable by law to be called upon for naval service in the maritime districts of N. exceeds 60,000. Horten, in Christiania-Fjord, is the principal naval port. The only fortified spots are Frederickstoen at Frederickshald, Frederickstad, Akershus, Bergenshus, Munkholm, and Vardøhus.

The population of N. is chiefly rural, only about 11 per cent. living in towns. Christiania, the principal city, has 77,000 inhabitants, while Bergen and Trondhjem have respectively only 34,000 and 22,500. The physical character and consequent climatic relations of N. leave a very small proportion (according to some writers, only about 2 per cent.) of the area capable of being cultivated. There are few villages, and the isolated farmsteads are often separated from one another by many miles. The cultivators of the land are in most instances also the proprietors, less than one-third of the whole number being tenants only. Allodial land, known as Udal or Odel, does not descend to the eldest son unconditionally, since all his relatives have a claim upon it, and if it should be sold, have the right of buying it back within the term of five years at the saleprice.

*Roads, Railways, &c.*—The public roads in N. are excellent; and travelling is rendered cheap and expeditious by the system established and regulated by law, in accordance with which carriages and horses are provided at fixed rates of payment for travellers passing through the rural districts of the country. This system, which is known as "Skyds," is completely under the control and direction of the authorities, by whom the number of the guest-houses and stations are regulated. The length of the railways in N. in 1876 was about 340 miles; the length of the telegraph-lines was 4050 miles; and the number of letters that passed through the post in 1876 was 8,764,000.

*Race, Language, &c.*—With the exception of some 20,000 Lapps and Finns, living in the most remote northern regions, the inhabitants of N. are generally a pure Scandinavian race, akin to the North Germanic nations of Aryan descent. The genuine Norwegians are of middle height, with strong, well-knit, muscular frames, of fair skin, with light flaxen or yellow hair, and blue eyes. In character, they may be said to be frank, yet cautious and reserved, honest, religious, and superstitious, more from an inveterate love of clinging to the forms, thoughts, and creed of their ancestors, than from fanaticism. Their love of country, and the irrepressible fondness for the sea, by the very anomaly which these apparently contradictory propensities exhibit, shew them to be the true descendants of the sea-roving Northmen of old. Of late years, emigration has continued steadily to increase at a rate which threatens to be a serious evil to so badly populated a country as N., but which is easily explained by the small portion of land capable of cultivation. The general diffusion of education, and the perfect equality and practical independence which they have known how to secure and retain for themselves, notwithstanding their nominal incorporation with the other Scandinavian kingdoms, give to the poorest Norwegians a sense of self-respect and self-reliance which distinguish them favorably from those of the same class in other countries. The peasants, more especially in the amts remote from towns, retain their ancient provincial costumes, which are, for the most

part, highly picturesque, consisting, among the women, of ample woollen skirts and brightly-colored knit bodices, fastened and adorned with silver or brass clasps and buckles. Music is much cultivated by all classes of the people, and the national songs and melodies which are the favorites, are for the most part of a melancholy character.

Danish is the language in ordinary use both in writing and speaking, although dialects nearer akin to the old Norse are spoken by the dalesmen and mountaineers of special districts. Since the separation of the country from Denmark, a strongly national tendency has been manifested by some of the best Norwegian writers, and attempts have been made to reorganise these dialects into one general Norwegian language, and thus, in fact, to revive the ancient Norse, or Icelandic, which has been preserved in Iceland in almost perfect purity since its first introduction to the island in the 9th c. by colonists from the Scandinavian mother-lands. Among the most zealous cultivators of the ancient and modern literature and history of N., we may instance Professor P. A. Munch, whose able expositions of the laws and social conditions of his country have thrown new light on its history; Kreyser, Unger, and Hohnboe, who have done much to elucidate the Norse tongue and literature; A. Munch, Bjerregard, Hansen, and Welhaven the critic, successful cultivators of the national lyric; J. Moe and Asbjörnsen, collectors and annotators of native sagas; Ibsen the dramatist, and Björnson the delineator of national peasant life. In the more abstruse departments of mathematical and physical science, Norwegians have gained for themselves a foremost place, as is sufficiently testified by the mention of names such as N. H. Abel, renowned for his discoveries in definite integrals; C. Hausteen, the astronomer; and Kcilhau, the geologist.

*History.*—The early history of N. is comprised in that of the other Scandinavian countries, and is, like theirs, for the most part fabulous. It is only towards the close of the 10th c., when Christianity was introduced under the rule of Olaf I., that the mythical obscurity in which the annals of the kingdom had been previously plunged begins to give place to the light of historical truth.

The introduction of Christianity, which was the result of the intercourse which the Norwegians had with the more civilised parts of Europe, through their maritime expeditions, destroyed much of the old nationality of the people with the heathenism which they had hitherto cherished, although the sanguinary feuds which had raged among the rival chiefs of the land can scarcely be said to have lost their ferocity under the sway of a milder religion. Olaf II., or the Saint (1015—1030), who zealously prosecuted the conversion of his countrymen, raised himself to supreme power in the land by the subjection of the small kings or chieftains, who in the times of heathenism had subdivided the kingdom among them. The war between Olaf and King Knud the Great of Denmark, which terminated in 1030 with the battle of Sticklestad, in which the former was slain, brought N. under the sway of the Danish conqueror; but at his death in 1036, Olaf's son, Magnus I., recovered possession of the throne, and thenceforth, till 1319, N. continued to be governed by native kings. The death in that year of Hakon V. without male heirs, threw the election of a new king into the hands of the national assembly, who, after many discussions, made choice of Magnus VIII. of Sweden, the son of Hakon's daughter. He was in turn succeeded by his son Hakon, and his grandson Olaf IV., who having been elected King of Denmark in 1376, became ruler of the sister Scandinavian kingdoms on the death of his father in 1380. This young king, who exercised only a nominal sway under the guidance of his mother, Queen Margaret, the only child of Valdemar III. of Denmark, died without heirs in 1387. Margaret's love of power and capacity for government brought about her election to the triple throne of the Scandinavian lands, and from this period till 1814, N. continued united with Denmark; but while it shared in the general fortunes of the latter state, it retained its own constitutional mode of government, and exercised its right of electing to the throne, until, like the sister-kingdom, it agreed of its own free will to relinquish this privilege in favor of hereditary succession to the throne. See DENMARK, HISTORY OF. The Napoleonic crisis may be said to have severed this union, which had existed for more than 400 years, for Denmark, after having given unequivocal proofs of adhesion to the cause of Bonaparte, was compelled, after the disastrous war of 1813, to purchase peace at the cost of this long united partner of her state. Crippled in her resources, and almost a bankrupt,

she saw herself constrained to sign the treaty of Kiel in 1814, by which it was stipulated by the allied powers that she should resign N. to Sweden, receiving in return, by way of indemnity, some portion of Swedish Pomerania and the island of Rügen, which were subsequently exchanged with Prussia for Lauenburg on the payment by that state of two million rix-dollars. The Norwegians, having refused to admit the validity of the treaty of Kiel, nominated Prince Christian, the heir presumptive to the throne of Denmark, regent and subsequently king of Norway. This nomination was made by the national diet, or Storting, which met at Eidsvold, where they drew up a constitution based on the French constitution of 1791. These measures found, however, neither supporters nor sympathisers among the other nations; and with the sanction of the great allied powers, Charles John Bernadotte, Crown-Prince of Sweden, led an army into N., and after taking Fredrikstad and Frederickshald, threatened Christiania. Denmark being unable to support the cause of Prince Christian, and N. being utterly destitute of the means necessary for prosecuting a war, resistance was of no avail, and the Norwegians in this untoward conjuncture of affairs, were glad to accept the proposals made to them by the Swedish king for a union with Sweden, on the understanding that they should retain the newly promulgated constitution, and enjoy full liberty and independence within their own boundaries. These conditions were agreed to, and strictly maintained; a few unimportant alterations in the constitution, necessitated by the altered conditions of the new union, being the only changes introduced in the machinery of government. Charles XIII. was declared joint king of Sweden and N. in 1818, and while the latter has become an almost independent state, it is questionable whether the former has found in its nominal acquisition an equivalent for the loss of Finland, which was the price exacted for it by the allied powers, and made over to Russia. Since the union, N. has firmly resisted every attempt on the part of the Swedish monarchs to infringe upon the constitutional prerogatives of the nation; and during the reign of the first of the Bernadotte dynasty, the relations between him and his Norwegian subjects were marked by jealousy and distrust on both sides; but, since his death, the people generally have been more contented, and N. has continued to make rapid progress towards a state of political security and material prosperity far greater than it ever enjoyed under the Danish dominion.—See T. Thorlak, "Historia rerum Norvagicarum" (Copenhagen, 1711); Schöning, "Norges Riges Historie" (Soroe, 1771); Munch, "Det Norske Folk's Historie," Bd. 1-6 (Christ. 1852-1859); "Bidrag til Norges Officielle Statistik," 1871.

NORWAY HADDOCK. See BERGYLTH.

NO'RWICH, a city of England, capital of the county of Norfolk, and a county in itself, on the Wensum, immediately above its confluence with the Yare, 20 miles west of Yarmouth, and 98 miles north-north-east of London. It covers an area about five miles in circumference, is skirted on its north and east sides by the river, and on the west and south it was formerly surrounded by walls, the last vestiges of which have been recently removed in order to make room for the extension of the city. The market-place (600 feet long by 340 feet wide) and its vicinity contain many large shops and good houses. The castle, finely situated on an elevation near the centre of the town, originally covered, with its works, an area of about 25 acres. The bridge (150 feet long) over the ditch has one of the largest and most perfect Anglo-Norman arches remaining. The massive quadrangular Norman keep is now used as a prison. The cathedral, almost wholly Norman in plan, was founded in 1094 by Bishop Herbert Losinga. It is 411 feet long, 191 feet broad at the transept, and is surrounded by a spire 315 feet high. Near the cathedral are a number of ancient and interesting structures now more or less in ruins, among which may be mentioned St Ethelbert's and the Erpingham Gate, the former in Decorated English, the latter in late Perpendicular, and both valuable and rich specimens of their styles. Besides a large number of dissenting chapels and other places of worship, there are about 40 churches, of which St Peter's Mancroft, a handsome cruciform edifice of the 15th c., with a remarkably fine peal of 12 bells; St Andrew's, St Clement's, St George's, St Giles, St Michael's, and others, are worthy of mention. The Free Grammar School, with an endowment of about £200 a year, was founded by Edward VI., and the other educational establishments are numerous and various in character. The public library contains 20,000 volumes, and the library of the Norwich Literary

Institution, 15,000 volumes. N. is the seat of extensive and flourishing manufactures, the chief of which are bandanas, bombazines, shawls, crepes, gauzes, damasks, camlets, and muslins; shoemaking is extensively carried on; yarn and silk mills are in operation, and employ many hands. Iron-founding, tanning, dyeing, weaving, &c., and agricultural implement-making, are also carried on. The trade, which is facilitated by a canal and river system of communication with the sea, is chiefly in agricultural produce and coal. N. is the see of a bishop, and returns two members to parliament. Pop. of municipal and parliamentary borough in 1871, 80,266.

About three miles south of N. is Castor St Edmunds, which, prior to the Roman era, was called Caister, and under the Romans received the name of *Venta Icenorum*. N., which occupies a place in history from the time of the earlier Danish invasions, had its origin in the castle erected as a stronghold by the East Anglian kings, and resorted to as a place of safety by the inhabitants of *Venta Icenorum*, who gave it the name of North-wic, or northern station or town, on account of its relative position with respect to their own town. The bishopric of the East Angles was removed hither in 1094. About 4000 Flemings settled at N. in the reign of Elizabeth, and greatly increased the prosperity of the town by the branches of manufacture which they introduced.

NORWICH, a city of Connecticut, U.S., at the head of navigation of the Thames River, 18 miles north of New London, and 88 south-east of Hartford. The chief portion of the city lies on an eminence that rises between the Yantic and Shetucket rivers, which here unite to form the Thames. There are numerous manufactories of cotton, wool, paper, &c., which are supplied with water-power by falls of 50 feet on the Yantic river. N. contains county buildings, 7 banks, 1 daily and 8 weekly papers, 16 churches, 40 public and 5 private schools, and a free academy. N. was settled in 1639, when 9 sq. m. were bought for £70 of Uncas, an Indian chief, whose grave is in the city. Pop. (1870) 16,653.

NORWICH or Mammiferous Crag, a series of highly fossiliferous beds of sand, loam, and gravel, of Pliocene age, occurring at several places within a few miles of Norwich, where they are popularly named "Crag." They contain a mixture of marine and fresh-water mollusca, with ichthyolites and bones of mammalia. They are evidently estuary beds, the most common shells being the very species now abundant in such situations around the coasts of Britain; but with them are associated a few extinct species. The beds rest on the white chalk, the surface of which is frequently perforated by *Pholas crispata*, the shell still remaining at the bottom of the cavity. The mammalian bones belong to species of elephant, horse, pig, deer, and field-mouse. With them are occasionally found the bones of *Mastodon angustidens* and some mollusca, which belong to the Red Crag. They occurred here it is believed to have arisen from their having been washed out of the Red Crag, the Norwich Crag.

NO'RWOOD, Upper and Lower, are two villages in Surrey, England, with a station on the London and Croydon Railway, 6 miles south of London. The public pleasure-ground, called the Beulah Spa, is prettily laid out around a mineral spring. The villages are worthy of mention, however, chiefly on account of their schools, among which are a district school for the pauper children of Lambeth parish, and a very large and important educational establishment for the pauper children of London. The district parish of N. had, in 1871, a population of 12,588.

NOSE, AND THE SENSE OF SMELL. The nose is not only the organ of smell, but is likewise a part of the apparatus of respiration and voice. Considered anatomically, it may be divided into an external part—the projecting portion, to which the term *nose* is popularly restricted; and an internal *nasal fossa*, consisting of two chief cavities, spongy or turbinated bones projecting by a vertical septum, and subdivided by *meatuses*, with which *processes* project from the outer wall into three passages or *superior maxillary sinus* cells or *sinus* in the ethmoid, sphenoid, frontal, and

The *external nose* is *constricted* in the ethmoid, sphenoid, frontal, and *hypopharynx*, *internal nose* is *constricted* by narrow apertures. The upper portion of this organ may be described as a triangular *process* from the centre of the face, immediately above the upper lip. Its summit or root is connected with the forehead by means

of a narrow bridge, formed on either side by the nasal bone, and the nasal process of the superior maxillary bone. Its lower part presents two horizontal elliptical openings, the nostrils, which overhang the mouth, and are separated from one another by a vertical septum. The margins of the nostrils are usually provided with a number of stiff hairs (*vibrissæ*), which project across the openings, and serve to arrest the passage of foreign substances, such as dust, small insects &c., which might otherwise be drawn up with the current of air intended for respiration. The skeleton, or framework of the nose, is partly composed of the bones forming the top and sides of the bridge and partly of cartilages, there being on either side an upper lateral and a lower lateral cartilage, to the latter of which are attached three or four small cartilaginous plates, termed sesamoid cartilages; there is also the cartilage of the septum which separates the nostrils, and in association posteriorly with the perpendicular plate of the ethmoid, and with the vomer, forms a complete partition between the right and left nasal fossæ. It is the lower lateral, termed by some writers the alar cartilage, which by its flexibility and curved shape forms the dilatate chamber just within the nostril. The nasal cartilages are capable of being slightly moved, and the nostrils of being dilated or contracted by various small muscles, which it is unnecessary to describe. The integument of the nose is studded with the openings of sebaceous follicles, which are extremely large and abundant in this region. The oleaginous secretion of these follicles often becomes of a dark color near the surface; and hence the spotted appearance which the tip and lower parts of the sides, or *ala*, of the nose frequently present. On firmly compressing or pinching the skin of these parts, the inspissat'd secretion is forced out of the follicles in the form of minute white worms with black heads.

The *nasal fossæ*, which constitute the internal part of the nose, are lofty, and of considerable depth. They open in front by the nostrils, and behind they terminate by a vertical slit on either side in the upper part of the pharynx, above the soft palate, and near the orifices of the eustachian tubes, which proceed to the tympanic cavity of the ear.

The mucous membrane lining the nose and its cavities is called *pituitary* (Lat. *pituita*, slime, rheum), from the nature of its secretion; or *Schneiderian*, from Schneider, the first anatomist who shewed that the secretion proceeded from the mucous membrane, and not, as was previously imagined, from the brain; it is continuous with the skin of the face at the nostrils, with the mucous covering of the eye through the lacrimal duct (see *EYE*), and with that of the pharynx and middle ear posteriorly. This membrane varies in its structure in different parts of the organ. On the septum and spongy bones bounding the direct passage from the nostrils to the throat, the living membrane is comparatively thick, partly in consequence of a multitude of glands being disseminated beneath it, and opening upon it, but chiefly, perhaps, from the presence of ample and capacious submucous plexuses of both arteries and veins, of which the latter are by far the more large and tortuous. These plexuses, lying as they do in a region exposed more than any other to external cooling influences, appear to be designed to promote the warmth of the part, and to elevate the temperature of the air on its passage to the lungs. They also serve to explain the tendency to hemorrhage from the nose in cases of general or local plethora. In the vicinity of the nostrils, the mucous membrane exhibits papillæ and a scaly epithelium, like the corresponding parts of the skin. In the sinuses, and in all the lower region of the nose, the epithelium is of extreme delicacy, being of the columnar variety, and clothed with cilia. In the upper third of the nose—which, as the proper seat of the sense of smell, may be termed the *olfactory region*—the epithelium ceases to be ciliated, assumes a more or less rich sienna-brown tint, and increases remarkably in thickness, so that it forms an opaque soft pulp upon the surface. It is composed of an aggregation of nucleated particles, of nearly uniform appearance throughout, except that the lowest ones are of a darker color than the rest, from their containing a brown pigment in their interior. Dr Todd and Mr Bowman remark, in their "Physiological Anatomy," from which we have condensed the above account of the nasal mucous membrane, that the olfactory region abounds in glands, apparently identical with sweat glands, which dip down in the recesses of the submucous tissue among the ramifications of the olfactory nerve.

The nerves of the nose are the first pair or olfactory which are specially connected with the sense of smell, branches of the fifth pair which confer ordinary sen-

sibility on its skin and mucous membrane, and motor filaments, from the facial nerve to the nasal muscles. The olfactory nerve on each side is connected with the inferior surface of the Brain (q. v.) by an external, a middle, and an internal root, which unite and form a flat band (or, more correctly, a prism), which, on reaching the cribriform plate of the ethmoid bone, expands into an oblong mass of grayish-white substance, the *olfactory bulb*. From the lower surface of this bulb, are given off the *olfactory filaments*, fifteen or twenty in number, which pass through the cribriform foramina, and are distributed to the mucous membrane of the olfactory region. These filaments differ essentially from the ordinary cerebral nerves. They contain no white substance of Schwann, are not divisible into elementary fibres, and resemble the gelatinous fibres in being nucleated, and of a finely granular texture. The branches of the fifth pair (or trifacial) given to the nose are the nasal nerve (derived from the ophthalmic division), which supplies the skin and mucous membrane in the vicinity of the nostrils, and the naso-palatine nerve (derived from Meckel's ganglion), which is connected with the superior maxillary division, which supplies the mucous membrane on the spongy bones and on the septum. The peculiar sensation that precedes sneezing is an affection of the nasal nerve, and the flow of tears that accompanies a severe fit of sneezing is explained by the common source of this and the lachrymal nerve; while the common sensibility of the nose, generally, is due to the branches of this and of the naso-palatine nerve.

The nature of odorous emanations is so little known, that it is impossible to give a definite account of the mode in which they produce sensory impressions. From the fact that most odorous substances are volatile, and *vice versa*, it may be presumed that they consist of particles of extreme minuteness dissolved in the air; yet the most delicate experiments have failed to discover any loss of weight in musk, and other strongly odorous substances, after they have been freely evolving their effluvia for several years. But whatever may be the nature of the odorous matter, it is necessary that it should be transmitted by a respiratory current through the nostrils to the true olfactory region, whose membrane must be in a healthy condition. If it is too dry, or if there is an inordinate excretion of fluid from its surface (both of which conditions occur in cataract or cold in the head), smell is impaired or lost, in consequence of the necessary penetration of the stimulating odor to the nervous filaments being prevented.

The acuteness of the sense of smell is far greater in many of the lower animals (dogs, for example) than in man, and they employ it in guiding them to their food, in warning them of approaching danger, and for other purposes. To civilised man its utility is comparatively small; but it is occasionally much increased when other senses are deficient. In the well-known case of James Mitchell, who was deaf and blind from his birth, it was the principal means of distinguishing persons, and enabled him at once to perceive the approach of a stranger. Amongst many savage tribes the sense is almost as acute as in many of the lower mammals. For example, the Peruvian Indians are able, according to Humboldt, to distinguish in the middle of the night, whether an approaching stranger is a European, American Indian, or Negro.

Although all poisonous gases are not odorous, and all bad odors may not be positively deleterious to health, there can be no doubt that one of the principal objects for which the sense of smell is given to us is to enable us to detect atmospheric impurities, many of which are of a most noxious character, and give rise to the most serious forms of fever.

**NOSE-RING.** See **RING**.

**NOSING**, the projecting edge of a moulding, such as the bead or bottle used on the edge of steps, to which the term is most frequently applied.

**NOSOLOGY** (Gr. *nōsos*, disease) is that branch of the science of medicine which treats of the distribution and arrangement of diseases into classes, orders, &c. Many systems of nosology have at different times been adopted; some of which have been based upon the nature of the ascertained causes of diseases; others on the pathological states or conditions which attend diseases; others on the differences between structural and functional diseases, &c. It is hard to say which is the most perfect method; but that of Dr Farr, one of the most distinguished living medical statisticians, is adopted by the Registrar-General in the Reports on the mortality of London and

England, and is becoming more generally adopted than any other. It has the advantage over the antiquated but once popular system of Cullen (1792) of meeting the requirements of modern science, and (by illustrating great questions connected with public health) of shewing those causes that are injurious or fatal to life, and of those contributing to the removal of those evils (bad drainage, imperfect ventilation, &c.) which tend to shorten human existence.

We append Dr Farr's system of no-logy, which is arranged in four primary classes, each of which includes various orders:

CLASS I. *ZYMOTIC DISEASES* (Gr. *zymē*, a ferment).—Diseases that are either epidemic, endemic, or contagious, and that are induced by some specific body, or by want of food or by its bad quality. In this class there are four orders—viz., Order I. *Miasmatic Diseases* (Gr. *miasma*, a stain), such as small-pox, measles, scarlet-fever, diphtheria, typhus and typhoid fevers, cholera, ague, &c. Order II. *Euthetic Diseases* (Gr. *enthētōs*, put in or implanted), such as syphilis, gonorrhœa, glanders, hydrophobia, malignant pustule, &c. Order III. *Dietic Diseases* (Gr. *dīaīta*, way of life or diet), such as famine, fever, scurvy, purpura, rickets, bronchocele, delirium tremens, &c. Order IV. *Parasitic Diseases*, such as scabies (or itch), and worm disorders from animal parasites, and ring-worm, scald-head, &c., from vegetable parasites or fungi.

CLASS II. *CONSTITUTIONAL DISEASES*.—Diseases affecting several organs, in which new morbid products are often deposited; sometimes hereditary. This class contains two orders. Order I. *Diathetic Diseases* (Gr. *diathēsis*, condition or constitution), including gout, anaemia, cancer, melanosis, lupus, &c. Order II. *Tubercular Diseases*, such as scrofula, phthisis, mesenteric disease, tubercular meningitis, &c.

CLASS III. *LOCAL DISEASES*.—Diseases in which the functions of particular organs or systems are disturbed or obliterated with or without inflammation; sometimes hereditary. This class includes eight orders. Order I. *Brain Diseases* (or more correctly, *Diseases of the Nervous System*), such as apoplexy, paralysis, epilepsy, chorea, hysteria, mania, &c. Order II. *Heart Diseases* (or more correctly, *Diseases of the Circulatory System*), such as pericarditis, endocarditis, aneurism, angina pectoris, atheroma, phlebitis, varicose veins, &c. Order III. *Lung Diseases* (or more correctly, *Diseases of the Respiratory System*), such as bronchitis, pneumonia, pleurisy, asthma, emphysema, laryngitis, &c. Order IV. *Bowel Diseases* (or more correctly, *Diseases of the Digestive System*), such as stomatitis, gastritis, enteritis, peritonitis, jaundice, &c. Order V. *Kidney Diseases*, such as Bright's disease, nephritis, ischuria, diabetes, stone, gravel, &c. Order VI. *Genetic Diseases* (or *Diseases of the Generative System*), such as hydrocele, ovarian dropsy, &c. Order VII. *Bone and Muscle Diseases*, such as caries, necrosis, exostosis, synovitis, muscular atrophy, &c. Order VIII. *Skin Diseases*, such as urticaria, eczema, herpes, impetigo, acne, lichen, prurigo, &c.

CLASS IV. *DEVELOPMENTAL DISEASES*.—Special diseases, the incidental result of the formative, reproductive, and nutritive processes. It contains four orders. Order I. *Developmental Diseases of Children*, such as malformations, idiocy, teething, &c. Order II. *Developmental Diseases of Women*, such as amenorrhœa, childbirth, change of life, &c. Order III. *Developmental Diseases of Old People*, such as old age, and its concomitant afflictions. Order IV. *Diseases of Nutrition*, such as atrophy, debility, &c.

NOSSI-BÉ, Nossi-Barin, Varion-Bé, or Helleville, an island on the north-west coast of Madagascar, at the mouth of the Bay of Pasandava, and separated from the mainland by a narrow channel. It is about 74 sq. m. in extent; its coast-line is very much indented; and its surface much diversified. The highest hill is 1700 feet in height, and is clothed to the summit with magnificent trees; but much of the island has a bare aspect, the forests having been cut down in order to the cultivation of rice. The soil is very fertile, and rice, maize, manioc, bananas, &c., are produced far beyond the wants of the inhabitants. The soil is volcanic, and there are several old craters filled with water. Nossi-Bé has been in the hands of the French since 1840, and is regarded by them as an important possession, on account of an old claim which they suppose themselves to have to Madagascar. There is on this island a small town called Helleville, with a harbor well sheltered from the north and east winds. There is good anchorage also at several other parts of the coast. The pop. of the island is about 6000.

**NOSSI-IBRAHIM**, or Sainte Marie, an island on the east coast of Madagascar, and separated from it by a strait of about 5 miles in width. It is about 40 miles in length from north-north-east to south-south-west, but only a few miles in breadth. It is one of the much-prized possessions of the French on the coast of Madagascar, has been in their hands since 1750, and is their chief place of commerce on that coast. The soil is generally arid, and the climate moist and unhealthy. Rain is of extreme frequency. The pop. of the island is about 5000. It contains a small town called St Louis—a seaport, and fortified. All the French possessions on the coast of Madagascar were placed by an imperial decree of 1851 under one government, that of the Comoro Isles (q. v.).

**NO'STOC**, a genus of plants of the natural order *Algæ*, suborder *Conervaceæ*, found upon moist ground, rocks near streams, &c., and consisting of a somewhat gelatinous hollow tumid frond, filled with simple filaments resembling strings of beads. *N. commune* is frequent in Britain, springing up suddenly on gravel-walks and pasture-grounds after rain. It is a trembling gelatinous mass, often called STAR JELLY, and vulgarly regarded, owing to the tenderness with which it makes its appearance, as having fallen from the skies, and as possessed of important medicinal virtues. *N. edule* is employed in China as an article of food.

**NOSTRADAMUS**, a celebrated astrologer of the 16th c., born 14th December 1503, at St Remi, in Provence. His proper name was Michel Notre-Dame, and he was of Jewish descent. He studied first at the Collège d'Avignon, where he exhibited remarkable scientific powers, and subsequently attended the celebrated school of medicine at Montpellier. Here he first acquired distinction during an epidemic that desolated the south of France, by his humane attentions to those stricken by the pestilence. After taking his degree, he acted for some time as professor, but was induced by his friend J. C. Scaliger to settle in Agen as a medical practitioner. After travelling for some time, he finally settled at Salon, a little town situated in the environs of Aix about 1544. Already he must have been reckoned a man of note, for in the following year, when an epidemic was raging at Lyon, he was solemnly invited thither by the civic authorities, and is said to have rendered immense services. He first fell upon his prophetic vein about the year 1547, but in what light he himself regarded his pretensions, it is now impossible to say. At any rate, he commenced to write his famous predictions ("Prophéties") which first appeared at Lyon in 1555. These predictions were in rhymed quatrains, divided into centuries, of which there were seven; the 2d ed., published in 1558, contained ten. Astrology was then the fashion, and these quatrains, expressed generally in obscure and enigmatical terms, had a great success. Some, indeed, regarded the author as a quack, but the great majority as a genuine seer or predictor of the future. He was, consequently, much sought after by all sorts of people, high and low. Catharine de' Médicis invited him to visit her at Blois, to draw the horoscope of her sons, and on his departure loaded him with presents. The Duke and Duchess of Savoy went to Salon expressly to see him; and when Charles IX. became king, he appointed N. his physician-in-ordinary (1564). He died at Salon, 2d July 1566. N.'s predictions have been the subject of an immense amount of illustrative and controversial literature. He also wrote an Almanac, which served as the model of all subsequent ones, containing predictions about the weather.—See Joubert's "Vie de M. Nostradamus," "Apologie et Histoire" (Amst. 1656); Astruc's "Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de la Faculté de Montpellier" (Paris, 1767); "Apolo-  
gie pour les Grands Hommes Souffrancés de Magie" (Paris, 1825); and E. Bareste's "Nostradamus" (Paris, 1842).

**NO'STRILS, Diseases of the.** Acute inflammation of the nasal mucous membrane is a very common and well-known affection, which has been already described under the title of **CATARH** (q. v.), or Cold in the Head; while the chronic form of inflammation is described in the article **OZENA**. Hemorrhage from the nostrils, or *Epistaxis* (Gr. a dropping), is by far the commonest form of bleeding from a mucous membrane. It may be produced (1) by direct injury, as by a blow on the nose, or a scratch in the interior of the nostril; or (2) it may be an *active* hemorrhage, in which case it is often preceded by a feeling of tension and heat in the nostrils, pain in the forehead, giddiness, buzzing in the ears, and flushing of the face (these symptoms are, however, seldom all present in the same case, and not unfrequently the

flow of blood is preceded by no apparent disorder); or (3) it may be of a *passive* character, and may be due either to a morbid condition of the blood, as in malignant scarlatina, typhoid and typhus fevers, scurvy, purpura, &c., or to obstruction of the circulation by disease of the liver and heart.

If the hemorrhage occur in a flu-hed plethoric subject, and is obviously of an active character, it may be regarded as a salutary effort of nature, and may be left alone till it ceases spontaneously; but if it continues so long as materially to weaken the patient, or if it be of the passive character, or if it arise from injury, then means should be taken to stop it with as little delay as possible. The patient should be placed in the sitting posture at an open window, with the head erect or slightly inclined backwards; and amongst the simpler means to be first tried, are compression of the nostrils by the fingers, the application of a key or other piece of cold metal to the back of the neck, and the occasional immersion of the face or whole head in cold water, especially if accompanied by a drawing-up of the water into the nostrils; or Dr Negrier's plan of causing the patient, in a standing position, suddenly to raise his arms straight upwards, and to retain them for a short time in this position—a remedy which he states to have always succeeded, even in very bad cases, when other means had failed. Should these means fail, recourse must be had to astringent injections (for example, twenty grains of alum dissolved in an ounce of water) thrown up the nostrils by a syringe, or to astringent powders (as finely-powdered gall, kino, matico, alum, &c.) blown up the nostrils by means of a quill or other tube, or snuffed up by the patient. As a final resource, direct compression must be applied. Abernethy never failed in stopping the bleeding by winding a piece of moistened lint around a probe, so as to form a cylindrical plug, passing this along the floor of the nose for its entire length, then carefully withdrawing the probe, and allowing the lint to remain for three or four days. Cases occasionally occur in which it is necessary also to plug the posterior orifices of the nostrils by an operation, into the details of which it is not necessary to enter.

*Polypus*, which is an old term employed to signify any sort of pedunculated tumor firmly adhering (literally, "by many feet") to a mucous surface, is of common occurrence in the nostrils; its most usual seat of attachment being one of the turbinated bones. The ordinary kind is of the consistency of jelly, yellowish, streaked with blood-vessels, and of a pear-shaped form. The patient has a constant feeling of fulness in the nostril (as if he had a cold in the head); he cannot effectually blow his nose; and his voice is sometimes rendered more or less thick and indistinct. If he force his breath strongly through the affected nostril, and at the same time compress the other, and close the mouth, the polypus may generally be brought into view. The best treatment is to seize the neck or pedicle with the forceps, and twist it off. The consequent hemorrhage may be readily checked by the means already described.

*Foreign bodies* are often inserted into the nostrils by children, and become impacted. They may usually be extracted by a small scoop or a bent probe. If they cannot be removed by these means, they must be pushed back into the throat through the posterior nares.

Children are occasionally born with imperforated nostrils. This congenital malformation may, however, usually be remedied by surgical assistance.

NOT GUILTY is the form of verdict in a criminal prosecution, and also in some civil actions, when the jury find in favor of the defendant or accused party. The verdict is conclusive, and the accused cannot, in criminal cases, be tried a second time.

NOT PROVEN is a form of verdict used in Scotland in criminal prosecutions when the jury think there is some foundation for the charge, but the evidence is not strong enough against the prisoner to warrant a verdict of guilty. In such a case, a verdict of "Not Proven" is substantially a verdict of acquittal. The prisoner cannot be tried afterwards, even though new and conclusive evidence come to light after the verdict.

NOTABLES, the name formerly given in France to persons of distinction and political importance. As the States General were inconvenient to the despotism of the monarchy, the kings of the House of Valois adopted the expedient of calling in their stead *Assemblies of the Notables*, the time of calling them and the composition

of them being entirely dependent on the pleasure of the crown, by which also their whole proceedings were guided, so that they generally consented at once to whatever was proposed to them. They shewed a particular readiness in granting subsidies, to which they themselves, as belonging to the privileged classes, were not to contribute. An Assembly of Notables, convened in Paris by Richelieu in 1626, and presided over by Gaston, brother of Louis XIII., consisted of only 85 members. For more than a century and a half even this poor acknowledgment of any other mind or will in the nation than that of the sovereign ceased to be made; but when the state of the finances brought the monarchy into difficulties and perils, Louis XVI., at the instigation of the minister Calonne, had recourse again to an Assembly of Notables, which met 22d February 1787, and was dissolved 25th May. It consisted of 137 members, among whom were 7 princes of the blood, 9 dukes and peers, 8 marshals, 11 archbishops, 22 nobles, 8 councillors of state, 4 masters of requests, 37 judges, 12 deputies of the Pays d'Etats, the civil lieutenant, and 25 persons belonging to the magistracy of different cities of the kingdom. Calonne's representations of the state of the finances induced the Notables to adopt many reforms in the matter of taxation; but no sooner was the assembly dissolved, than many of them joined the parlements in opposition to resolutions adverse to their private interests, so that the king was compelled to determine upon assembling the State General. Necker, who had meanwhile been placed at the head of affairs, assembled the Notables again, 6th November 1788, to consult them concerning the form in which the States General should be convened, and particularly concerning the number of members of the third estate and the manner of voting. The Notables declared against every innovation, and so compelled the court to half measures, which helped to prepare the way for the Revolution.

**NOTARY-PUBLIC** is an officer of the law, whose chief function is to act as a witness of any solemn or formal act, and to give a certificate of the same; which certificate, if duly authenticated, is accepted all the world over as good evidence of the act done in his presence, and attested by him. The services of a N. are chiefly available where his evidence is to be used in a foreign country. Solicitors are sometimes notaries-public, but in England there are fewer notaries, comparatively, than in Scotland, where notarial acts and certificates are more largely used.

**NOTATION**, the method of representing numbers and quantities by marks or signs. The representation of numbers is known as "arithmetical," and that of quantities as "symbolical" notation.

**ARITHMETICAL NOTATION**.—The invention of arithmetical notation must have been coeval with the earliest use of writing, whether hieroglyphic or otherwise, and must have come into use about the time when it was felt that a mound, pile of stones, or huge misshapen pillar, was insufficient as a record of great events, and required to be supplemented by some means which would suffice to hand down to posterity the requisite information. The most natural method undoubtedly was to signify "unity" by one stroke, "two" by two strokes, "three" by three strokes, &c.; and, as far as we know, this was the method adopted by most of those nations who invented systems of notation for themselves. It is shewn on the earliest Latin and Greek records, and is the basis of the Roman, Chinese, and other systems. We have thus a convenient division of the different notational systems into the *natural* and *artificial* groups, the latter including the systems of those nations who adopted distinct and separate symbols for at least each of the nine digits. The Roman and Chinese systems are the most important of the former, and the Hebrew, later Greek, and "decimal" systems of the latter group.

**Roman System**.—The system adopted by the Romans was most probably borrowed at first from the Greeks, and was distinguished equally by its simplicity and its cumbrousness. The following seems to be the most probable theory of its development. A simple series of strokes was the basis of the system; but the labor of writing and reading large numbers in this way would soon suggest methods of abbreviation. The first and most natural step was the division of the strokes into parcels of tens, thus,  , a plan which produced great facility in the reading of numbers. The next step was to discard these parcels of ten strokes each,

retaining only the two cross strokes, thus,  $\times$ , as the symbol for 10. Continuing the same method as larger numbers came to be used, they invented a second new symbol for 100, thus,  $\square$  (which was at first probably the cancelling stroke for ten

$\times$  in the same way as  $\times$  was originally the cancelling stroke for ten units); and for the sake of facility in writing, subsequently employed the letter C, which resembled it, in its place. The circumstance that C was the initial letter of the word *centum*, a "a hundred," was doubtless an additional reason for its substitution in place of the original symbol for 100. An extension of the same process produced M, the symbol for 1000, which was also written  $\Lambda$ ,  $\text{M}$ , and very frequently  $\text{CIQ}$ . This symbol was probably suggested by the circumstance that M was the initial letter of the Latin word *mille*, signifying a thousand. The early Roman system went no higher. But though the invention of these three symbols had greatly facilitated the labor of writing down and reading off numbers, further improvements were urgently required. The plan of "bisection of symbols" was now adopted;  $\times$  was divided into two parts, and either half,  $\vee$  or  $\wedge$ , used as the symbol for 5;  $\square$  was similarly divided,  $\sqcap$  or  $\sqcup$ , standing for 50; and  $\Lambda$ ,  $\text{CI}$ , or  $\text{I}\text{Q}$ , was obtained in the same manner, and made the representative of 500. The resemblance of these three new symbols to the letters V, L, and D, caused the substitution of the latter as the numerical symbols for 5, 50, and 500. A final improvement was the substitution of IV for 4 (in place of IIII), IX for 9 (in place of VIII), XC for 90 (instead of LXXX), and similarly XL for 40, CD for 400, CM for 900, &c.; the smaller number, when in front, being always understood as subtractive from the larger one after it. This last improvement is the sole departure from the purely additional mode of expressing numbers; and if the symbols for 4, 9, 90, &c., be considered as single symbols, which they practically are, the deviation may be looked upon as merely one of form. In later times, the Roman notation was extended by a multiplication of the symbol for 1000, thus  $\text{CCIOO}$  represented 10,000;  $\text{CCCCIOO}$  represented 100,000, &c.; and the bisection of these symbols gave them  $\text{I}\text{OO}$  and  $\text{I}\text{OOO}$  as representative of 5000 and 50,000 respectively. This, in all probability, is the mode according to which the Roman system of notation was constructed. To found a system of arithmetic upon this notation would have been well-nigh impossible; and so little inventive were the Romans, that the attempt seems never to have been made. They performed what few calculations they required by the aid of the *Abacus* (q. v.).

*Chinese System.*—This system presents a strong resemblance to the former, but is, in facility of expression, much superior to it. Like the Roman, it retains the primitive symbols for the first three digits, and like it also expresses the last four by prefixing a new symbol to the symbols for the first four, and the analogy is continued up to "twenty." From this point onwards, the Chinese system departs from the "additive" principle, as 20, 30, &c., are represented not as in the Roman system by a repetition of the symbol for 10, but by affixing to the symbol for 10, on its left side, the symbols for 2, 3, &c., as multiples. The same method is adopted with the numbers 200, 300, &c.; and should the number contain units, they are annexed on the right-hand side. For small numbers up to 20, the Roman notation is more expeditious, on account of the greater simplicity of its characters; but for very large numbers, the Chinese is scarcely more cumbersome than our own. Some numbers which are expressed by the Chinese with 14 characters, require more than 100 symbols when expressed in the Roman notation.

Previous to the intercourse of the Western European nations with China, their notation was much more cumbersome than it is at present; but the changes since made have affected merely the form of the characters, without altering the principle of the system.

*Artificial Systems.*—The first of these, in point of date, is the Hebrew; but as the knowledge we possess of it is very meagre, and as its principle was adopted by the

Greeks in the construction of their improved system, it will be sufficient to describe the latter.

*Greek System.*—The Greeks at first used a method similar to the Romans, though at the same time they appear to have employed the letters of the alphabet to denote the first 24 numbers. Such a cumbersome system was naturally disadvantageous to so fastidious a race, and they hit upon the happy expedient of dividing their alphabet into three portions—using the first to symbolise the 9 digits, the second the 9 tens, and the third the 9 hundreds. But as they possessed only 24 letters, they had to use three additional symbols; their list of symbols of notation then stood as follows:

| Units.                        | Tens.                                   | Hundreds.                                     |
|-------------------------------|---|---|
| $\alpha$ represents.....      | 1 $\iota$ represents .....              | 10 $\tau$ represents .....                    |
| $\beta$ .....                 | 2 $\kappa$ .....                        | 20 $\delta$ .....                             |
| $\gamma$ .....                | 3 $\lambda$ .....                       | 30 $\tau$ .....                               |
| $\delta$ .....                | 4 $\mu$ .....                           | 40 $v$ .....                                  |
| $\epsilon$ .....              | 5 $v$ .....                             | 50 $\phi$ .....                               |
| $\zeta$ (introduced) .....    | 6 $\xi$ .....                           | 60 $\chi$ .....                               |
| $\zeta$ .....                 | 7 $o$ .....                             | 70 $\psi$ .....                               |
| $\eta$ .....                  | 8 $\pi$ .....                           | 80 $\omega$ .....                             |
| $\theta$ or $\vartheta$ ..... | 9 $\varsigma$ or $\lambda$ (introduced) | 90 $\beth$ , $\aleph$ , $\aleph$ (introduced) |

By these symbols, only numbers under 1000 could be expressed, but by putting a mark, called *iota*, under any symbol, its value was increased a thousand-fold, thus  $\alpha = 1000$ ,  $\eta = 20,000$ ; or by subscribing the letter M, the value of a symbol was raised ten-thousand-fold, thus,  $\eta = 80,000$ . For these two marks, single and double

dots placed over the symbols were afterwards substituted. This improvement enabled them to express with facility all numbers as high as 9,990,000, a range amply sufficient for all ordinary purposes. Further improvements were made upon this system by Apollonius, who also by making 10,000 the root of the system, and thus dividing the symbols into tetrads, greatly simplified the expression of very large numbers. Both Apollonius and Archimedes had to a certain extent discovered and employed the principle of giving to symbols values depending on their position and multiplicative of their real value, but this principle was applied to tetrads or periods of four figures only, and the multitude of symbols seems to have stood in the way of further improvement. Had Apollonius, who was the chief improver of the system, discarded all but the first nine symbols, and applied the same principle to the single symbols which he applied to the "tetrad" group, he would have anticipated the decimal notation.

The Greek arithmetic, founded upon such a system of notation, was necessarily lengthy and complicated in its operations, each number in the multiplicand forming with each number in the multiplier a separate product (not as in our system, where one product blends with another by the process of "carrying"), though by arranging these products in separate columns, according as they amounted to units, tens, hundreds, &c., the process was somewhat simplified. But when fractions formed part of the multiplier and multiplicand, the Greek arithmetic became almost unmanageable, till the invention of SEXAGESIMALS (q. v.) by Ptolemy superseded it. After Ptolemy's death, all improvement was arrested.

*Decimal System.*—The decimal system, which was introduced into Europe from the East (see NUMERALS), was first employed by the Spaniards, and was from them transmitted to the French and Germans, through whom its use was extended over Europe. The modern arithmetic was not practised in England till about the middle of the 16th c., and for a long time after its introduction was taught only in the

universities. The decimal system, possessing only 9 symbols—viz., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 (called the nine digits)—adopts the principle of giving to each symbol or “figure” two values, one the absolute value, and the other a value depending upon its position. The numbers from “one” to “nine” inclusive are expressed by the nine digits; ten is expressed by writing a cipher or zero after 1 (10), thus throwing it into the second place, and giving it a positional value ten times its absolute value. From the principle that a figure thus moved one place to the left is held to be increased in value ten times, this method of notation is called *decimal* notation (Lat. *decem*, ten) and *ten* is said to be the “radix” of the system. The numbers from “eleven” to “nineteen” inclusive are expressed by taking the symbol 10 and putting the digits from “one” to “nine” inclusive in place of the zero—e. g., twelve is written 12, 1 in position signifying ten units, and 2, two additional units. On the same principle, twenty is expressed by putting 2 in the second position (20), and so on to 99. To express a hundred, 1 is put in the third place (100), thus making its value ten times what it is in the second place, or ten times ten units; two hundred is similarly expressed by 200, &c.; and should a number of tens and units amounting to less than hundred exist in the number, the symbols expressing them are substituted for the two zeros. This process can be similarly continued without limit.

There is another way of looking at this notation, which is perhaps simpler and clearer. In such a number, e. g., as 333, instead of attributing different values to the figure 3 in the different positions, we may consider it as symbolising the same number throughout, namely, *three*; but three *what*? In the first place, it signifies three ones or units (e. g., three single pounds or sovereigns); in the second place, it still signifies three, but now it is three “tens” or decades (three parcels of ten sovereigns each); and in the third place, it still signifies three, but now three hundreds (three parcels of a hundred each). It is from this point of view that the first place to the right is called the *place of units*, or the *units' place*; the second, the *place of tens*, and so on. When such a number as 6473 is analysed on this principle, it is seen to mean  $6 \times 1000 + 4 \times 100 + 7 \times 10 + 3 \times 1$ ; and 6004 becomes  $6 \times 1000 + 4 \times 1$ . In this latter instance the peculiar importance of the figure 0 is seen (see **NOTHING**). Following out the method, the general formula for all numbers is  $a \times 10^n + b \times 10^{n-1} + c \times 10^{n-2} + \dots + m \times 10^3 + n \times 10^2 + p \times 10 + q$ , where  $a, b, c, \dots, m, n, p, q$ , stand for any of the nine digits or zero.

The special advantages of such a system are manifold. It enables us to express small numbers with the greatest ease, and as the smaller numbers are those most commonly used, this is a great point in favor of the system. It also gives to computation a unity which could never under any circumstances have existed in the systems of notation above described, and the most ordinary, and at the same time effective, illustration of this is the process of “carrying” in multiplication, whereby one product is bleeded with another, and much time and trouble in the subsequent addition is saved. This simplification, however, is chiefly due to the introduction of the symbol 0, which, supplying the place of an absent digit, preserves to those figures on the left of it their true positional value. Another advantage of this system is the ease with which computations involving fractions are performed (see **FRACTIONS, DECIMAL**). The use of the number 10 as *radix*, is universal in all systems of notation; but it has been often doubted, and in some respects with good reason, whether it is the number best fitted for this position, and many have proposed to substitute 12 for it. This question will be referred to under **SCALES OF NOTATION**.

**2. SYMBOLICAL NOTATION**, the general designation of those symbols which are used by mathematicians to express indefinite quantities. The symbols are generally taken from the English, Roman, and Greek alphabets, and are apportioned as follows: algebraic quantities are expressed by the English alphabet; those which are known, by the earlier letters  $a, b, c, \dots$ , and those which are unknown, by the later ones,  $u, v, w, x, y, \dots$ . In Trigonometry, the letters  $a, b, c, \dots$  denote measures of length, and  $A, B, C, \dots$  are used to express angles. In Mechanics and Astronomy, the Greek letters are generally used to express angles. When different sets of quantities are similarly related among themselves, the sets are, for convenience, expressed by the same letters; and to prevent confusion, each set has a peculiar mark attached to each symbol, thus,  $a, b, c, \dots$  denote one class;  $a', b', \dots$

$a, \dots, a''$ , another class;  $b, b'', b'''$ , ..... a third class; and so on; or  $a_1, b_1, c_1, \dots, a_2, b_2, c_2, \dots, &c.$

NOTE, in Music, a character which by the degree it occupies on the staff represents a sound, and by its form the period of time or duration of that sound. The notes commonly in use in modern music are the semibreve, minim, crotchet, quaver, semiquaver, demisemiquaver, and semi-demisemiquaver. Taking the semibreve as unity, the minim is  $\frac{1}{2}$  its duration, the crotchet  $\frac{1}{4}$ , the quaver  $\frac{1}{8}$ , the semiquaver 1-16, the demisemiquaver 1-32, and the semi-demisemiquaver 1-64. Notes of greater length than the semibreve were formerly in use—viz., the breve, twice the duration of the semibreve; the long, four times; and the large, eight times the semibreve. Of these the breve is still sometimes met with in ecclesiastical music.—The term note is often used as synonymous with musical sound.

NOTHING, in Mathematical language, denotes the total absence of quantity or number, as when equals are subtracted from equals, but it is often employed (see LIMITS) to indicate the limit to which a constantly decreasing positive quantity approaches. The absence of number or quantity could be equally well signified by the absence of any symbol whatever, but the presence of "0" shews that in its place some number or quantity might, and under other circumstances would, exist.

In Physics, the symbol "0" is generally denominated zero, and has a different meaning. Like the former, it is the starting-point from which magnitude is reckoned; but while the starting-point in the former case was absolute. In this case it is conventional, and by no means denotes the absence of all quantity or magnitude. Thus the zero-point of the thermometer must not be interpreted to signify that when the mercury has fallen to this point atmospheric heat has totally vanished, but must be understood as a mere conventional starting-point for graduation, chosen for convenience, and not even necessarily representing any fixed natural degree of temperature.

NOTICE TO QUIT, is the formal notice given by a landlord to a tenant, or by a tenant to a landlord, that the tenant ought or intends to quit at a future day named. See LANDLORD AND TENANT.

NOTO, a town of Sicily, in the province of Syracuse, and 16 miles south-west of the city of that name, 3 miles from the sea. It is of the highest antiquity, was a place of great strength under the Saracens, and held out against the invading Northmen longer than any other town of Sicily. It is a very handsome town, contains rich churches, beautiful palaces, and broad and straight streets. Its academy has a library attached, and a collection of antiquities. A good trade is carried on in corn, wine, oil, and the other produce of the vicinity. Pop. 14,619. N. was destroyed by an earthquake in 1693, and rebuilt about  $4\frac{1}{2}$  miles from its former site.

NOTORRNIS, a genus of birds of the family *Rallidae*, nearly allied to the coots, although in some of its characters it resembles the Ostrich family. One living species only is known, *N. Mantelli*, a native of New Zealand. It is particularly interesting, because the genus was originally established and the species characterised by Owen, from remains found along with those of *Dinornis* and other large birds of the Ostrich family, called Moas by the New Zealanders. The bird was, however, ascertained in 1850 still to exist. It inhabits some of the most unfrequented parts of the Middle Island. It is larger than the other coots, but small in comparison with the true moas. The flesh is said to be delicious. It seems to be a bird likely soon to become extinct unless preserved by human care, and of which the domestication would be easy and desirable.

NOTRE DAME, i. e., *Our Lady*, the old French appellation of the Virgin Mary, and therefore the name of a number of churches dedicated to the Virgin Mary in different parts of France, and particularly of the great cathedral of Paris.

NOTTINGHAM, a municipal and parliamentary borough of England, capital of the county of the same name, and a county in itself, on the Leam at its junction with the Trent, 130 miles north-north-west of London. It is built principally on the slope and at the foot of a rocky eminence, and in an architectural sense it has within recent years been much improved. The market-place is  $5\frac{1}{2}$  acres in extent, and is surrounded by lofty buildings. The Trent, which passes about a mile south of the town, and is here about 200 feet wide, is crossed by railway bridges, and by an

ancient bridge of 19 arches. The exchange, the town and county halls, the House of Correction, St Mary's Church, the Roman Catholic Chapel, and the new Free Grammar-school erected in 1868, are edifices worthy of special mention. The Free Grammar-school, with an income from endowment of about £1000 a year, was founded in 1513. A free library was opened in April 1868. There are numerous hospitals for the poor and infirm. Of the manufactures, which are various and important, the principal are bobbinet and lace, and cotton and silk hosiery. Cotton, silk, and flax mills, bleaching-works, and wire, iron, and brass works are in operation. N., which sends two members to parliament, is on the Derby and Lincoln Railway. Pop. (1871) 86,621.

The original castle of N. was built by William the Conqueror; it was dismantled during the Protectorate, and replaced by the present edifice—a castle only in name.

NOTTINGHAM, an inland county of England, between Lincolnshire on the east, and Yorkshire and Derbyshire on the west. Area, 526,176 acres; pop. (1871) 819,758. It is 50 m. in length from north to south, and 20 miles in average breadth. The meridian of 1° W. falls along the middle of the county, and may be said to divide it into two nearly equal portions, of which the eastern, comprising the vale of the Trent, is level, and the western is occupied by hills at no great elevation. In the south of the county are wolds, consisting of upland moors and pasture-lands, broken up by many fertile hollows. In the west are the remains of the royal forest of Sherwood, famous as the chief haunt of Robin Hood. The principal rivers are the Trent, and its tributaries the Erewash, Mann, and Idle. The Nottingham and Grantham Canal in the south connects the Trent with the Witham, and these two rivers are also connected by the Fosse Dyke Canal, which, running north-west from the city of Lincoln, joins the Trent on the north-eastern boundary of the county. By the rivers, canals, and the North Midland, Sheffield and Lincoln, and Great Northern Railways, there is direct communication in every direction. The climate, especially in the east, is remarkably dry. The soil is various; and, with regard to productiveness, the land is not above mediocrity. The usual crops are raised; there are many hop-plantations, and much land is laid out in market-gardens. Extensive tracts have been planted recently. Four members of parliament are returned for the county.

NOU'KHA. a town of Asiatic Russia, in Trans-Caucasia, is built on the southern slope of the Caucasus Mountains, 80 miles south-west of Derbend, in lat. 41° 12' N., long. 47° 18' E. Pop. (1867) 23,371, consisting of native Tartars belonging to the Mohammedan creed, of Armenians, and a few Russians, chiefly officials. Breeding the silk-worm is the staple branch of industry. The native breed of silk-worms is somewhat coarse, and is now being supplanted by the Italian breed.

NOUN Lat. *nomen*, a name), in Grammar, is the term applied to that class of words that "name" or designate the persons and things spoken about. In a wide sense, such words as *rich*, *tall*, are nouns, as well as *John*, *man*, *tree*; for they are names applicable to all objects possessing these attributes. But a words like *John*, *man*, *tree*, suffice of themselves to mark out or designate an object or a definite class of objects, while words expressive of a single attribute, like *rich*, *tall*, can be used only in conjunction with such a word as *man* or *tree*, the one class are called Adjective Nouns, or simply Adjectives (q. v.), while the other are called Substantive Nouns, or simply Substantives or Nouns. Nouns or Names, in this narrower sense, may be divided into classes in a variety of ways, according to the ground we take for our division. One of the distinctions commonly made by grammarians is into Proper Nouns and Common Nouns. A proper noun is usually defined to be "the name of any individual person, or place," as *John*, *London*; while a common noun is applicable to every individual of a class of objects, as *prince*, *city*. But this definition fails to point out the real difference; for there are several Londons, and there are more Johns than princes; other things also have proper names, besides persons and places, as ships (the *Minorur*), and bells (Big Ben). Providence, again, although applicable to only One Being in the universe, is not a proper noun. Wherein, then, lies the difference? In order to answer this question, we must advert to an important distinction made by logicians with regard to the import of names. A word is said to denote all the objects to which it is applicable as a name; thus the word *man* is a name for all the objects known individually as *James*, *John*, *Adam*, *Cæsar*, &c., and therefore denotes the

whole human race; but while thus denoting or naming them, it also implies something concerning them; in the language of logic, it *connotes* that they possess certain attributes, namely (1) a certain corporeal form, known as the human form; (2) animal life; (3) rationality. All this, at least, is included in the *meaning* or connotation of the word "man." Now, if we consider any noun of the class called common, we find that while it denotes, or names, or points out a certain object, or class of objects, it also conveys or implies some qualities or facts concerning them; in other words, all such names are *connotative*, or have a meaning. Not so with proper nouns. To say that a man is called John Butler, informs us of no quality he possesses, or of any fact except that such is his name. The name itself conveys no meaning; it is *non-connotative*. And this is what really constitutes a proper name; it is affixed to an object, not to convey any fact concerning it, but merely to enable you to speak about it. Proper names, indeed, are often given at first on account of the object possessing certain attribute; but once given, they do not continue to connote those attributes. The first John Baker was probably so called because he exercised the trade of baking; but his ceasing to bake would not have made him lose the name; and his descendants were called Baker, regardless of their occupation.

Proper names are thus *meaningless marks*, to distinguish one individual from another; and the A, B, C, &c., which a geometricalian affixes to the several angles of a figure, are as much proper names as Tom, Lawrie, &c., applied to the individual bells of a chime. The proper contrast, then, to a Proper Noun is not a Common Noun—meaning by that a name common to a class of objects—but a Significant Noun.

Of Significant Nouns, by far the greater number are General or Class Names; that is, they can be applied to any individual of a class of objects, implying that all these individuals have certain attributes in common—as *quadruped*, *book*. The quadruped spoken of may perhaps be a *horse*, and here we have another class-name, applicable to the same object, but of less generality than "quadruped." *Animal*, again, is more general than *quadruped*, being applicable to a far wider class. But it is important to observe, that as the number of objects that the terms are applied to or denote, increases, the number of attributes they imply—in other words, the amount of their meaning—diminishes. To call an object an "animal," merely implies that it is organised and is alive (with that kind of life called animal life); to call it a "quadruped," implies all this and a number of attributes in addition; and to call it a "horse," implies all this and still further addition.

It is to this class of words that the term Common Nouns is properly applicable; and the contrast to them is not Proper Nouns, but what might be called Singular Nouns, such as "God," "providence," "universe."

Collective Names are such as *regiment*, *fleet*, *senate*, *shoal*. They form a subdivision of Class Names or Common Nouns; for *regiment* is applicable to all collections of men organised in a particular way.

*Names of Materials*, are such as *iron*, *water*, *sugar*, *wheat*. These two classes appear in many cases to merge into each other. In both, the objects named consist of an aggregation; but in collective names, the parts forming the collection are thought of as individual objects; as the *soldiers* of a regiment, the *fishers* composing a shoal. Substances, again, like iron, gold, water, are not made up of definite individual parts (at least to our senses); and in such as wheat, sand, the name of the individual visible part (*grain of wheat*, *grain of sand*) is derived from the name of the mass, shewing that the idea of the individual is swallowed up in that of the mass.

A convenient term for names of materials or substances is that used by German grammarians—*Stuff-nouns*. Sometimes the same word is used as a stuff-noun, and also as a class-noun. Thus: "The cow eats *grass*" (stuff-noun); "The botanist studies the *grasses*, and has found a new *grass*" (class-noun); "They had *fish* (stuff-noun) for dinner, and consumed four large *fishes*" (class-noun).

Names of materials are not, like collective nouns, a subdivision of common nouns; they belong to the contrasted class of singular nouns; and, when the substance is simple or invariable in composition, cannot be used in the plural; as *gold*, *water*, *beef*.

*Abstract Nouns*.—In the expression "hard steel," or "the steel is hard," the word *hard* implies a certain quality or attribute as belonging to the steel. This quality has no existence apart from steel or some other substance; but I can withdraw (*abstract*) my thoughts from the steel in other respects, and think of this quality as if it had an independent existence. The name of this imaginary exist-

ence or abstraction is *hardness*. All words expressive of the qualities, actions or states of objects, have abstract nouns corresponding to them; as *brave—bravery; strike—stroke; well—health*. In opposition to abstract nouns, all others are *concretes nouns*—that is, the attributes implied in them are considered as embodied in (*concrete*, Lat. growing together) the actual existences named.

NOUREDIN-MAHMÙD, Malek-al-Adel, one of the most illustrious men of his time, and the scourge of the Christians who had settled in Syria and Palestine, was born at Damascus, 21st February 1116. His father, Omaïed-din Zengui, originally governor of Mosul and Diarbekir on behalf of the Seljuk sultans, had established his independence, and extended his authority over Northern Syria, including Hems, Edessa, Hamah, and Aleppo. N. succeeded him in 1145, and the better to carry out his ambitious designs, changed the seat of government from Mosul to Aleppo. Count Joscelin of Edessa, thinking the accession of a young and inexperienced sovereign afforded him a favorable opportunity of regaining his territories, made an inroad at the head of a large force, but was singularly discomfited under the walls of Edessa, his army, with the exception of 10,000 men, being completely annihilated. The report of N.'s success being conveyed to Western Europe, gave rise to the second Crusade. The Crusaders were, however, foiled by N. before Damascus, and being defeated in a number of partial conflicts, abandoned their enterprise in despair. N. next conquered Tripolis and Antioch, the prince of the latter territory being defeated and slain in a bloody conflict near Ruga (29th June 1149), and before 1151 all the Christian strongholds in Syria were in his possession. He next cast his eyes on Egypt, which was in a state of almost complete anarchy under the feeble sway of the now effeminate Fatimites and, as a preliminary step, he took possession of Damascus (which till this time had been ruled by an independent Seljuk prince) in 1156; but a terrible earthquake which at this time devastated Syria, levelling large portions of Antioch, Tripolis, Hamah, Hems, and other towns, put a stop to his scheme for the present, and compelled him to devote all his energies to the removal of the traces of this destructive visitation. An illness which prostrated him in 1159, enabled the Christians to recover some of their lost territories, and N., in attempting their re-subjugation, was totally defeated near the Lake of Gennesareth by Baldwin III., King of Jerusalem; but undismayed by this reverse, he resumed the offensive, defeated the Christian princes of Tripolis and Antioch, making prisoners of both, and again invaded Palestine. Meanwhile, he had obtained the sanction of the calif of Bagdad to his projects concerning Egypt, and the true believers flocking to his standard from all quarters, a large army was soon raised, which, under his lieutenant Shirkoh, speedily overran Egypt. Shirkoh dying soon after, was succeeded by his nephew, the celebrated Salah-ed-din (q. v.), who completed the conquest of the country. N., becoming jealous of his able young lieutenant, was preparing to march into Egypt in person, when he died at Damascus, 15th May 1174. N. is one of the great heroes of Moslem history. Brought up among warriors who were sworn to shed their blood for the cause of the Prophet, he retained in his exalted station all the austere simplicity of the first califs. He was not, like the majority of his co-religionists, a mere conqueror, but zealously promoted the cultivation of the sciences, arts, and literature, and established a strict administration of justice throughout his extensive dominions. He was revered by his subjects, both Moslem and Christian, for his moderation and clemency, and even his most bitter enemies among the Christian princes extolled his chivalrous heroism and good faith. He possessed in an eminent degree the faculty of impressing his own fiery zeal for the supremacy of Islam upon his subjects, and their descendants at the present day have faithfully preserved both his name and principles.

NO'VA SCO'TIA, a province of the Dominion of Canada, is bounded on the n. w. by New Brunswick and the Bay of Fundy, on the n., by the Straits of Northumberland and the Gulf of St Lawrence, and on the other sides by the Atlantic Ocean. It consists of two portions, N. S. proper, a large peninsula connected with New Brunswick by an isthmus about 15 miles in width, and the island of Cape Breton (q. v.). The peninsula, about 280 miles in length, and from 50 to 100 miles broad, extends in an east-north-east and west-south-west direction. Cape Breton lies north-east of N. S. proper, separated from it by a narrow strait called the Gut of Canso, 16

miles long, and from half a mile to 2 miles wide. Sable Island, which is 25 miles in length by 1½ in breadth, and is surrounded by a dangerous, widely-extended sand-bank, is situated about 90 miles from the nearest coast of N. S., in lat. 44° n., and long. 60° w. It is formed of sand-hills thrown up by the sea, some of them being about 80 feet in height. The island is covered with wild grasses, which support herds of wild horses, known as Sable Island ponies. It is in the track of vessels trading between America and Britain, and owing to the number of wrecks that take place on its shores, a superintendent and several men are stationed here for the purpose of rescuing and aiding shipwrecked mariners. The area of the province is 18,600 square miles; pop. (1871) 887,800. The coast-line is about 1000 miles in length, and the shores, which are much indented, abound in excellent bays and harbors, of which the chief are Chedabucto Bay, Halifax Harbor, St Margaret's, Mahon, and St Mary's Bays, Annapolis, Mines and ChigNECTO Basins, and Pictou Harbor. There are numerous rivers, but few of them are over 60 miles in length; the most important are the Avon, the Annapolis, and the Shubenacadie. N. S. contains about 400 lakes, of which the Bras d'Or, in Cape Breton, covers an area of 500 square miles, or about one-sixth of the entire area of the island. Stretching along the Atlantic sea-board, and extending inland from it for about 20 miles, is a range of highlands, and about 60 miles from the Atlantic coast are the Cobequid Mountains, 1100 feet in height; which traverse the peninsula from the Bay of Fundy to the Straits of Canso. The soil in the valleys is rich and fertile, producing all the fruits of temperate climates; and, especially in the north, the uplands also are fertile. The climate is remarkably healthy, its rigor being modified by the insular character of the province, and by the influence of the Gulf Stream. The mean temperature for the year is 42.09° at Picton, and 43.6° at Windsor. The extreme limits of the thermometer may be stated at -15° Fahr. in winter, and 95° in the shade in summer. The province abounds in mineral riches, including gold, coal, and iron. Gold was first discovered in the colony in March 1861, on Tangier River, about 40 miles east of HALIFAX. The chief diggings are along the Atlantic coast, and gold has been found in nearly 100 different localities. An act of the legislature regulating the disposal of claims and the collection of revenue from the gold-fields was passed in March 1862. The gold mines have been worked steadily, and in many cases profitably. In 1871, the yield of gold was 19,227 oz., in value about 355,700 dollars; in 1875, the yield was 11,208 oz., valued at 201,756 dollars. In 1875, 781,165 tons of coal and 4467 tons of iron ore were raised in the province. Of the entire area of the colony, 10,000,000 acres are considered good land, and of these 1,024,032 acres were under cultivation. Three-fourths of the whole area are comprised in the peninsula of N. S., and the remainder in the island of Cape Breton. The principal agricultural products are hay, wheat, barley, buckwheat, oats, rye, Indian corn, potatoes, and turnips. The waters around the colony abound in fish, as mackerel, shad, herring, salmon, &c., and the fisheries are pursued with ardor and with ever-increasing success. In 1873-4, the number of men employed in the fisheries was 21,031, and the total value of the fish caught, 6,652,301 dollars. In 1873-4, the imports amounted to £2,181,470, the exports to £1,581,500; the revenue for 1873 to £134,500, the expenditure to £136,200. The number of vessels that arrived in N. S. during the year ending 30th June 1874, was 4424, of 959,114 tons, and the number that departed 3752, of 881,263 tons. There are in the colony 1150 miles of telegraph, and 800 miles of railway. It is provided with 5 colleges, 10 academies, and 1700 grammar, normal, and other schools.

N. S. is supposed to have been visited and "discovered" by the Cabots in 1497. Its first colonists were a number of Frenchmen, who established themselves here in 1604, but were afterwards expelled by settlers from Virginia, who claimed the country by right of discovery. Under the French settlers it bore the name of Acadia (Acadie); but its name was changed for its present one in 1621, when a grant of the peninsula was obtained from James I. by Sir William Alexander, whose intention was to colonise the whole country. Having found, however, that the localities they had fixed upon as suitable for settlement were already occupied, the colonists returned to the mother-country. In 1654, the French, who had regained a footing in the colony, were subdued by a force sent out by Cromwell. By the treaty of Breda, the country was ceded to the French in 1667, but it was restored to the English in 1713. After the middle of the 18th c., strenuous efforts were made to ad-

vance the interests of the colony. Settlers were sent out at the expense of the British government. The French, who had joined the Indians in hostilities against the English, were either expelled or completely mastered, and Cape Breton, which at an earlier period had been disunited from N. S., was reunited to it under the same provincial government in 1819. N. S. was incorporated with the Dominion of Canada in 1867, and is represented in the Canadian parliament by 12 senators and 30 members of the Lower House. It has also its own local legislature and lieutenant-governor; the legislature consisting of a council and a House of Assembly elected by the counties—which are 18 in number—and the cities, the chief of which are Halifax, Annapolis, Liverpool, and Picton.

NOVA ZEMBLA (Russ. *Novaia Zemlya*, "New Land"), the name given to a chain of islands lying in the Arctic Ocean (lat. between  $40^{\circ} 30'$  and  $76^{\circ} 30'$  n., and long. between  $52^{\circ} 66'$  e.), and included within the government of Archangel. Length of the chain, 470 miles; average breadth, 56 miles. The most southern island is specially called Nova Zembla; of the others, the principal are Matthew's Land and Lütke's Land. They were discovered in 1553, and are wild, rocky and desolate—the vegetation being chiefly moss, lichens, and a few shrubs. The highest point in the chain is 3476 feet above the level of the sea. Mean temperature in summer, at the southern extremity,  $35^{\circ} 51'$ ; in winter,  $3^{\circ} 21'$ . N. Z. has no permanent inhabitants, but as the coasts swarm with whales and walruses, and the interior with bears, reindeers, and foxes, they are periodically frequented by fishermen and hunters.

NOVALIS. See HARDENBERG.

NOVA'RA, a town of Northern Italy, and capital of province of same name. is situated in a fertile district, about 60 miles east-north-east of Turin. Pop. (1811) 24,185. It commands fine Alpine views from its ancient dismantled fortifications, and contains several notable churches, especially the cathedral, with its fine frescoes and sculptures, and grand high-altar. On the 23d of March, 1849, N. was the scene of a great battle between the Sardinian forces and an Austrian army commanded by Radetzky, which resulted in the complete defeat of the Italians, and ultimately led to the abdication of Charles Albert in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel.

NOVA'TIAN, a priest of the Roman Church in the 3d c., and the leader of a sect called after his name. The place and time of his birth are not known with certainty. N. had been a stoic philosopher, but after his arrival in Rome was converted to Christianity, and being seized with sudden illness was still a catechumen, received what was called *clinical baptism*; that is, baptism administered on a sick-bed, and without the solemn ceremonial. Such baptism was, in ordinary circumstances, an impediment to holy orders. Notwithstanding this irregular baptism, N. was pronounced to orders by Fabian the Roman bishop; and soon afterwards shewed his weakness by flying during a persecution. At this time a controversy arose about the manner of dealing with the lapsed; that is, those who fell away in persecution. N. at first inclined to the milder side, but on the election of Cornelius to the Roman bishopric to which N. had aspired, and on Cornelius taking the indulgent course towards the lapsed, N., together with Novatus and some other discontented priests of Carthage, opposed his authority, and eventually N. was chosen by a small party, and actually ordained bishop, in opposition to Cornelius. The party who espoused his cause was called by his name. They were confined mainly, in the first instance, to Rome and to Carthage, where a kindred conflict had arisen. They held that in the grievous crime of idolatry through fear of persecution, the church had no power to absolve the penitent; and therefore, although it does not appear that they excluded such sinners from all hope of heaven, yet they denied the lawfulness of re-admitting them to the communion of the church. This doctrine they extended at a later period to all grievous sins, of whatever character. N. may thus be regarded as the first antipope. The churches throughout Italy, Africa, and the East adhered to Cornelius; but the N. party set up bishops and established churches not only at Carthage, but at Constantinople, Alexandria, Nicomedia, Phrygia, Gaul, Spain, and elsewhere. They claimed for themselves a character of especial purity, and assumed the appellation of Cathars (Puritans). The time and manner of the death of N. is uncertain. According to Socrates ("Hist. Ecc." iv. 23; v. 21; vii. 5, 12, 26), he died a martyr in the persecution of Valerian, but this is improbable. He was a man of considerable learning, and the work recently discovered in one of the monasteries of Mount Athos, and pub-

lished by Mr Miller at Oxford in 1851, under the title of "Origenis Philosophumena," is by some ascribed to him. His sect survived long after his death. An unsuccessful effort was made in the council of Nice to rennire them to the church; and traces of them are still discoverable in the end of the 6th century.

NOVELDA, a town of Spain, in the province of Alicante, and 18 miles west from Alicante, on the railway between Madrid and Alicante. There are corn and oil mills, brandy distilleries, and manufactures of lace. Pop. 8095.

NOVELLO, Clara, a distinguished vocalist, daughter of the following, was born in 1818. Her talent shewed itself very early. At the age of ten, she became a pupil of the French Academy of Singing for Church-music, and studied in Paris for several years, following up her studies in after-years in Italy and Germany. Both in England and in Italy, she created quite a *furore* from the year 1840 to 1848: her singing has indeed hardly ever been equalled in equality, flexibility, and executive skill. In 1848, she married Conut Gigliucci, and quitted the stage, returning to it, however, for a time from 1850 to 1860.

NOVELLO, Vincent, an eminent musical performer and composer, was born in London, of an Italian father and English mother, in 1781. At the age of 16, he was organist in the chapel of the Portuguese embassy; and even then had attained a large measure of that proficiency on the organ for which he was celebrated in later life. He was one of the founders of the Philharmonic Society. His musical compositions, which are very numerous, and chiefly sacred, are considered to have contributed much to the improvement of cathedral music. As a pains-taking editor of unpublished works of eminent musicians, he has also done great service to musical literature. He died at Nice in 1861.

#### NOVELLÆ. See JUSTINIAN.

NOVELS. The novel and the so-called romance, inasmuch as they constantly merge in one another, and are only superficially distinguished by the preponderance in the one of ordinary and familiar incidents, in the other of incident more or less remote and marvellous, may conveniently be included here under the common definition of prose narrative fiction. Between the legendary epic, the drama into which portions of its available material from fluent become crystallised, and the wider prose fiction or novel, into which this again expands itself, there are obvious affinities, the distinctions being rather of form than of essence. It is of the later development, the novel, that we purpose to give here a historical sketch, omitting, however, any consideration of the remoter and but slightly known specimens produced in Hindustan and China.

*1. Ancient Classical Prose Fiction.*—The earliest Greek compositions of a fictitious character, of which we possess any knowledge, are the "Milesians," or "Milesian Tales," said to have been written chiefly by one Aristides. The Milesians were a colony of Ionic Greeks who settled in Asia Minor, and fell under the dominion of the Persians, 494 b. c. They were a voluptuous, brilliant, and inventive race, and are supposed to have caught from their eastern masters, whom they somewhat resembled, a liking for that particularly oriental species of literature—the imaginary story or narrative. None of the Milesian Tales are extant, either in the original Greek or in the Latin version made by Sisenna, the Roman historian, about the time of Marius and Sulla; but we have some forty stories by Parthenius Nicaeus, which are considered to be to a certain extent adaptations from them. The collection of Parthenius is entitled "Peri Erotikōn Pathēmatōn, and is dedicated to Cornelius Gallus, the Latin poet, and the contemporary and friend of Virgil. If we may judge from this later set of fictions, which are mainly concerned with the description of all sorts of seduction, of criminal and incestuous passions, and of deplorable terminations to wretched lives, we have little cause, either morally or aesthetically, to regret the loss of their more famous prototypes. In Greece Proper, nothing was done, so far as we know, in the way of novel or romance, until after the age of Alexander the Great. It has been conjectured, not improbably, that his Eastern conquests had a potent effect in giving this new bent to the fancy of his countrymen. Clearchus, a disciple of Aristotle, wrote a history of fictitious love-adventures, and is thus, perhaps, to be considered the first European Greek novelist, and the first of the long series of "Erotikoi," who reach down to the 18th c. after Christ. Not long after came Antonius Diogenes, whose romance, in 24 books, entitled "Ta hyper Thoulēn Apoxi" (Of the Incredulous Things beyond Thule), was founded on the wanderings,

adventures, and loves of Dinius and Dercyllis. It appears to have been held in high esteem, and was at least useful as a store-house, whence later writers, such as Achilles Tatius, derived materials for their more artistic fictions. The work has not been preserved, but Photius gives an outline of its contents in his "Bibliothea Cod."

A long interval, embracing, indeed, several centuries, now elapses before we come upon another Greek novelist or romancist. Be the cause of this what it may, the ever-increasing luxury and depravity of the pagan imperial world, combined to develop and intensify that morbid craving for horrible, magical, and supernatural incidents, which in general fill the pages of the romancists of the empire. The first names that occur in the new series are Lucius of Patra (*Patrensis*) and Lucian (q. v.), who flourished in the 2d c. A.D., during the reign of Marcus Antoninus; but as the former simply collected accounts of magical transformations (*Metamorphoses*), he is perhaps not to be regarded as a novelist proper at all; while the latter was really a humorist, satirist, and moralist in the guise of a story-teller—in a word, a classic Rabelais and Heine, and as far as possible from being a member of the wonder-loving school of Erotics, with whom he has only an accidental connection by the external form of some of his writings. The first of the new series of romance writers, strictly so called, is properly Lamblichus (*not* the Neo-Platonic philosopher), whose "Babylonica" is, indeed, no longer extant; but we are able to form a pretty just estimate of it from the epitome of Photius. The next notable name is that of Heliodorus (q. v.), Bishop of Trikka, who flourished in the 4th c. A.D. This Christian writer, whose "Loves of Theagenes and Charicleia" is really the oldest extant *erotic* romance, has far excelled all his predecessors in everything that can render a story interesting or excellent, and his charming fiction obtained a great popularity among such as could read. Some imagine that they see in Heliodorus a resemblance to the minutely descriptive style of novel introduced into England by Richardson; but without adopting this rather extreme notion, it can at least be safely asserted, that Achilles Tatius and all the subsequent *Erotikoi* deliberately imitated his style and manner, while he was not less certainly used as a model by that once celebrated but dreadfully tedious school of heroic romance which flourished in France during the 17th c., and whose best-remembered representative is Mademoiselle de Scudéri. Tasso, Guarini, D'Urfe, and several other modern writers, have drawn many particulars—sometimes almost *verbatim*—from the stories in the "Theagenes and Charicleia." Achilles Tatius (q. v.), probably belonging to the 5th c., ranks next to, but at some distance from, Heliodorus in point of merit. His romance, entitled "Ta kata Lenkippen kai Kleitophonta," and consisting of eight books, has supplied incidents to more than one Italian and French writer.

The next work that invites our attention in point of time, the "Daphnis and Chloe" of Longus, is of a totally different character. It is a simple and picturesque prose-pastoral, with no poisonings, murders, magic, supernaturalism, and impossible exploits. Over the whole story rest a rural peace and a smile of cheerful sunshine; and, in spite of some singularly polluted passages, it was, for its time, a pure and wholesome fiction. "Daphnis and Chloe" is the only pastoral romance produced by any Byzantine author. Whether or not it exercised any influence on the development of the *modern* pastoral of Italy and France, cannot be proved, but it has been noticed that there is no slight resemblance between it and the story of the "Gentle Shepherd," which we know was suggested to Allan Ramsay by a classical friend, who may have borrowed from the Greek the sketch which he gave to the poet. It has also been very closely imitated by Gessner in his idyll of "Daphnis."

After Longus comes Chariton (flor. some time between the 6th and 9th centuries), whose romance, in eight books, on the "Loves of Chæreas and Callirrhoe," is not quite complete, but nearly so. It contains, like the other erotic fictions, plenty of stirring and startling adventures, but on the whole these are less improbable than what we encounter in the writings of his predecessors. Of three Xenophons, also noted among the "Erotikoi," and of uncertain date, the best is Xenophon of Ephesus, whose romance, entitled "Ephesiaca, or the Loves of Anthia and Abrocomes," is in ten books, and has all the sensational characteristics of the school to which it belongs. It is, however, perhaps worth mentioning, that in the romance of Xenophon we meet for the first time with the story of the love-potion, the pretended death, and the mock-entombment of the heroine, which forms the leading incident

In Shakespeare's "Romeo and Juliet," and which, it is thought, reached the great English dramatist at second or third hand, through the Italian novelist, Luigi da Porta.

Again, a long interval elapses before we meet with another love-fiction of the old pagan sort. During this period, however, a work made its appearance, which was essentially a romance, and was composed expressly for the purpose of recommending that form of Christian life which was the favorite in early times—the ascetic and recluse form. This was the "Barlaam and Josaphat" (q. v.), the author of which is unknown, but whose popularity, during the middle ages, may be estimated from the fact, that it was translated into every language of Christendom from Norway to Spain. In the 12th c., another erotic Eustathius or Eumathius, who was properly the last of the series, published his "Ismene and Ismenias," in eleven books. This romance is, in truth, a feeble performance; the expiring flicker of a lamp whose oil is about done. It is puerile in its delineation of character, and full of plagiarisms; yet many of its details have been copied by later occidental writers, such as D'Urfé and Montemayor.

In all the erotic romances, the adventures, which in fact constitute the story, have certain common characteristics. The hero and heroine are generally carried off by robbers or pirates; or they flee from home, and are accidentally separated. They resolve to seek each other throughout the world, and in the course of their loving quest, they visit the remotest regions, encounter the most frightful perils, make hairbreadth escapes from tragic ends, meet again in most unexpected and miraculous ways, and generally close their career in happiness and splendid prosperity—often turning out to be the offspring of far greater people than they fancied. Copious use is made of poisonous, love-potious, improbable tricks, magic instruments, &c.; and one can easily see that the stories were meant to tickle and stimulate a languid, corrupt, sensual, and credulous people, such as the Greeks of the Lower Empire undoubtedly were.

Before touching on the medieval romance of Western Europe, we may in a few words notice such specimens of classical fiction as exist, or are known to have existed in Latin. We have already stated that the Milesian Tales were translated into that tongue by Sisenna, who derived his knowledge of them from the Sybarites, a Greek colony of Lower Italy. The taste for similar stories increased during the empire, but the writers in general cannot have displayed much genius in their compositions, if we may judge from the contemptuous language used by the Emperor Severus against Clodius Albinus, whose fictions he designates *tudica literaria* and *antilia* (old wives' tales). But higher praise must be assigned to the work commonly attributed to Petronius Arbiter (q. v.), who flourished in the time of Nero, and whose "Satyricon"—incomplete—is a comic novel or romance, and (although the dirtiest work even in pagan literature) is executed with skill, vigor, and at times with beauty. In the 2d c. A.D., Appuleius (q. v.) wrote his "Ass" (called from its excellence the "Golden Ass"), which relates the adventures of a young man who had the misfortune to be accidentally metamorphosed into that animal, while sojourning in Thessaly, retaining, however, his human consciousness. The miseries which he suffers at the hands of robbers, eunuchs, magistrates, and other persons into whose hands he falls, until the period when he is enabled to resume his former figure, are portrayed with a wit, humor, and fancy hardly inferior to Lucian. The work is also believed to have had, like the writings of his Greek contemporary, a moral and satirical aim. It was immensely popular in the middle ages, has supplied Boccaccio with some of his stories, and the author of "Gil Blas" with the picturesque incidents of the robbers' cave in the early part of his romance, and contains in the episode of *Cupid and Psyche* one of the loveliest allegories of classical antiquity.

*2. Romantic Fiction in Western Europe.*—The first thing to be clearly understood in connection with this branch of literature is, that it is not a continuation of the Greco-Byzantine or classical fiction, though, curiously enough, it began to spring up in the West just as the other was dying out in the East. It is a completely new growth, the product of new historical circumstances, which were but very slightly affected by Byzantine influences of any kind; and it transports us into a world of ideas, sentiments, beliefs, and actions, as different from what we find in the "Erotikoi" as could well be imagined. In the latter, the principal characters are mere lovers

*forced* into adventures by the ministers of fate; in the former, they are real heroes, of the old Homeric type, and *seek* dangers greedily and joyously. When we read the "Erotikol," we are reminded in many ways that we are in the midst of a corrupt and decaying civilisation; when we turn to the romances of chivalry, in spite of certain superficial and barbarous vices, such as the prevalence of bastardy, and the indifference displayed to bloodshed, we feel that we are in the presence of a youthful, healthy, vigorous and growing social life. That these romances, generally from beginning to end, consist of a series of extraordinary and utterly impossible exploits, in which the magic, the mystery, and the enchantments of the "Arabian Nights" are rivalled or outshone, is unquestionable; but this proves no more than that the races of Western Europe, who slowly, during the dark ages, rose, by the help of the church, out of barbarism into feudalism—the first step towards the civilisation of the modern world—were boundlessly ignorant, credulous, and wonder-loving. Their prodigious vigor and vehemence of character, having no proper intellectual *pabulum*, was forced to supply its craving for a knowledge which was beyond its immediate attainment, by the exaggerations of a fancy that was without law or limit. We need not go so far as to assert that in the medieval romance, everything is of native or "Gothic" origin; the fact is very much the reverse. This extreme theory, propounded by Mallet, and supported by Bishop Percy and other writers, is totally inadequate to account for all that is contained in these romances. Not less inadequate is another theory, first suggested by Salmasius, and afterwards elaborated by Warton, that the medieval romance is mainly of Saracenic origin, and was probably introduced by the Moorish conquerors into Spain, and thence propagated into France and Britain; while a third theory, which has also found supporters, viz., that it was derived from the classical mythology of ancient Greece, is the most inadequate of all. The true explanation of the matter appears to be, that medieval romance had its root and foundation in Chivalry (q. v.)—a genuine product of Western Europe—and although the machinery, so to speak, the exploits and the marvels, may have often been derived from the foreign sources we have mentioned, yet the spirit, scenery, sentiment, and life of the legends thoroughly reflect the characteristics of the earlier ages of feudalism. The notion of dragons, giants, magic rings, enchanted castles, are probably of Saracenic origin, and may have been introduced into Europe by the horde of pilgrims who visited the East in the time of the Crusades; such incidents as the detaining of a knight from his quest by the enchantments of a sorceress, may have been a tradition of the "Odyssey" of Homer; but the gallantry, the courtesy, the romantic valor, the tournaments, the noble friendships of brother-knights—all that distinguishes the romances of chivalry from the Runic legends or the "Arabian Nights," cannot be traced to any other source than the new-born chivalry of Europe.

The medieval romances are divisible into three great series: 1. Those relating to Arthur and the Knights of the Round Table; 2. Those relating to Charlemagne and his Paladins; 3. Those relating to Amadis de Gaul and his descendants.

The Arthurian series is, in its essence, of Welsh and Armorican origin. Its genesis is as follows. First came the legendary chronicles composed in Wales or Brittany, such as the "De Excidio Britannia" of Gildas (q. v.); the chronicle of Nennius, belonging to the 9th c.; the Armorican collections of Walter Calenius or Gualther, Archdeacon of Oxford; and the famous "Chronicon sive Historia Britonum" of Geoffrey of Monmouth (q. v.)—from these, and from the multitude of floating unrecorded traditions, sprung the *metrical*, which in turn gave birth to, and were ultimately superseded by, the *prose* romances. It is with the latter alone we have here to do. They, like the metrical romances, were composed by Anglo-Norman authors (whose names are unknown) during the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries, who took all the more willingly to the old British legends, that in these the "Saxons" were the objects of the authors' hatred and detestation. The principal romances of the Arthurian cycle are those of "Merlin" (q. v.), the enchanter; of "Arthur" (q. v.); of the Sangreal (see GRAAL); of "Perceval;" of "Lancelot du Lac;" of the princes of Lyonesse, "Meliadus" and his son "Tristan;" and of "Isaie le Triste," the son of Tristan. They relate the marvellous adventures, exploits, loves, and galantries of the Knights of the Round Table, and are probably in substance the oldest of the medieval prose romances. The scenes are generally laid in Wales, Cornwall, Brittany, Ireland, or Scotland; only in one or two of the series are we taken as far

as Egypt or India ; and though Arthur is slain by " Saracens " who supported his nephew, Mordred, and a general eastern coloring is present in the cycle, yet it is " Saxons " who are his principal foes.

The series of Charlemagne and his Paladins is of purely French origin, and originated in a somewhat similar fashion to the Arthurian cycle; that is to say, there was first a legendary chronicle (in verse, however), entitled " Historia de Vita Caroli Magdi et Rolandi," erroneously attributed to Turpin or Tilpin, Archbishop of Rheims, and contemporary of Charlemagne, but probably executed in the 11th or 12th c.; then came a series of metrical romances, strictly so called, which were gradually supplanted by their prose counterparts, the authors of which last, however, appear to have diverged more from the metrical originals, and to have been more free and fanciful than their predecessors of the Arthurian cycle. The principal are " Huon of Bordeaux " (the incidents of which are followed by Wieland in his " Oberon "), " Guerin de Monglave, Gaylen Rhetoré " (in which Charlemagne and his Paladins proceed *incognito* to the Holy Land), " Miles and Ames, Jourdain de Blaves, Doolin de Mayence, Ogier le Danois," and " Maugis the Enchanted." In these romances we are, in some respects, on totally different ground from that on which we find ourselves in the Arthurian series. We are transferred to the East—to Africa, Palestine, Arabia, Bagdad, Constantinople, India, Persia, the Caspian Sea, &c. We are introduced to the courts of Saracen "princes," "sultans," and "emirs," and see Mohammedan maidens of peerless beauty falling in love with Christian knights, and for their sake abandoning, or even betraying father, mother, brethren, and kinsmen. Fairies, who figure but slightly in the Arthurian romances, play a frequent and an important part in these; demons, dervishes, apes, talismans, palaces with cupolas and gilded roofs, splendid jewels, diamonds, &c.—everything, in fact, shews the influence exercised on the imagination of Western Europe by the glowing scenery, the brilliant life, and the gorgeously fanciful superstitions of oriental lands.

The series relating to Amadis de Gaul and his descendants is sufficiently characterised under the head of *AMADIS* (q. v.). We may only observe, as a proof of the comparative lateness of their composition, that the " Saracens " of the French romances here give place to " Turks," and as the eyes of Europe were turned towards the tottering Greek empire, many of the scenes of warfare are laid at Constantinople.

Besides the three distinct series of romance above mentioned, a fourth perhaps deserves mention, in which the heroes of antiquity are grotesquely tricked out in the costume of medieval knights. The exact date of their composition cannot be ascertained, but they were probably later in general than any of the other three series; and, at any rate, were for the most part not published till the end of the 18th and the beginning of the 16th centuries. The principal are the romance of " Jason and Medea," of " Hercules," of " Oedipus," and of " Alexander." They are all written in French, and the first two profess to be the work of Raoul le Febre. An attempt is made to adhere, in the general outline of the stories, to the ancient myths, but most marvellous embellishments are added, such as only the middle ages could have conceived; while the transformations that the classical personages undergo are exceedingly ludicrous. Jove becomes a " king;" Mercury his " squire;" the Fates, "dameas;" Cerberus and the Sphinx, "giants;" &c.

Before leaving this division of our subject, we would observe that, though the romances of chivalry may appear infinitely tedious and absurd to a modern reader, they were immensely relished and admired during the ages in which they were produced, were widely disseminated, in different forms, throughout all Christendom, and were highly popular with later poets. The influence which they exercised on Pulci, Bolando, Tasso, Spenser, &c., shews the strong hold that they must have had on the imagination of Europe; but with the decline of chivalry, the spread of the more rational and artistic fictions of the Italian novelists, the revival of letters, and the general advancement in civilisation of Christendom, the taste for the romances of chivalry also declined, until finally Cervantes langhned them out of literature, and well-nigh out of memory, in the beginning of the 17th century.

*3. Development and Influence of Fiction in Italy.*—The Italians originated no romances of the kind described above. This resulted from various causes, the principal of which perhaps are; 1st, that they were really not a Gothic, but at least a semi-classic people; 2d, that they were more polished than the northern nations; and 3d, that instead of feudal chivalric institutions, the most characteristic political

features of Italy, during the middle ages, were mercantile and lettered republics. There was what may be roughly called a *middle class*—of merchants—in Italy, when England and France, and Spain, contained really little more than nobles and serfs; and these were really the best instructed and the most enlightened portion of the community. Hence it is but natural that we should find a style of fiction mirroring to some extent this more civilised and sober form of social life. That the classical romances had some influence on the development of Italian fiction, is probable; several of the tales recorded in the love-letters of Aristenetus, and in the “Golden Ass” of Appuleius, are quite like what we read in Boccaccio and others. The fables of Pilpai or Bidpai (q. v.), translated into Latin as early as the 13th c., were also not without a certain effect; but it is to the Arabico-Indian book of the Seven counsellors (better known as “The Tales of the Seven Wise Masters”), still more to the stories of Petrus Alphonsus (whose work is entitled “De Clericis Disciplina”), and the “Gesta Romanorum” (q. v.), a grotesque jumble of classical stories, Arabian apologetics, and monkish legends, in the disguise of romantic fiction; but most of all perhaps to the “Contes” and “Fabliaux” (q. v.) of the French poets, that we must look for the first sources of those almost innumerable *novelletti* which mark the earlier literary history of Italy.

The earliest Italian work of this sort is the “Cento Novelle Antiche,” commonly called “Il Novellino.” It is a compilation by different hands—all unknown—of stories floating about, or taken with modifications from the sources above mentioned, with one or two of the more graceful episodes in the romances of chivalry, and was executed towards the close of the 13th century. It was followed in 1358 by the “Decamerone” of Boccaccio (q. v.)—the finest, in point of humor, sentiment, and style, of the whole set, but not more original in the matter of story than “Il Novellino.” Its influence on early European literature was prodigious. Chaucer and Shakespeare in England have been in particular greatly indebted to it for incidents and plots; while in France—from whose Trouvères he had himself derived so much—Boccaccio had a number of distinguished imitators. In his own country, his influence was so overwhelming, that for some centuries Italian novelists could do nothing more than attempt to copy him. The principal of these imitators are Franco Sacchetti (1335–1410), Ser Giovanni (who began to write his *novelletti* in 1378, from which Molière got the plot of his “Ecole des Femmes,” and Shakespeare probably part of his story of the “Merchant of Venice”—though the story of the bond is far older, and is of Persian origin—Chaucer is also indebted to this Italian); Massuccio di Salerno (flor. about 1470), more original than most of the post-Boccaccian novelists; Sabadino dell’ Arienti (flor. about 1483); Agnolo Firenzuolo; Luigi da Porta; Molza, and Giovanni Brevio (flor. at the close of the 15th, and in the first half of the 16th c.); Girolamo Parabosco (flor. 1550); Marco Cademoste da Lodi (1544); and Giovanni Giraldi Cinthio (died 1513), noted particularly for his extravagant employment of sanguinary incidents, and the introduction of scenes of incredible atrocity and accumulated horrors. The seventh of his third decade of stories contains the story of Othello, the Moor of Venice; the plot of “Measure for Measure” was also derived indirectly from him. Cinthio was, in fact, the greatest favorite of all the Italian novelists with the Elizabethan dramatists. Besides these, we may further mention Antonio Francesco Grazzini (died 1588); Straparolo (wrote 1554 *et seq.*), from whom Molière, and also the French writers of fairy tales, derived numerous hints; while the ludicrous incident embodied in the Scottish song of “The barri’ o’ our door,” forms one of the stories of this writer; Bandello (died 1555), the most widely known and read (out of Italy) of all the Italian novelists next to Boccaccio, and in whom we find the original of Massinger’s play of “The Picture,” and of Shakespeare’s “Twelfth Night”; Granucci (published 1574); Malespini (published 1609); and Campeggi (early part of 17th century).—The best French imitations of these Italian tales are the “Cent Nouvelles Nouvelles” (printed 1456, and translated into English under the title of the “Hundred Merry Tales,” 1551). They are full of life, gaiety, and imagination, and are written in a most naive and agreeable manner; and the “Heptameron” of Margaret, Queen of Navarre, from which Shirley, the English dramatist, has taken the plots of two of his comedies.

A few words may also be devoted here in passing to a very different class of fiction—the “Spiritual Romance.” It originated, without doubt, in the bosom of the

church, and from the desire to edify, by stories of religious knight-errantry, a rude and ignorant community, incapable of understanding or relishing abstract doctrines. The first of the series is "*Barlaam and Josaphat*," already alluded to; but by far the greatest work of the kind produced during the middle ages is the "*Legenda Aurea*," or *Goldeu Legend* (q. v.)—itself believed to be drawn from different and now partly forgotten sources. Besides these, may be mentioned a species of spiritual tale—the "*Contes Dévots*," prevalent in France during the 12th and 13th centuries, and which were written by monks, probably with the view of counteracting the witty and licentious stories of the *Trouvères*; but curiously enough, in these pious fictions, the lives of monks and nuns are represented as far more immoral than in those of the secular satirists. The things, too, which the Virgin Mary is represented as doing are most astounding, and throw a strange but valuable light upon the religious notions of the age. In one story, she conceals the shame of a favorite nun; in another, she performs the part of a procress; in a third, she officiates as midwife to an abbess who had been frail and imprudent; and in general, she performs the most degrading offices for the most worthless characters.

*Romance of the 16th and 17th Centuries.*—During the middle ages, the universal sway of the church and the institutions of feudalism gave a certain character of uniformity to the modes of life, and thereby to the social literature of Western Europe; but after the epoch of the Reformation, and even earlier, this uniformity disappears, and we find in every direction a tendency to the opposite extreme of individualism. This tendency manifests itself especially in the fiction of the period, which, vastly increasing in quantity and varying in quality, becomes difficult to classify. We shall, however, endeavor to group the products of modern prose fiction works under what appears to us a convenient chronological heading.

During the 16th and 17th centuries, four different kinds of romance or novel were cultivated—

1. *The Comic Romance*;
2. *The Political Romance*;
3. *The Pastoral Romance*;
4. *The Heroic Romance*.

*Comic Romance* substantially begins in modern times with Rabelais (q. v.), styled by Sir William Temple the *Father of Ridicule*. Others, indeed, had preceded him in the same path, but they had acquired no celebrity. In him we see unmistakably one form of the modern spirit—its daring freedom of speculation, criticism, and satire, also that lack of reverence exhibited by those who, at the period of the Reformation, clearly discerned the abuses of the church, but had not faith in the possibility or efficacy of reforma. Thus, Rabelais, in his imitable burlesque-romance, scoffs (with the tone of a sceptic, however) at the vices of the clergy, the crooked ways of politicians, the jargon of philosophers, and the absurdities of the *contes dérôts*, and of the medieval tales generally. The next remarkable romance of a comic nature is the "*Vita di Bertoldo*" of Julio Cesare Croce (flor. at the close of the 16th c.), a work recounting the humorous and successful exploits of a clever but ugly peasant, and regarding which we are told that for two centuries it was as popular in Italy as "*Robinson Crusoe*" or the "*Pilgrim's Progress*" in England. The substance of the story can be traced back to an oriental source. A few years later appeared "*Don Quixote*" (see CERVANTES), in which "war to the knife" was proclaimed against the romances of chivalry, and in which, perhaps, we see, more distinctly than in any other fiction of the period, the new turn that the mind of Western Europe had taken. Almost contemporaneous with "*Don Quixote*" was another Spanish romance—Matteo Aleman's "*Life of Guzman Alfarache*," successively beggar, swindler, pander, student, and galley-slave. In this work, as in others of the same sort, we find several indications of the influence of the Italian novelists. It has been supposed that "*Guzman Alfarache*" suggested to Le Sage the idea of "*Gil Blas*," and there is some resemblance between the two; but, at any rate, it gave birth to a host of Spanish romances with beggars and scamps for heroes, of which the best is the "*Laz.illo de Tormes*," by Diego de Mendoza (1586). In the following century, France produced, among others, Scarron's "*Roman Comique*," and Furetiere's "*Roman Bourgeois*." England and Germany have nothing to shew in this department.

*Political Romance* was manifestly suggested partly by the great politico-ecclesiastical changes that took place in Europe in the first half of the 16th c., and partly by the immense increase in the knowledge of the manners and customs of remote

nations, occasioned by geographical discoveries and mercantile adventure. The earliest of the series is the "Utopia" of Sir Thomas More; next comes the "Argenis" of Barclay, published in 1621; and to the same class belong a variety of French romances produced about the close of the 17th and the beginning of the 18th c., of which by far the most famous is the "Télémaque" of Fénelon.

*Pastoral Romance.*—All through the middle ages, the fame of Virgil kept up a certain interest in compositions devoted to the delineation of rustic or shepherd life. We even find in the poems of the Troubadours several specimens of the erotic pastoral; and the "Ameto" of Boccaccio furnishes us with a prose illustration of the same. But it was after the revival of letters that this branch of fiction, so essentially classical, was most assiduously cultivated by men of scholarly genius; and though their works have not retained the popularity they originally enjoyed, they are still interesting and valuable from an historical point of view, and abound in descriptive passages of great beauty and sweetness. The pastoral life which they portray, however, never existed either in Greece or elsewhere. Their shepherds and shepherdesses are as unreal and unhistorical beings as the knights of medieval romance. The first important work of the kind is the "Arcadia" of Sannazzaro, written in Italian, about the end of the 15th century. It was followed by the "Diana" of Montemayor, written in Spanish, about the middle of the 16th c., several of the episodes of which are borrowed from the Italian novelists; while Shakespeare has in turn directly taken from it the plot of the "Two Gentlemen of Verona," copying occasionally the very language, as well as some of the most amusing incidents in his "Midsummer Night's Dream." The "Diana" was imitated in French by Honore d'Urfé whose "Astrée" (1610—1625) was for a long while held in the highest esteem, and is really, in spite of its tediousness, a work of great learning and considerable merit. Twenty years before the appearance of "Astrée," Sir Philip Sidney wrote and published his "Arcadia," as tiresome, and in its substance as unreal, as any production of the same school, but in stateliness and melody of language, in luxury of fancy, in nobility and purity of sentiment, far exceeding them all.

*Heroic Romance* owed its origin partly to the immediate antecedent pastoral romance, partly to an increased acquaintance with classic history, produced by the translation of such books as "Plutarch's Lives," and partly to the interest excited in the Moors of Granada by a splendid romance in Spanish (professing, however, to be a *history*), entitled "The Dissensions of the Zegrís and the Abencerrages," and was printed at Alcalá in 1604, and which soon became extremely popular, especially in France. It was in the latter country alone that the "Romans de Longue Haleine" (Long-winded Romances), as they have been happily nicknamed, were cultivated. The first of this heavy series was the "Polexandre" of Gomberville, published in 1632, in which the influence of the early Greek romances is visible. His successor, Calprened, the best of a bad lot, wrote "Cleopatra," "Cassandra," and "Pharamond." But the most prolific, and consequently the most intolerable of the school, is Madame de Scudéri, whose principal romances are "Ibrahim ou l'Ilustre Bassa," "Clelie," "Histoire Romaine," "Artamenes ou le Grand Cyrus," and "Almahide." The pompous dignity, the hyper-polite address, the dreadful dulness, and the hollow ceremonialism of these ridiculous performances, admirably (if unintentionally) mirror the features of French court-life during the time of the *Grand Monarque*. The heroic romances did not long retain their meretricious reputation. Molière, and still more, Boileau in his satire "Les Héros de Roman, Dialogue," ridiculed them to death, and in consequence, Madame de Scudéri had no successor.

**NOVELS AND ROMANCES OF THE 18TH CENTURY.**—The two European nations that most brilliantly distinguished themselves in the department of fiction during this century were England and France, and to those we shall chiefly confine our attention.

1. *English Prose Fiction.*—During the age of Elizabeth and her immediate successors, the imaginative genius of England, from various causes, had taken an almost exclusively poetical direction, and with the exception of Sidney's pastoral of "Arcadia," and Bunyan's "Pilgrim's Progress," we meet with nothing in the shape of a novel or a romance for a hundred years. The 17th c. has nothing to shew till it approaches its close. This is doubtless owing, in part at least, to the intensity of the great political struggle that agitated and rent England during the first half of that century, and gave an austere theological bias to society. The Pur-

tans, in their day of triumph, would not tolerate either comic or heroic romances. They set their faces "like flint" against all imaginative fiction, which they considered as little better than lying; and even to this day that class of people commonly described as "the religious portion of the community," in some sense the representatives of the Puritans, betray the legitimacy of their spiritual descent by their aversion to all sorts of secular tales. After the Restoration, however, an extraordinary change came over the English nation, or at least over the upper and wealthier classes. These rioted in the excess of a coarse and licentious reaction against the rigorous piety and fanaticism of the Commonwealth. This turbid viciousness by and by calmed down, but it left a certain tint of sensualism and materialism in the habits and life of the people, which, in the opinion of some competent critics, marks them to this day. It is certain that at the beginning of the 18th c. England was entering on the most prosaic, unimaginative, and unheroical period of her history. Its characteristics are faithfully reflected in most of her novels, which, as pictures of the gross dull life, the paltry thoughts, the low sentiments, the modish manners, and the loose morality that prevailed, possess a great historical value apart altogether from their literary merits. The first name that occurs is that of the notorious *Aphra Behn* (q. v.), the greater number of whose novels, of which "*Oronoko*" is the best known, appeared towards the close of the reign of Charles II., but are included here in the literature of the 18th c., as they belong to it by the nature of their contents, and not to the 17th c. types of fiction. She was imitated by Mrs. Heywood (born 1696, died 1758), of whose "*Love in Excess*," "*The British Recluse*," and "*The Injured Husband*," it has been remarked, that "the male characters are in the highest degree licentious, and the females as impassioned as the Saracen princesses in the Spanish romances of chivalry." A later work, however, "*The History of Miss Betsy Thoughtless*," is of a higher stamp, and is supposed to have suggested the plan of Miss Burney's "*Evelina*." But the first novelist of great genius belonging to the new era is Daniel De Foe (q. v.), the father of modern English prose fiction, in whose writings—"The Adventures of Captain Singleton," "*The Fortunes of Moll Flanders*," "*The History of Colouel Jack*," &c.—the coarse, homely, unpoetical, but vigorous *realism* of the time is strikingly apparent. Perhaps the Spanish rags-muffin romances may have furnished him with some hints. "*Robinson Crusoe*" is the finest and the most famous of all that class of fiction which was extensively cultivated both in France and England during the earlier part of the 18th c., and which received, in the former country, the name of *Voyages Imaginaires*. To the same class (outwardly at least) belong Swift's "*Gulliver's Travels*," though at bottom this is a satirical romance, like the works of Rabelais, and the "*Gaudentio di Lucca*," a sort of politico-geographical fiction, generally attributed to Bishop Berkeley. After De Foe comes Richardson (q. v.), very unlike any of the novelists of his age—to appearance. His Muse is a most decorous prude, and never utters anything rude, or vulgar, or licentious; but though she was inspired with the best intentions, her notions of how virtue should be rewarded indicate the coarseness of the time, hardly less than the debaucheries and seductions of Fielding and Smollett. The principal novels of Richardson are, "*Pamela*," "*Sir Charles Grandison*," and "*Clarissa Harlowe*." Fielding (q. v.) thought Richardson untrue to nature, and wrote his first novel of "*Joseph Andrews*" as a burlesque on the style of his predecessor. Like his subsequent performances, "*Tom Jones*" and "*Amelia*," it represents society as Fielding's sharper eyes saw it, on the whole, gross, vulgar, and impure. Smollett (q. v.), with a different style of genius, continues to paint in the same spirit. His chief works are, "*Roderick Random*," "*Peregrine Pickle*," "*The Adventures of Ferdinand Count Fathom*," and "*Humphry Clinker*." Sterne (q. v.), belonging to the same period, exhibits a genius so whimsical, peculiar, and original, that it is almost impossible to class him with any of his contemporaries. His "*Tristram Shandy*" is a work *sui generis*, but nowhere is the coarse impurity and indelicacy of the age more conspicuous. Four years later, appeared Goldsmith's "*Vicar of Wakefield*," in which a change for the better, in a moral point of view, is first noticeable. With the exception of Richardson, all the novelists above mentioned are usually, and we may add correctly, described as *humorists*. Other qualities they have besides, but this is the most common and predominant. When this school was passing away about 1760-1770, another was on the eve of being born. The publica-

tion of Percy's "Reliques" had re-awakened an interest in the age of chivalry and romance. Readers had become tired of the long prevalence of prosaic fiction, in spite of the splendid genius devoted to its illustration. It had done its work, and could create no more. The first of the modern romantic school was Horace Walpole, whose "Castle of Otranto" appeared in 1769. It was followed by Clara Reeve, the authoress of the "Old English Baron," a romance that every school-boy, we hope, remembers with the deepest gratitude; but the greatest genius in this line was undoubtedly Mrs Radcliffe (q. v.), whose "Mysteries of Udolpho" and other works, though now almost forgotten, were once greedily devoured and abundantly imitated. The ablest of her successors were Matthew Gregory Lewis, author of "The Monk" (1796), and Maturin, author of "Montorio" (1803). In all the romances of this school, the incidents are of the most startling, terrible, and often supernatural character, and the scenery is in keeping with the incidents. Fierce barons, mysterious bandits, persecuted maidens, gloomy castles, secret passages, deep forests, murders, ghosts, haunted chambers, &c.; everything that could charm, by way of contrast, and pleasantly horrify the lauguid, matter-of-fact, sceptical 18th c., is to be found in their exaggerated pages.

A few novelists remain to be mentioned who are incapable of particular classification. These are Dr John Moore (q. v.), author of "Zelma," &c.; Godwin (q. v.), author of "Caleb Williams," "St Leon," &c., in whom the free-thinking and revolutionary spirit that sized many minds after 1789 is conspicuous; Mrs Inchbald ("Nature and Art, A Simple Story," &c.); Charlotte Smith ("Old Manor House," &c.); Miss Austen ("Pride and Prejudice, Emma, Persuasion"); and Maria Edgeworth, whose sketches of Irish character first suggested to Walter Scott the idea of attempting for Scotland a series of like illustrations.

2. *French Prose Fiction in the 18th Century*.—It is not easy—perhaps not possible—to trace the causes that led to the cultivation of the different kinds of fiction which flourished in France during this century, and particularly during the first half of it. The natural love of change—of novelty; the accidental influences of foreign literature; the disposition, so peculiarly French, to satirise prevalent follies and vices; the wish, on the other hand, to unmask the leisure moments of a luxurious, superstitious, and profligate society; all these and many other causes unquestionably assisted in determining its diverse development. Four kinds have been distinguished: 1. "Pseudo-historical Romance," the literature in which department, although copious enough, neither deserves nor requires special notice; 2. "Romance in which the incidents, though natural, are purely imaginary"; 3. "Satirico-moral Romance"; 4. "Fairy Tales," to which may be associated the imitations of "Oriental Tales," and the "Voyages Imaginaires."

2. *Romance in which the incidents, though natural, are purely imaginary*.—This class more nearly corresponds with the modern conception of the novel than any of its predecessors, and probably had its prototype in "La Princesse de Clèves" and "Zaïde," by the Comtesse de Lafayette, who flourished in the latter half of the 17th c.; but the first great name that adorns it is that of Marivaux (1688–1763), whose "Vie de Mariamme" and "Payssan Parvenu" were long in high favor. They have this in common with the contemporary English fiction, that everything in them is produced by ordinary means, and the interest of the reader is sought to be awakened by the vivid and powerful portraiture of natural feelings, while the incidents, if often highly romantic, are always sufficiently probable to insure the credence of the imagination. Next to Marivaux comes the Abbé Prevost, q. v. (1697–1763), who first "carried the terrors of tragedy into the novel." He was a most voluminous writer, but the work by which he is now chiefly remembered is "Manon L'Escaut," recounting the adventures of a kept-mistress and swindler, the purpose of which appears to be similar to that of "La Dame aux Camélias" of Dumas fils—viz., to shew how noble, true-hearted, and self-sacrificing a prostitute may be! Other writers belonging more or less strictly to the same division are Madame Riccobouli (flor. 1760) and Rousseau (q. v.), in whose "Heloise" we begin to see the dawn of that fierce natural impure passion, and that extravagant scorn of conventional life, that culminated in the sanguinary paroxysms of the Revolution.

3. *Humorous and Satirical Romance*.—By far the most celebrated specimens of this kind of fiction produced in France during the 18th c. are the "Gil Blas," the "Diable Boiteux," and "Le Bachelier de Salamanque" of Le Sage, q. v. (1688–1746),

all of which were suggested by the prolific comic romancists of Spain, Juan de Luna, Quevedo, Cervantes, Espinel, from some of whom he has borrowed, with hardly any variation, whole scenes and stories, as well as from more ancient sources. The best parts, however, are his own, and the spirit of the work is thoroughly French in the gay and lighsome vivacity of its humor. It is with some hesitation that we place the younger Crebillon (q. v.) in the same category, for the licentiousness of his "Égarements du Coeur et de l'Esprit," and other novels, is far more apparent than their satire or humor. Bastide and Diderot (q. v.) hold an equally doubtful position as satirists or humorists; but Voltaire (q. v.) may fairly claim to rank among the former, in virtue of his "Candide," "Zadig," "L'Ingénier," "La Princesse de Babylone," &c., most of which contain covert attacks on superstition and despotism, under the forms in which Voltaire best knew them. Voltaire, however, had not a rich imagination, and, in consequence, has been obliged to help himself liberally in the matter of incident from older writers.

4. *Fairy Tales, &c.*—A very careful inquiry might probably succeed in tracing back this kind of literature to the early intercourse of Christian and Moorish nations, but the first work in which we find definite examples of fairy tales is the "Nights" of the Italian nove ist Straparola, translated into French in 1585. In this collection are found at least the outlines of some of the best-known stories of the sort, such as "Le Chat Botté" (Puss in Boots), "Prince Marcassin," "Blanche-belle," and "Fortunatus." The immediate forerunner and prototype, however, of the French fairy tales was the "Pentamerone" of Signor Basile, written in the Neapolitan *patois*, and published in 1672. This work attracted and stimulated the fancy of M. Charles Perrault (q. v.), whose "Histoires ou Contes du Temps passé" appeared in 1697, and is incomparably the most naive and charming of all the collections of fairy tales. The titles of some of his *contes* will recall many a literary feast of our childhood—"La Barbe Bleue" (Bluebeard), "La Belle au Bois Dormant" (The Sleeping Beauty, to which, by the by, Tennyson has given a poetic immortality), "Le Chat Botté" (Puss in Boots), "Riquet à la Houppe" (Riquet with the Tuft), and "Le Petit Chaperon Rouge" (Little Red Riding Hood). The principal successors of Perrault were the Comtesse d'Aunoy (see AUNOY), Madame Murat, and Mademoiselle de la Force; but their stories are much more extravagant and forced than those of the illustrious academician. The same censure, however, is not applicable to "Les Contes Marins" (1740), by Madame Villeneuve, among which occurs the tale entitled "La Belle et la Bête" (Beauty and the Beast), perhaps the most beautiful creation in the whole circle of this fantastic form of fiction.

Meanwhile, the translation of the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments" (q. v.) by Galland, 1704–1717, and of numerous other Arabic and Persian works, the great encouragement extended to the literature of the East in the 17th and 18th centuries, the publication of the "Bibliothèque Orientale" of D'Herbelot, &c., created a taste for the brilliant exaggerations of oriental fiction, and a variety of works were soon in the field, swarming with necromancers, dervishes, califs, bashaws, viziers, cadis, eunuchs, slaves. The most notable of these are—"Les Mille et un Quart d'Heure, Contes Tartares;" "Les Contes Chinois, ou les Aventures Merveilleuses du Mandarin Fum-hoam;" and "Les Sultanes de Guzarate, Contes Mongols," of M. Gueulette.—Of the class of fictions known as "Voyages Imaginaires," the principal are the "Histoire Comique des Estats et Empires de la Lune," and the "Estats et Empires du Soleil" of Cyrano Bergerac, which materially influenced the genius of Swift, who has, in fact, borrowed not a little from the first of these in his "Gulliver's Travels," and which were themselves partly suggested by the Spanish romance of Domingo Gonzales, entitled "The Man in the Moon." Such novels as the "Paul et Virginie" of Bernardin St Pierre, which appeared towards the end of the 18th c., do not come under any of the four heads, but may most conveniently be mentioned here.

*Prose Fiction of Germany during the 18th and 19th Centuries.*—The limits of our space will not permit us to do more than superficially indicate the development of this branch of literature in Germany, which, however, is the less to be regretted, as, during the greater part of the 18th c., it did not attain much distinction. Towards the close of the century, however, writers became more numerous, and as the literary activity of many of them continued on till the first or second quarter of the 19th c.,

it will be most convenient and natural to treat both centuries together, as they, properly speaking, form only one area in the literary history of that nation.

The first eminent German novelist of this period was Wieland (q. v.), whose Greek romances, "Agathon," "Aristippus," "Socrates," &c., are of that didactic and sceptical character which was beginning to mark the reflective genius of the continent, and which has since produced such immense changes in all departments of thought. Wieland was followed by a crowd of writers, in whose productions is more or less distinctly apparent the influence of the English novelists, particularly of Richardson and Fielding, who had been translated and carefully studied in Germany, where, however, the "novel of manners," whether serious or comic, dealt more largely in the representation of "family life." The principal names are Augustin Fontaine, Weizel, Müller (whose "Siegfried von Lindenbergs" is still remembered and read), Schulz, and Hippel. Almost contemporary with these quiet and somewhat prosaic novelists, there flourished for a brief period (1780-1800) a school of an entirely opposite character, whose work, fiercely and outrageously romantic, had their poetic counterpart in Schiller's "Robbers." They resemble in their style of handling the feudal ages, the English romances of Mrs Radcliffe and others, which probably suggested them. The chief writers of this "turbulent school of fiction," as it has been called, are Cramer, Spiers, Schleuenkert, and Veit Weber.

Alone, and far above all others in redundancy and originality of fancy, humor, and pathos, towers Jean Paul Richter (q. v.), who is incapable of classification, and to whom, therefore, his countrymen have affixed the epithet of "Der Einzig" (The Unique). Apart from all schools—in this respect, but in this only, like Richter—stands Johann Wolfgang Goethe (q. v.), whose novels, as well as his poems, are poetico-philosophic efforts to represent, perhaps to solve, the great facts and problems of human life and destiny.

The reaction from the materialism and irreligious levity of French thought, first shewed itself in Germany towards the close of the 18th c., in a certain earnest love and study of the old, simple, superstitions, and poetical beliefs of the middle ages. Hence originated the exquisite class of fictions called "Volksmährchen" (popular legends or tales), in which the Germans have never been equalled. The most illustrious cultivator of this species of fiction is Ludwig Tieck (q. v.), for Musens (q. v.), though gifted with admirable powers of narration, is marked by a sceptical humor and irony, not altogether compatible with an imaginative conception of his subject. Other distinguished names are those of De la Motte Fouqué (q. v.), Chamisso (q. v.), Heinrich Steffens, Achim von Arnim (q. v.), Clemens Brentano (q. v.), Zecholle, and Hoffmann (q. v.). More recent novelists of note are Auerbach, Freytag, and Paul Heyse. The tales of Fritz Reuter, written in the Platt or Low German, are original and delightful.

**NOVELS AND ROMANCES OF THE 19TH CENTURY.**—These have been produced in such overwhelming quantity, that volumes would be required merely to classify and characterise them. The vast and rapid increase in the material facilities of intercourse among European nations, which has taken place during the last forty years, has, among other results, tended to diffuse through each country the literary products of all the others, especially those of an entertaining kind; and these have in turn more or less stimulated the imagination of native genius, so that at present there is hardly a people in Europe, not even excluding Turkey, which has not contributed something to the enormous stock of fiction belonging to the 19th century. It would be altogether out of the question to attempt, in a compendious work like the present, a notice, however brief, of the principal novels and romances of every European nation; we can only refer to the historical surveys of literature, to be found under such heads as BELGIUM, BOHEMIA, HUNGARY, NETHERLANDS, NORWAY, POLAND, SWEDEN, TURKEY, &c., and to individual biographies of eminent continental novelists. Even in regard to England and France, we can do little more than catalogue a few prominent names.

1. *English Fiction.*—Almost the first novelist that we encounter in the 19th c. is Sir Walter Scott (q. v.), is probably the greatest that England, or even the world, has ever seen. Here, however, we have less to do with his personal rank in literature than with the kind of fiction that he cultivated. In a qualified sense, he may be regarded as a continuation of the romantic school, but it must be observed that he is free from all their monstrosities, spasms, tricks, and horrible machinery. Possessed

at once of far greater antiquarian learning, imaginative genius, sound sense, and instinctive taste, than any of his "romantic" predecessors, he knew precisely what to shun and what to choose; and though his *Fenial Age*, as depicted in "*Ivanhoe*," "*The Fair Maid of Perth*," &c., is a considerably idealised portrait of the rugged facts, it is a portrait, and not like Horace Walpole and Mrs Radcliffe's performances, a furious caricature. The political reaction that took place in Britain, after the sanguinary excesses of the French Revolution, assuming the form of a new and passionate attachment to venerable and time-honored traditions, shewed itself in literature too, and Sir Walter Scott was its grandest representative. He strove to delineate the Past, as it seemed in the eyes of men who were dubious of the Present, and afraid of the Future—noble, stately, glittering, and gay, with the pulse of life ever beating to heroic measures. The overpowering genius of Scott necessarily but unhappily (for the comfort of readers) led to "endless imitation," but the only one of his followers that held for a time a tolerably decent position in literature is G. P. R. James (q. v.). Galt (q. v.) and Wilson (q. v.), the former with vulgar but racy humor, and the latter with a highly sentimental and overdone pathos, portrayed aspects of Scottish life which the author of "*Waverley*" has passed over. Other novelists, such as Lockhart (q. v.), Miss Ferrier (q. v.), and Mrs Johnstone, do not call for special notice; neither does Hope (q. v.), though his "*Memoirs of Annastasia*" is a most brilliant and powerful book; nor Moore (q. v.), though his "*Epicurean*" has all the sparkling and superficial splendor of his verse. After Scott, the next novelist who distinctly marks a new stage in the development of fiction, is Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton (q. v.), in whose earlier works at least we find something like a reflection of the cold, sneering, selfish, and sensual spirit that marked the upper classes during the period of the Regency; but the versatile genius of this author, and the different fields in which he has won renown, would make it quite unfair to define him as a merely "fashionable" novelist, though his first and least meritorious distinctions were acquired in that capacity, and students of "*Sartor Resartus*" are apt to so remember him. Of fashionable novelists, strictly so called, the best known are Mrs Gore (q. v.) and Theodore Hook (q. v.). This class was succeeded by another infinitely worse than itself—the *Neglect* novelists, as they have been well termed, who sought for their heroes among highwaymen, thieves, desperadoes, and murderers, like Jack Sheppard, Blueskin, Dick Turpin, Clande Duval, &c., and, flagitiously indifferent alike to fact and morality, labored with pernicious success to invest the lives of these scoundrels with a halo of romantic interest and dignity. The chief of this school, "by merit raised to that bad eminence," is William Harrison Ainsworth (q. v.). During the last thirty years, novels have been multiplied to a degree which is almost alarming, and literally incalculable. The greatest names are unquestionably those of Dickens (q. v.), Thackeray (q. v.), and Miss Evans (q. v.); but besides these might be mentioned a host of others, who have attained either celebrity or popularity, or both. Every mode of life, and every kind of opinion, social, artistic, scientific, philosophical, and religious, has sought to recommend itself by adopting this fascinating garb. We have the nautical novels of Marryat (q. v.), redolent, like Dibdin's songs, of the briny deep; the political novels of Disraeli (q. v.); the sporting and military novels of Lever (q. v.); the brilliant "muscular Christian" novels of Kingsley (q. v.); the "governess-novels," as they have been aptly denominated, of Miss Brontë (q. v.); the "school" novels of Hughes and Farrer; and the "sensational" novels of Wilkie Collins, Miss Braddon, and others. Other authors not less eminent, but not so easily classified, are Mrs Gaskell, Mrs Norton, Miss Mulock (now Mrs Craik), Mrs Oliphant (q. v.), Charles Reade (q. v.), George Macdonald; the name of Whyte-Melville, McCarthy, Blackmore, "Ouida," are well known in various departments of fiction; and recently, William Black has shewn himself an artist of a high class. The extraordinary increase of this potent and therefore perilous branch of literature cannot fail to excite much curious reflection in thoughtful minds.

**2.—French Fiction during the 19th Century.**—A few words are all that we can devote to this part of our subject, though it is far from uninteresting either in a literary or a moral point of view. The effect of the Revolution of 1789 on literature was not immediately beneficial, but the reverse, though it planted the germs of a multitude of new thoughts and aspirations in the mind of Christendom, which have since

yielded, both in France and elsewhere, a prolific harvest of wheat and—tares. The iron despotism of Napoleon crushed nearly all literary expression whatever. His hatred of "ideologues" is well known, but the novel was that species of ideologic composition that came least into collision with the principles of imperialism. Even it, however, could hardly be said to flourish; and the only tolerably gifted writer of fiction who figures during the First Empire is Le Brun, and he was reduced to the necessity of caricaturing the *bourgeoisie*, to which Napoleon had no particular objection, as they were by no means his warmest admirers. Chateaubriand (q. v.) and Madame de Staél (q. v.) are insignificant in this department, and Charles Nodier, though voluminous, was not an original novelist. After the return of the Bourbons, and especially after the revolution of 1830, France began to display a wonderful literary activity, and in particular, its long-repressed faculty of imagination burst into a sudden blossom of poetry and fiction. Even Napoleon, now that he was dead, received a peculiar homage from the class to whom he had never shown favor or regard, of which the songs of Béranger and "*Les Misérables*" of Victor Hugo afford specimens. Unhappily for the purity of its literature, the *régime* of the Restoration, which followed the deliverance of France from a military despotism, was itself a base, corrupt, and profligate thing. The Bourbons came back only to re-enact the follies of their ancestors in the previous century, and the nation soon came to despise, detest, and disbelieve them, and the church which supported them. Hence, a certain reckless levity, and hollow mocking laughter, as of heartless scepticism, pervading those fictions which profess to delineate the realities of current life. Moreover, the sparkling wit, the sunny humor, the pathos, often exquisitely tender and refined, the delicate or deep delineation of character, the occasional fine flush of sentimental enthusiasm, and the poetic witchery of a religious mysticism, cannot blind us to the fact that the substance of most of the recent French fictions is incurably immoral. Paul de Kock (q. v.), Balzac (q. v.), Dumas (q. v.), father and son, Sue (q. v.), Madame Dudevant (q. v.), though wholly dissimilar to each other in the quality of their genius, are wofully alike in the baser element of the national fiction. Victor Hugo (q. v.) and Lamartine (q. v.) are indeed morally far above the rest of their contemporaries, but they are perhaps the only great exceptions that can be mentioned. The "Second Empire" did not improve the tone of the French novel, any more than it improved the tone of French society; but if it be true that when things have reached their worst they begin to mend, the country that has produced "*La Dame aux Camélias*" is perhaps, as regards the literature of fiction, in a hopeful condition. The tales of Messieurs Erckmann-Chatrian, in addition to their merits as graphic and picturesque delineations of provincial life in France, are honorably distinguished by the absence of all prurient sentimentality and indecent passion.

The prose fiction of Spain and Italy during the 19th c. scarcely requires notice, as the former country has not produced a single work that has forced its way into the general European market, while the latter can boast of only one that has attained that dignity, the "*Promessi Sposi*" of Manzoni (q. v.); but in a comprehensive sketch like the present, it would be a blemish to omit at least the names of the more eminent Transatlantic novelists, as they have contributed not a little of late years to the stock of English prose fiction. The most notable are Brockden Browne (q. v.), the American Godwin; Fennimore Cooper (q. v.), from whom Europe has been content, on the whole not unwisely, to take its notions of the forests, the prairies, and the red men of the West; Washington Irving (q. v.), Edgar Allan Poe (q. v.), Nathaniel Hawthorne (q. v.), Mrs. Beecher Stowe (q. v.), Oliver Wendell Holmes (q. v.), and Bret Harte, in all of whose writings, except in the tales of Poe, is visible the influence of the life, traditions, scenery, and other salient characteristics of the New World. See Dunlop's "*History of Fiction*" (Lond. 1814), and Wolff's "*Allgemeine Geschichte des Romans*" (Jena, 1841, 2d edit. 1850).

NOVEMBER (Lat. *novem*, nine) was among the Romans the 9th month of the year, at the time when the year consisted of 10 months; and then contained 30 days. It subsequently was made to contain only 29, but Julius Caesar gave it 31; and in the reign of Augustus the number was restored to 30, which number it has since retained. November was one of the most important months in connection with the religious ritual of the Romans, and continues in the same position, though for other reasons, in the Roman Catholic ritual. It was known among the Saxons as *Blot-monath*, "blood-month," on account of the

general slaughter of cattle at this time, for winter provision (known for a long time afterwards as *Martinmas beef*) and for sacrifice. This custom was not confined to the Saxons, but prevailed in Northern Germany, and even as far south as Spain.

**NOVGOROD**, an important town of European Russia, capital of the government of the same name, is situated on the Volkhof, near where it issues from Lake Ilmen, 128 miles south-south-east of St Petersburg. It is the cradle of Russian history. In 862, the Norman prince Rurik, of the tribe of Varingo-Ross (whence the name *Russia*), was invited hither by the neighboring tribes, and from him begins the history of the country, and the line of its sovereigns. A monument, commemorative of this event, was erected here, with great pomp, in September 1862. In the 9th c., Oleg, the successor of Rurik, transported the capital to Kief; but bestowed many privileges and liberties upon N., and from that time it began to prosper. The greatness of N. provoked the jealousy of the princes of Moscow, and in 1471, the czar Ivan III nearly destroyed the town, bereft it of its liberties, and exiled the most influential citizens. During the time of its prosperity, the town was called Novgorod the Great; and had 400,000 inhabitants, and extended its sway to the White Sea and the river Petchora. Its government was a sort of republic, the prince being less a sovereign than the chief commander of the troops. Its greatness was due to its vast foreign trade alone, and when Archangel was opened for English trading vessels, but especially after the foundation of St Petersburg, its trade fell away, and the town rapidly declined. Of the existing ancient buildings, the most remarkable are the Church of St Sophia, founded in the 11th c., possessing a fine old library, as well as some remarkable paintings and tombs; and the Kremlin, in the steeple of which hung the famous bell used to summon the citizens for the deliberation of state affairs. Pop. (1867) 16,722.

**NOVGORO'D**, a government of Great Russia, extends immediately south-east of the government of St Petersburg. Area, 48,780 sq. m.; pop. (1870) 1,011,445. The surface is gently undulating, with the Valdai Hills in the south, which rise to about 300 feet, and may be said to form the watershed between the Baltic, Caspian, and White Seas. The government contains many lakes and rivers; of the former, the lakes Ilmen and Bieloe are the largest; and of the latter, the Wolchof, Mita, Szeksna, and Mologa are the most important. The rivers are connected by canals, which are of great service to trade. The soil, especially in the north-east, is not fertile, and the climate is severe; agriculture and cattle-rearing are carried on only to a limited extent. Forests and pasture-lands are numerous and extensive, and the timber and hay sent to the capital realize a considerable income. Quarries of the best stone for paving occur on the river Toana, and near Stara-Russa there are mineral and saline springs.

**NOVGORO'D-SSJEWER'SK**, or Novgorod-Seversko'le, a town of Russia, in the province of Tchernigov, 89 miles north-east from Tchernigov, on the right bank of the Desna, a branch of the Dnieper. It is the capital of a district, and is a place of considerable trade and activity. Pop. (1867) 6801.

**NOVGRA'D-VOLY'NSKI**, a town of European Russia, in the government of Volhynia, 52 miles west-north-west from Jitomir. It is the capital of a circle, and is situated on the banks of the Slutch, a feeder of the Pripyat, and so of the Dnieper. Pop. (1867) 8068.

**NO'VI**, a town of Northern Italy, in the province of Genoa, is a station on the railway from Turin to Genoa, and is 33 miles north-north-west of the latter city. It presents few attractions, with the exception of a number of picturesque old houses. It carries on a considerable transit-trade; and the silk produced in the vicinity is amongst the most celebrated in Italy. Pop. 11,445.

**NO'VIBAZA'R**, also Jenibazar, a town of Bosnia, European Turkey, situated on the river Rashka, an affluent of the Morava, 180 miles south-east of Bosna-Serbi. Several of the great roads of the country cross each other here. N. has celebrated fairs, important trade, and considerable wealth, but the houses are mostly of mud. It is the chief point of communication between Bosnia and the rest of Turkey. Pop. estimated at 15,000.

**NOVITIATE**, the time of probation, as well as of preparatory training, wh<sup>ch</sup> in all religious orders precedes the solemn PROFESSION (q. v.). Under the last

MONACHISM will be found the general principles by which the training for the "religious" life is regulated. It will be enough to say here, that the novitiate in all orders must continue (Conc. Trid. Ses. xxv. c. 85. "De Regul. et Mon.") at least one year. In most orders it is of two, and in several of three. Any attempt to solemnise the profession before the expiration of the novitiate, without a dispensation, is invalid. During the novitiate, the novices are immediately subject to a superior, called Master (or Mistress) of Novices. They are not permitted to engage in systematic study, their whole time being devoted to prayer, and to ascetic and liturgical training. During the novitiate, the novice continues free to withdraw, nor is he or she admitted to profession at the close of the novitiate, except after proof given of fitness, and of proper dispositions for the particular institute aspired to.

NOVOARKHANGHE'LSK (New Archangel), or Sitka, a seaport of Alaska, formerly centre of the administration of the Russo-American Company, situated on the island of Sitka, on the n. w. coast of the American continent, in lat.  $57^{\circ} 3'$  n. long. about  $135^{\circ}$  w. It has a good port, and was the entrepôt of all the stores for the other Russo-American colonies, and of their produce, of which furs were the principal item. There are at N. only 66 clear days in the year. Mean temperature throughout the year,  $43^{\circ} 45'$  F. Pop. (before cession of Alaska to the U. S.) 1000, mostly servants of the company.

NOVOMOSKO'VSK, an important market-town of South Russia, in the government of Ekaterinoslav, and 20 miles north-north-east of the town of that name, on the Samara, an affluent of the Dnieper. Three extensive fairs, chiefly for the sale of cattle and horses, are held here annually. The "remounting" officers attend these fairs for the purpose of supplying their regiments with horses. Tanning and tallow-melting are carried on. Pop. (1857) 10,379.

NOVOTCHERKA'SK a town of Southern Russia, capital of the territory of the Cossacks of th. Don, on the Ak-sai, a tributary of the Don, at a distance of 12 miles from its right bank, and about 70 miles east-north-east of Taganrog. The central administration of the territory was transferred hither from Tcherkask in 1804 by Count Platoff, commander-in-chief of the Cossacks. The choice was not a happy one, the distance of the town from the Don, the great commercial artery, being much felt. In 1838, a statue was erected in memory of Count Platoff, who achieved an illustrious name by his military exploits from 1770 till 1816, and especially during the French invasion in 1812. Pop. (1867) 27,918, who carry on trade and manufactures, agriculture, cattle-breeding, fishing and wine-growing.

NOWANAGA'R, or Nowannggur, a seaport of India, in the peninsula of Katty-war, Guzerat, at the mouth of the Nagna, a small river on the south shore of the Gulf of Cutch, 160 miles west-south-west from Ahmedabad, and in n. lat.  $22^{\circ} 28'$  e. long.  $70^{\circ} 11'$ . It is the principal place of the district of Hallur, the greater part of which is held as a *jaghire* by the chief of N., who bears the title of the Jam of Nowanagar. His territory comprises 540 villages, and a pop. of about 290,000. The town of N. is large and populous, nearly four miles in circuit. It is a place of very active trade, famous for the fine quality of the cloth which it produces, and for the brilliant colors of which its fabrics are dyed. In the adjacent sea are beds of pearl-oysters. Copper ore has been discovered in a range of hills behind the town.

NOYADES (i. e., "Drownings," from Fr. *noyer*, to drown), the execution of political offenders in great numbers at once by drowning them, one of the atrocities of the French Revolution, practised at Nantes by Carrier, the deputy of the Convention. See CARRIER. This mode of execution was also called, in cruel sport, *Vertical Deportation*.

NOYAU. See LIQUEUR.

NOYON, a town of France in the department of Oise, 78 miles north-north-east of Paris by the northern railway. It has a fine cathedral of the 12th and 18th centuries, in the Romanesque style of architecture; an episcopal palace, and some linen and cotton manufactures. Pop. (1876) 5785. N. was a residence of Charlemagne, and the place where Hugo Capet was crowned King of France in 987. It is also noted as the birthplace of John Calvin.

NU'BIA, the modern appellation of a country subject to the Khedive of Egypt, extending from Philae to the Sennar, lat. 18° s., bounded on the e. by the Arabian Gulf, n. by Egypt, s. by Abyssinia, and on the w. by the Desert. It appears to have been anciently known as Ethiopia. The ancients gave the name of Ethiopia to the west bank of the Nile from Meroë to the bend of the river. The name seems to have been derived from the Egyptian and Coptic *Noub*, or Gold, a name still retained in *Wady Nuba*, which extends from the frontier of Dongola, north of the *Wady Seboua*, above Derri. The tract between Seboua and Assuan is called the *Wady Kenous*. Diocletian removed hither a Libyan tribe, called Nobatae, to the district above Syene, to oppose the Blemyes, who inhabited the western desert, now held by the Ababde and Bisharin Arabs. The dominion of the Pharaohs, when most extended, reached to the Isle of Argæ, the last place where the monuments of the Egyptians have been found. Under these monarchs it was called *Cush*, and was governed by a royal scribe, entitled Prince of *Cush* or *Ethiopia*, till the twentieth dynasty, when it appears to have been recovered by a series of native rulers, who ultimately conquered Egypt; and although driven back, finally extended their rule from Meroë to Syene, the most southern city held by the Egyptian monarchs, the Ptolemies, and the Romans. These Ethiopians adopted the civilisation of the Egyptians, and the names of some of their monarchs have been preserved. The subsequent fortunes of this country will be seen under **ETHIOPIA**. The modern inhabitants consist principally of Arabs, who invaded the country after the rise of Mohammed, the principal tribes being the Djowabere and El Gharbye, who inhabit from Assuan to the *Wady Halfa*; the Kenous, Djaufre, and others, a branch of the Koreish, who occupied the land from Ene to Assuan. By the aid of Bosnian soldiers, the Djowabere were driven into Dongola in the reign of Selim, and their descendants still flourish at Ibrim, Assuan, and Sal. Lower down, inhabit a race called the Berbers or Barubres; south of Cosseir are the Ababde. From Dongola and Sennar, a negro state, the people are called *Noubas*, a hardy race, differing from the pure blacks; but the country throughout is inhabited by mixed races of Arab and Nigritic blood. Another tribe, the Sheyyga, east of Dongola—fine black race, addicted to horsemanship and war—are still more interesting. The Ababde Arabs are renowned as guides and camel drivers; the Bisharin are supposed by some to be the ancient Blemyes, a tribe living on flesh and milk, but without the oriental jealousy of the Arabs; the Takas, supposed to be the ancient B'jahs, dwell in the mountains. Three principal languages are spoken by these various tribes—the Nuba by the Berbers, who entered from the south-west; the Kangara, a Nigrific dialect, by the negroes of Dafur; and the Bisharie, said to exhibit Aryan affinities. The inhabitants, estimated at about 1,000,000, although less in stature than the Egyptians, are a fine muscular race; the women are pleasing, but not beautiful; and the climate is remarkably healthy. In their political government they were governed by their own chiefs, *make* or *malecha*, till they were subdued by Ismael Pasha, in 1820, to the sway of Egypt, and the civil government is now administered by the Turks. The country is arid, in many places only cultivable at the sides of the Nile, and consists of granite and sandstone. The soil raises dura, cotton, and date palms. It is traversed by the *Bahr el Azrek*, or Blue Nile, and the *Bahr el Abiad*, or White Nile. The products are numerous, comprising maize, dates, tamarinds, guina, aloes, civet, musk, wax, myrrh, frankincense, senna, black wool, hide both of the elephant and rhinoceros, and their ivory, ostrich feathers, ebony, gold dust, saltpetre, salt, tobacco, coffee, cotton, which are carried by way of commerce to Egypt. The taxes are rated by the number of water-wheels for the irrigation of the land. There being no native currency, the coins of Egypt and Europe, especially the Spanish dollar, are received, but glass-beads, coral, cloth, *tobs* or shirts, and cloth (*samoor*) also pass as money. In Kordofan, value is reckoned by cows. The most primitive modes of measurement are in use, maize being sold by the handful (*selga*), 18 of which go to a *moud*; and cloth being measured from the elbow to the fingers. Polygamy is general, and a wife at Kenous is purchased of her parents for 30 piastres; amongst the Arabs for 6 camels, 3 of which are returned to the bridegroom. Some of the tribes are jealous of their women, who are celebrated by travellers on account of their virtue. In their costume, they use turbans, linen, and woollen garments, and are armed with lance and shield, the latter made of

the hide of the hippopotamus. No looms exist, but they plait neatly. Their chief musical instrument is a guitar of five strings, with sounding-board of a gazelle's hide. They are generally averse to commerce, eat little animal food, and are Mohammedans. Their houses are low huts of mud or stone. The chief attraction of this country to travellers is the numerous temples and other ancient remains of the Egyptians, extending from Philae to the island of Argos. These consist of the temple of Isis, in the isle of Philae, founded by Nectanebo I., and continued by the Ptolemies; the temple of Debond, built in honor of Amen Ra, by Ataramen, and continued by the Romans; Tafa or Taphis, the modern Kalabshe, built by Rameses II.; the rock temple of Bute Welly, recording the conquests of the same monarch; Wady Halfa, built by Osertecon I.; the rock temple of Ibsamboul, built by Rameses II.; Gebel Addel, built by Horus of the eighteenth dynasty; Ibrim, built by Amenophes II.; Amada, founded by Thothmes III.; Ghersbeh, Sebona, and Derri, built by Rameses II.; Dakkeh, the ancient Pselsis, built by Ergamenes; and the Colossus of the isle of Argos; the Pyramids of Merod and Tanquassi.—Burckhardt, "Travels;" Champollion le Jeune, "Lettres Ecrites," p. 107, and foll.; Lepsius, "Reise," p. 107, and foll.

NUCLEOBRANCHIA'TA, or Heteropoda, an order of gasteropods having the sexes distinct; the locomotive organ fin-like, single, and ventral; the gills packed in small compass along with the heart. They are all marine, and usually swim with the back downwards and the fin-shaped foot upwards. They adhere to sea-weeds by a small sucker placed on the fin. Some of them, as *Atlanta*, have a shell large enough to protect the body; some, as *Carinaria*, have a small shell covering the gills and heart only; and some, as *Fivola*, have no shell at all.

NU'CLEUS. See CELLS.

NUDIBRANCHIA'TA (Naked-gills), an order of gasteropods, hermaphrodites, destitute of shell, and having the gills exposed on the surface of the body. The gills are differently situated in different genera. The genus *Doris* (q. v.) is an example of this order.

NUE'CES, a river of Texas, United States of America, rises in South-western Texas, lat. 30°, long. 101 w., and after a south-easterly course of 300 miles, flows into Corpus Christi Bay, and through the Pass of the same name into the Gulf of Mexico.

NU'CHA, or Nukha, a town of Russia; after Tiflis and Shemacha, the most important town of Transcaucasia, and the only town of the former khanat of N. or Sheki, in the north-west of Shirwan. It is 120 m. e. & e. from Tiflis, and stands at the southern base of Caucasus in the valley of the Ki-h-Tshai, an affluent of the Alasani, which itself is a branch of the Kur. Pop. (1867) 23,871. The town is surrounded by mulberry groves and fruit-gardens, extending to a distance of several miles. It has long been famous for the rearing of silk-worms, silk-spinning, and the manufacture of silken goods.

NUGGI'NA, a town of British India, in the district of Bijnur, division of Rohilkund, North-west Provinces. It is 48 miles north-north-west from Moradabad, on the route from Moradabad to Hurdwar. N. is the Birmingham of Upper India, and is famous in modern times for the manufacture not only of gun-barrels but of percussion-locks. Pop. (1872) 19,075.

NUI'SANCE is a legal term used to denote whatever is an annoyance to one's neighbors, or in a general sense to the public at large, in the exercise of their rights of property. The whole doctrine of nuisance is founded on the theory that every person is entitled to have the full use and enjoyment of his property, and of the right of passing to and fro on the highway without being interfered with or impeded by others, and whatever so impedes this full enjoyment of one's property and right of passage on the highway is a nuisance. Nuisances are thus capable of being divided into two kinds—private and public. Thus, if a neighbor leave a heap of rubbish emitting noxious smells close to A's windows, or make loud noises in his house, these may be said to be private nuisances, for they annoy A in the enjoyment of the fresh air and quiet which are part of his right of property. On the other hand, if something is put of the same kind on a public highway, or so as to annoy divers people equally and in the same manner, then it is called a public nuisance. One of the leading incidents of a nuisance is, that the party annoyed

by it can in many cases, especially where the nuisance is injurious to health, or life, take the law into his own hands and abate the nuisance without resorting to a court of law. The reason is, that the matter is of too urgent importance to await the slow progress of a suit at law, and mischief may be done in the meantime which would be often irreparable owing to the delay. Another important qualification of the right of abating a nuisance is, that the nuisance must be such that unless it is abated at once the party cannot exercise his legal rights; and hence if the nuisance is of such a kind that it does not directly interfere with the comfort or enjoyment of one's legal rights at the time, he has no right to abate it, but in that case is bound to resort to a court of law. This is best illustrated in the case of a nuisance on the highway, which is the class of cases in which the phrase a common nuisance is most familiarly known. Thus, if while A is riding or driving along the highway his progress is interrupted by a fence or gate which nobody has a legal right to put there, it is obvious that unless A can knock down or demolish at once this obstruction, he cannot proceed in the exercise of his legal right of using the highway. In such a case he has a right to demolish the gate and abate the nuisance, for it directly interferes with his own legal right. But if instead, a gate, a booth, or tent had been erected, not across the highway, but merely on one side of it, so as to leave room for passengers to pass, then though such tent or booth would be as undoubtedly a nuisance as in the other case, yet inasmuch as A can pass without direct interference, he has no right to abate the nuisance by destroying the tent. He must, in this latter case, resort to the legal remedy only. The same rule applies to all kinds of nuisances.

Another rule is, that in abating a nuisance the party is not to do unnecessary damage to property, i.e., more than simply abate the nuisance to such an extent as to enable himself to exercise his legal right, and no further. If he go beyond the immediate occasion, and cause unnecessary destruction to property, then he subjects himself to an action of damages. Hence it is often a difficult thing to know when one is justified in abating a nuisance and taking the law into his own hands.

Where the nuisance is sought to be removed by legal means, then the remedy is in some cases two-fold, and in some cases not so. Where the nuisance is of a private nature, an action of damages is in general the only remedy given by the common law. But where the nuisance is public, and affects all the public equally, or nearly so, then in general either an action may be brought, or an indictment will lie. Thus in case of a nuisance on a highway, as this affects all the lieges alike, an indictment is the proper remedy, though if an individual suffered special damage over and above what he suffers as one of the public, then he may bring an action. In Scotland, instead of an indictment, an action in the nature of a public action is raised, which is substantially similar in its results to an indictment.

As will be seen from what has preceded, the legal remedy in cases of nuisances has long been felt to be insufficient. To add to the other defects, there is great difficulty in determining whether a particular mode of using one's premises is in the nature of a nuisance or not; for if the line is drawn too narrowly, the rights of property and the natural freedom of the subject may be interfered with. On the other hand, things which formerly were considered no nuisances are now treated as such, owing to the spread of more enlightened views of public health and habits of cleanliness. These considerations recently induced the legislature to alter the common law in an important degree, and substitute a new code under the name of the Public Health and Nuisances Removal Acts, 11 and 12 Vict. c. 68; 18 and 19 Vict. c. 115; 35 and 36 Vict. c. 79. The general scheme of these acts is to enable districts to appoint local boards, with extensive powers of self-government, and to undertake and execute sanitary improvements, such as drainage and water supply on a large scale, paying for the expense thereof by a local rate or assessment.

As regards the power of removing nuisances, a statute was passed in 1855 for England, called the Nuisances Removal Act, which has been amended by two subsequent acts. By these acts, some sanitary authority, called rural or urban, under 35 and 36 Vict. c. 79, is appointed the local authority for carrying out the provisions of the act, and these are of an extensive kind. The act defines a nuisance to include any premises in such a state as to be a nuisance or injurious to health; any pool, ditch, gutter, water-course, privy, urinal, cess-pool, drain, or ashpit, so foul as to be

a nuisance or injurious to health; any animal so kept as to be a nuisance, or injurious to health; and any accumulation or deposit, overcrowding, foul condition, or smoke. The local authority is to appoint a sanitary inspector at a proper salary. Any person aggrieved may give notice to the local board, or the sanitary inspector may do so. The local board has extensive powers; it can authorise its inspector, on reasonable complaint, to demand an entrance into any private premises so as to inspect their condition, and may order the removal of nuisances found to exist there. The local board, on finding a nuisance exists, direct their officer to go before a justice of the peace and procure an order directing the private party to abate the nuisance. If he refuses to do so, the local board may remove the nuisance at the expense of the party on whose premises it exists, and sue him for such expenses. If any candle-houses, melting-house, soap-house, slaughter-houses, or place for boiling offal, blood, bones, &c., be certified by the medical officer, or any two medical practitioners, to be a nuisance, or injurious to the health of the inhabitants of the neighborhood, the local board may cause the person carrying on such trade to appear before a justice of the peace, and if it is not satisfactorily proved that he does not use the best practicable means for preventing or counteracting the effluvia, he is fined. So if houses are overcrowded, this may be stopped. Provisions are also enacted with a view to prevent the spread of diseases in times of epidemics, and to prevent common lodging-houses being kept in a foul state. Another important provision relates to the seizure of diseased meat and provisions exposed to sale, and the medical officer of health, or inspector of nuisances, has at all times power to inspect any animal, carcase, meat, poultry, game, flesh, fish, fruit, vegetables, corn, bread, or flour; and if found unfit for food, or diseased, or unsound, they may be carried away then and there and destroyed, and the shopkeeper fined. The local authority may also order owners of houses to supply proper water-closets, and to cleanse gutters and cess-pools which are foul. Besides the above provisions as to nuisances generally, there are separate statutes which prohibit smoke nuisance in the English metropolis and the river Thames. Thus all the furnaces in mills, factories, printing-houses, dye-houses, distilleries, glass-houses, bake-houses, &c., within the metropolis, must be so constructed as to consume their own smoke, and also any noxious or offensive effluvia arising from any trade is prohibited. These statutes are the 16 and 17 Vict. c. 128, and 19 and 20 Vict. c. 107.

In Scotland, a Nuisance Removal Statute was passed in 1856, and was re-enacted by the Public Health Act, 1867, 30 and 31 Vict. c. 101. By that act the town council, or police commissioners of the place, are constituted the local authority for enforcing the act, and in other places the parochial board. Besides dealing with the same class of nuisances as the English act, the Scotch act provided for checking all trades and businesses offensive and injurious to the health of the neighborhood. Similar powers were given to the local board to enter private houses and explore the causes of nuisances. Diseased and unwholesome meat and provisions may also be seized. Common lodging-houses were to be registered, and to be subject to rules and regulations to be made by the local authority. With regard to towns in Scotland, an extensive code of police laws was enacted in the General Police and Improvement Acts, 25 and 26 Vict. c. 101, 31 and 32 Vict. c. 102. The acts may be adopted by burghs; and villages above 700 of population may, by vote of householders, be converted into burghs for this purpose. A Smoke Nuisance Act for Scotland was passed applicable to all burghs, 20 and 21 Vict. c. 73; 24 Vict. c. 17; 28 and 29 Vict. c. 102.

The above is the usual legal acceptation of the term nuisance, but the word is sometimes used popularly to denote that class of nuisances, caused by disorderly houses or brothels, which are familiarly described as common nuisances. In the law of England those who keep a brothel are liable to be indicted for a misdemeanor, but as there was often a difficulty in getting the law in motion in such cases, a statute of 25 Geo. II. c. 36, enacted that if any two inhabitants should give notice to a constable of such a house being kept, it should then be the duty of the constable under a penalty, to go with such inhabitants before a justice and engage to prosecute the keeper, and their expenses are paid by the parish out of the poor-rates. The same act provided that whoever in point of fact acted as the master or mistress of the house, should be taken to be the keeper of the house. The punishment is fine and imprisonment. Of late an attempt has been made to convict a landlord under this statute when he knows of the character of his tenants, and refuses to give

them notice to quit; but the courts have held that the mere fact of the landlord refusing to give notice to quit, and so to eject such tenants, was not enough to make him liable in any criminal punishment. In Scotland, the offence of keeping a brothel is punishable in a similar manner. But apart from the keeping of a brothel, there is no criminal offence committed in this country by those who frequent such houses for the purposes of prostitution unless where the circumstances amount to Rape (q. v.) or Abduction (q. v.), or an aggravated assault.

**NULLA BO'NA**, a legal phrase in England, descriptive of the return made to a sheriff, who in executing process against a debtor finds he has no goods.

**NULLIFICATION**, in American politics, the doctrine of the extreme states' rights party, of the right of a state to declare a law of Congress unconstitutional and void, and if the Federal government attempted to enforce it, to withdraw from the Union. In 1832, during the presidency of General Jackson (q. v.), the free trade and states' rights party in South Carolina (q. v.), under the leadership of John C. Calhoun (q. v.), her senator in Congress, asserted the doctrine of Nullification in a state convention which declared the tariff acts of that year unconstitutional, and therefore null and void; that the duties should not be paid; and that any attempt on the part of the general government to enforce their payment, would cause the withdrawal of South Carolina from the Union, and the establishment of an independent government. President Jackson met this declaration with a vigorous proclamation, in which he declared that the laws must be executed; and that "the Union must and shall be preserved." South Carolina, standing alone, receded from her position under protest, and a "Compromise Bill," introduced by Henry Clay (q. v.) in 1833, providing for a gradual reduction of duties, for the time settled the controversy.

**NUMA POMPILIUS**, in the mythic history of Rome, was the successor of Romulus, the founder of the city. He was a native of Cures in the Sabine country, and was universally revered for his wisdom and piety. Unanimously elected king by the Roman people, he soon justified by his conduct the wisdom of their choice. After dividing the lands which Romulus had conquered, he proceeded, with the assistance of the sacred nymph Egeria, to draw up religious institutions for his subjects, and thus stands out in the primitive legend as the author of the Roman ceremonial law. His reign lasted for 39 years, and was a golden age of peace and happiness. The only feature in the myth of N. P. which we can regard as probably historical, is that which indicates the infusion of a Sabine religious element into Roman history at some remote period.

**NUMA'NTIA**, the chief town of the Celtiberian people called Arevaci in ancient Spain, was situated on the Douro (Duris), in the neighborhood of the present Soria in Old Castile. The site is probably marked by the present Pnente de Guaray. N. is celebrated for the heroic resistance which it made to the Romans, from 163 B.C., when its citizens first met a Roman army in battle, to 134 B.C., when it was taken and destroyed by Scipio the younger, after a siege of 15 months, in the course of which famine and the sword had left alive very few of its 8000 brave defenders. The besieging force under Scipio amounted to 60,000.

**NUMBERS**. Theory of, the most subtle and intricate, and at the same time one of the most extensive, branches of mathematical analysis. It treats primarily of the forms of numbers, and of the properties at once deducible from these forms; but its principal field is the theory of equations, in as far as equations are soluble in whole numbers or rational fractions, and more particularly that branch known as Indeterminate Equations. Closely allied to this branch are those problems which are usually grouped under the Diophantine Analysis (q. v.), a class of problems alike interesting and difficult; and of which the following are examples: 1. *Find the numbers the sum of whose squares shall be a square number;* a condition satisfied by 5 and 12, 8 and 15, 9 and 40, &c. 2. *Find three square numbers in arithmetical progression;* Answer, 1, 25, and 49; 4, 100, 196, &c.

**Forms of Numbers** are certain algebraic formulas, which, by assigning to the letters successive numerical values from 0 upwards, are capable of producing all numbers without exception, e. g., by giving to  $m$  the successive values 0, 1, 2, 3, &c., in any of the following groups of formulas:  $2m$ ,  $2m + 1$ ;  $8m$ ,  $8m + 1$ ,  $8m + 2$ ;  $4m$ ,  $4m + 1$ ,  $4m + 2$ ,  $4m + 3$ , we can produce the natural series of numbers. These formulas are

based on the self-evident principle, that the remainder after division is less than the divisor, and that, consequently, every number can be represented in the form of the product of two factors + a number less than the smaller factor.

By means of these formulas, many properties of numbers can be demonstrated without difficulty. To give a few examples. (1.) *The product of two consecutive numbers is divisible by 2:* Let  $2m$  be one number, then the other is either  $2m + 1$  or  $2m - 1$ , and the product  $2m(2m \pm 1)$  contains 2 as a factor, and is thus divisible by 2. *The product of three consecutive numbers is divisible by 6:* Let  $3m$  be one of the numbers (as in every triad of consecutive numbers one must be a multiple of 3), then the others are either  $3m - 2, 3m - 1; 3m - 1, 3m + 1$ ; or  $3m + 1, 3m + 2$ . In the first and third cases, the proposition is manifest, as  $(3m - 2)(3m - 1)$ , and  $(3m + 1)(3m + 2)$ , are each divisible by 2, and therefore their product into  $3m$  is divisible by 6 (= 1.2.3). In the second case the product is  $3m(3m - 1)(3m + 1)$ , or  $3m(9m^2 - 1)$ , where 3 is a factor, and it is necessary to show that  $m(9m^2 - 1)$  is divisible by 2; if  $m$  be even, the thing is proved; but if odd, then  $m^2$  is odd,  $9m^2$  is odd, and  $9m^2 - 1$  is even; hence, in this case also the proposition is true. It can similarly be proved that the product of four consecutive numbers is divisible by 24 (= 1.2.3.4), of 5 consecutive numbers by 120 (= 1.2.3.4.5), and so on generally. These propositions form the basis for proof of many properties of numbers, such as that the difference of the squares of any two odd numbers is divisible by 8. The difference between a number and its cube is the product of three consecutive numbers, and is consequently (see above) always divisible by 6. Any prime number, which, when divided by 4, leaves a remainder unity, is the sum of two square numbers; thus,  $41 = 25 + 16 = 5^2 + 4^2$ ,  $223 = 169 + 64 = 13^2 + 8^2$ , &c.

Besides these, there are a great many interesting properties of numbers which defy classification; such as, that the sum of the odd numbers beginning with unity is a square number (the square of the number of terms added), i. e.,  $1 + 3 + 5 = 9 = 3^2$ ,  $1 + 3 + 5 + 7 + 9 = 25 = 5^2$ , &c.; and, the sum of the cubes of the natural numbers is the square of the sum of the numbers, i. e.,  $1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 = 1 + 8 + 27 = 36 = (1 + 2 + 3)^2$ ,  $1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 + 5^3 = 100 = (1 + 2 + 3 + 4)^2$ , &c.

We shall close this article with a few general remarks on numbers themselves. Numbers are divided into *prime* and *composite*—prime numbers being those which contain no factor greater than unity; composite numbers, those which are the product of two (not reckoning unity) or more factors. The number of primes is unlimited, and so consequently are the others. The product of any number of consecutive numbers is even, as also are the squares of all even numbers; while the product of two odd numbers, or the squares of odd numbers, are odd. Every composite number can be put under the form of a product of powers of numbers; thus,  $144 = 24 + 3^2$ , or generally,  $n = a^p \cdot b^q \cdot c^r$ , where  $a, b$ , and  $c$  are prime numbers, and the number of the divisors of such a composite number is equal to the product  $(p+1)(q+1)(r+1)$ , unity and the number itself being included. In the case of 144, the number of divisors would be  $(4+1)(2+1)$ , or  $5 \times 3$ , or 15, which we find by trial to be the case. *Perfect numbers* are those which are equal to the sum of their divisors (the number itself being of course excepted); thus,  $6 = 1 + 2 + 3$ ,  $28 = 1 + 2 + 4 + 7 + 14$ , and 496, are perfect numbers. *Amicable numbers* are pairs of numbers, either one of the pair being equal to the sum of the divisors of the other; thus, 220 ( $= 1 + 2 + 4 + 5 + 10 + 11 + 20 + 22 + 44 + 55 + 110 - 220$ ), and 284 ( $= 1 + 2 + 4 + 71 + 142 - 220$ ), are amicable numbers. For other series of numbers, see FIGURATE NUMBERS.

The most ancient writer on the theory of numbers was Diophantus, who flourished in the 3d c., and the subject received no further development till the time of Vieta and Fermat (the latter being the author of several celebrated theorems, a discussion of which, however, is quite unsuited to this work), who greatly extended it. Euler next added his quota, and was followed by Lagrange, Legendre, and Gauss, who in turn successfully applied themselves to the study of numbers, and brought the theory to its present state. Cauchy, Librl and Gill (in America) have also devoted themselves to it with success. The chief authorities down to the present century are Barlow's "Theory of Numbers" (1811), Legendre's "Essai sur la Théorie des Nombres" (third ed. Paris, 1830), and Gauss's "Disquisitiones Arith-

metric" (Brunswick, 1801; Fr. translation, 1807); and for the latest discoveries, the transactions of the various learned societies may be consulted.

**NUMBERS** (LXX. *Arithmoi*; Heb. *Bamidbar*), the fourth book of the Pentateuch, consists of 36 chapters, embracing the history of the march of the Israelites through the Desert, together with the special laws given during this period as complementary to the Sinaitic legislation. Beginning with the census of the people (whence the name of the book), and the assigning of the special places to each tribe with reference to the sanctuary, the whole people is classified, and the tribe of Levi specially singled out. Ordinances on the purity to be maintained in the camp, the functions of the priests, and a description of the passover, follow. The second portion of the book describes the journey from Sinai to the borders of Canaan, the miraculous sustenance of the people, their dissatisfaction and consequent rejection, together with various special laws respecting sacrifices, &c., and the episode of Korah. The third part embraces the first ten months of the fortieth year of the wandering—an epoch hurried over with remarkable swiftness by the historian. In quick succession, the renewed strife of the people with their leaders, the message to the king of Moab, the death of Aaron, the defeat of the king of Arad, the punishment of the people by serpents, the march from Hor to Pisga, and the victorious battle against the kings of Sihon and Og, are recounted, and the extraordinary episode of Balac follows. The further wiles employed by the alarmed Moabites and Midianites to avert the threatening invasion, and their result, together with the second census, are narrated. Moses is warned of his death, and the vital question of his succession is settled. Further laws and ordinances respecting sacrifices and vows, the conquest of the Midianites, and the partition of the country east of the Jordan among certain tribes, a recapitulation of the encampments in the Desert, a detailed specification of the manner in which the promised land should be divided after its conquest, and the final ordinance of the marriages of heiresses among their own tribe only, so as to preserve the integrity of landed property, make up the remainder of the book.

The Book of Numbers is, like the rest of the Pentateuch, supposed by the greater part of modern critics to consist of several documents written by *Eloists* and *Jeohvists* respectively. See GENESIS, PENTATEUCH.

**NU'MERALS**, the general name given to figures or symbols by means of which numbers are expressed (for Roman and Greek numerals, see NOTATION); the distinctive name of *Arabic Numerals* being given to the nine figures or digits and the zero, that are now in almost universal use among civilised nations for this purpose. Both the origin of these figures, and the period at which they became known in Europe, have been made subjects of laborious investigation; and it seems to be now proved beyond a doubt that they are of Indian not Arabic origin, and were invented by the Brahmins some time B.C. But the more important inquiry as to the time of their introduction into Europe has hitherto baffled all research. The simple and convenient theory, that they were introduced into Spain by the conquering Arabs, and from that country, then a great seat of learning, a knowledge of them was disseminated throughout Europe, is contradicted by the fact that the eastern Arabs themselves had no knowledge of them previous to the time of the Calif Al-Mamun (813-838), while a knowledge of them existed in Europe from a considerably earlier date. The most probable theory is that they were brought from India, probably by the Neo-Pythagoreans, and introduced into Italy, whence they became known to a few of the learned men of Eastern Europe. We have, however, every reason to suppose that the figures then known were totally different in form from those now used. These latter, called *Gobar* by the Arabs, may have been brought to Bagdad during the reign of Al-Mansor (760), or his immediate successors, and certainly not later than the time of Al-Mamun. During the latter reign we know the present system of arithmetic was introduced into Persia from India, and most probably a knowledge of the Gobar figures at the same time. Thence the system of arithmetic was brought to north-western Africa and Spain, and doubtless the figures along with it, about the end of the 10th or beginning of the 11th century, and from Spain a knowledge of both was speedily communicated to the rest of Europe, the Gobar figures superseding those forms of Eastern figures which had previously been employed. The knowledge of the figures however

spread, as was natural, much more rapidly than the notation and arithmetic of which they were the foundation, and we consequently find in writings and inscriptions of the middle ages the Gobar figures partly substituted for, and mixed up with, the Roman numerals; as, for instance, **XXX2**, for 32; **X4**, for 14, &c.; and occasionally such expressions as **302**, **303**, for 32 and 33. The earliest work on modern arithmetic was published in Germany in 1390; it explained the decimal notation, and exemplified the elementary rules. The Arabic numerals were not generally introduced into England till the commencement of the 17th c., and it was long after that time before the decimal arithmetic became general. See a dissertation "Sur les Chiffres Indiens," by M. Woepke, in the Asiatic journal.

**NUMERATION**, the reading off of numbers that are expressed by figures. As shewn in Notation (q. v.), the first figure on the right hand expresses units; the next, tens; the third, hundreds; and following the same nomenclature with the next three figures, we have the fourth expressing units of thousands; the fifth, tens of thousands; the sixth, hundreds of thousands. The seventh figure, in like manner, expresses units of millions; the eighth, tens of millions; and the ninth, hundreds of millions. When this method is consistently followed out, as is the case with French and other continental arithmeticians, the fourth period, or group of three figures, is denominated billions, the first figure of it (the tenth from the extreme right) being units of billions; the next, tens of billions; &c. Read in this way, the figures **56,084,763,204,504** express fifty-six trillions, eighty-four billions, seven-hundred-and-sixty-three millions, two-hundred-and-four thousands, five-hundred-and-four units. In Britain, there is a slight variation in the mode, the only effect of which is to render it a little more complicated: thus, after units of millions, come tens and hundreds of millions, but then instead of billions we have, according to the current usage, thousands of millions; after this, tens of thousands of millions and hundreds of thousands of millions, and then billions, which occupy the 18th figure from the right, and are reckoned in the same way as millions, so that the next unit or *trillions* does not come in till the 19th figure. The above number, according to the British mode, would be read fifty-six billions, eighty-four-thousand-seven-hundred-and-sixty-three millions, two hundred-and-four thousands, five-hundred-and-four units. The first method is perfectly symmetrical, keeping throughout to divisions of three figures; the second only keeps to this division up to hundreds of millions, when it changes it for a division into parcels of six figures, which are named from units up to hundreds of thousands of units. The latter mode is, however, gradually falling into disuse.

**NUMIDIA** (Gr. *Nomadia*, the land of Nomads), the name given by the Romans to a part of the north coast of Africa, corresponding to some extent with the modern Algiers. It was bounded on the w. by the river Mulucha (now *Moluya*), which separated it from Mauritania; on the e. by the river Tusca (now *Wadi-el-Berber*), which separated it from the territory of Carthage, the *Africa Propria* of the Romans; on the south, it reached to the chains of Mount Atlas and the Lacus Tritonis, which separated it from the land of the Gaetulians and Interior Libya. The chief rivers were the Rubricatus and the Ampsaga. The inhabitants of N., as of Mauritania, belonged to the race from which the modern Berber are descended. They were a war-like race, and excelled as horsemen; but, like most barbarians, were faithless and unscrupulous. Of their tribes, the *Massylli* in the east, and the *Mawaxylli* in the west, were the most powerful. In the grand struggle between the Carthaginians and the Romans, they at first fought on the side of the former, but subsequently the king of the Eastern Numidians, Massinissa, joined the Romans, and rendered them effectual service in the war with Hannibal. Favored by the conqueror, he united all N. under his sway. Of his successors in this kingdom, Jugurtha and Juba are the most famous. After the victory of Caesar over Juba I., in the African war, N. became a Roman province (46 B.C.); but Augustus afterwards gave the western part—from the river Ampsaga, now *Wadi-el-Kibbitz*—with Mauritania, to Juba II., and the name N. became limited to the eastern part; and when Mauritania became a Roman province, the western part was called *Mauritania Caesariensis*. Among the Roman colonies were Hippo Regius, near the mouth of the river Rubricatus; Cirta (the residence of the Numidian kings), afterwards called Constantina, a name still preserved in Constantine; Siscia, and Ruscada. For the modern history of N. see ALGIERS.

**NUMISMATICS** (Lat. *nummus* and *numisma*, money; Gr. *nomisma*, from *nomos*, law, a medium of exchange established by law), the science which treats of coins and medals. A coin is a piece of metal of a fixed weight stamped by authority of government, and employed as a circulating medium. A medal is a piece struck to commemorate an event. The study of numismatics has an important bearing on history. Coins have been the means of ascertaining the names of forgotten countries and cities, their position, their chronology, the succession of their kings, their usages, civil, military, and religious, and the style of their art. On their respective coins we can look on undoubtedly accurate representations of Mithridates, Julius Caesar, Augustus, Nero, Caracalla, and read their character and features.

The metals, which have generally been used for coinage are gold, silver, and copper. In each class is comprised the alloy occasionally substituted for it, as electrum (an alloy of gold and silver) for gold, billon for silver, bronze for copper, and potin (an alloy softer than billon) for silver and copper. The side of a coin which bears the most important device or inscription is called the *obverse*, the other side the *reverse*. The words or letters on a coin are called its *inscription*; an inscription surrounding the border is called the *legend*. When the lower part of the reverse is distinctly separated from the main device, it is called the *exergue* (Gr. *ex ergou*, without the work), and often bears a secondary inscription, with the date or place of minting. The field is the space on the surface of the coin unoccupied by the principal device or inscription.

The use of coined money cannot be traced further back than the 9th c. B.C. Money, however, as a medium of exchange, existed much earlier, and when of metal it passed by weight, no piece being adjusted to any precise weight, and all money being weighed when exchanged. Early metallic money was in the form of bars, spikes, and rings; the ring money could be opened, closed and linked in a chain for convenience of carriage.

The Lydians are supposed to have been the first people who used coined money, about 700 or 800 years before the Christian era; and their example was soon after followed by the different states of Greece, the earliest Greek coins being those of *Aigina*. In its early stages the process of coining consisted in placing a lump of metal of a fixed weight, and approaching to a globular form, over a die, on which was engraved the religious or national symbol to be impressed. A wedge or punch placed at the back of the metal was held steadily with one hand, and struck by a hammer with the other, till the metal was sufficiently fixed in the die to receive a good impression. The impression was a guarantee of the weight of the piece. From the nature of the process, the earliest coins had a lumpy appearance, and on their reverse was a rough, irregular, hollow square, corresponding to a similar square on the punch, devised for the purpose of keeping the coin steady when struck by the coining hammer. The original coins of *Asia Minor* were of gold, those of *Greece* of silver. The earliest coins bear emblems of a sacred character, often embodying some legend regarding the foundation of the state, as the *phœnix* or seal on the coins of the Phocians, which alludes to the shoal of seals said to have followed the fleet during the emigration of the people. There is a very early double stater of *Miletus*, in *Ionia*, of which the type is the Lion's head, derived from *Persia* and *Assyria*, and associated with the worship of *Cybele*, a symbol which is contained in the later coinage of *Miletus*. Types of this kind were succeeded by portraits of protecting deities. The earliest coins of *Athens* have the owl, as type of the goddess *Athene*; at a later period, the head of the goddess herself takes its place, the owl afterwards reappearing on the reverse. The punch-mark, at first a rudely-roughed square, soon assumed the more rightly form of deep, wedge-like indentures, which in later specimens become more regular, till they form themselves into a tolerably symmetrical square. In the next stage, the indentures become shallower, and consist of four squares forming one large one. The surrounding of the punch-mark with a band bearing a name, and the introduction of a head in its centre, gradually led to the perfect reverse. There is a remarkable series of so-called "enclosed" coins struck in *Magna Graecia*, of which the reverse is an exact repetition in concave of the relief of the obverse. These coins are thin, flat, sharp in relief, and beautifully executed.

The leading coin of *Greece* and the *Greek colonies* was the stater, so called because founded on a standard of weight generally received before the introduction of

coined money. There were double staters, and half, third, and quarter staters, the stater was equivalent in value to six of the silver pieces called drachmae. obolus was one-sixth of the drachma, at first struck in silver, in later times copper.

The inscriptions on the earliest Greek coins consist of a single letter, the initial of the city where they were struck. The remaining letters, or a portion of them, were afterwards added, the name, when in full, being in the genitive case. Monograms sometimes occur in addition to the name, or part name, of the place. The first coin bearing the name of a king is the tetradrachm (or piece of four drachmae) of Alexander I. of Macedon.

Among the early coins of Asia, one of the most celebrated is the stater Daricus or Darius, named from Darius Hystaspes. It had for symbol an archer kneeling on one knee, and seems to have been coined for the Greek colonies of Asia by their Persian conquerors. In the reign of Philip of Macedon, the coinage of Greece had attained its full development, having a perfect reverse. One of the earliest specimens of the complete coin is a beautiful medal struck at Syracuse, with the head of Proserpine accompanied by dolphins, and for reverse a victor in the Olympic games in a chariot receiving a wreath from Victory—a type which is also found on the reverse of the staters of Philip of Macedon, known as Phillips, and largely imitated by other states. Coins of Alexander the Great are abundant, many having been struck after his conquests in the Greek towns of Asia. A rose distinguishes those struck at Rhodes, a bee those struck at Ephesus, &c.; these are all types generally accompanying the figure of Zeus on the reverse; on the obverse is the head of Hercules, which has sometimes been supposed to be that of Alexander himself. It would rather seem, however, that the conqueror's immediate successors were the first who placed their portrait on the coins, and that under a shallow pretence of deification, Lysimachus as a descendant of Bacchus, and Seleucus of Apollo, clothed in the attributes of these deities. Two most beautiful and important series of Greek coins are those of the Seleucidæ, in Asia, of silver, and of the Lagidae or Ptolemies, in Egypt, of gold.

In Palestine there is an interesting series of coins founded on the religious history of the Jewish nation, and assigned to Simon Maccabæus. They are shekels and half-shekels, equivalent to two Attic drachmae and one drachma respectively. The shekels bear on the obverse the pot of manna, with the inscription "Schekel Israel" (the Shekel of Israel); on the reverse is Aaron's rod with three flowers, and the legend "Ieronuschalim kedoschah" (Jerusalem the Holy). The inscriptions are in the Samaritan character. The successors of Simon assumed the title of king, and placed their portraits on the coins, with inscriptions in Greek as well as in Hebrew.

Roman coins belong to three different series, known as the Republican, the Faunily, and the Imperial.

The so-called Republican, the earliest coinage, began at an early period of Roman history, and subsisted till about 80 B.C. Its standard metal was copper, or rather *as*, or bronze, an alloy of copper. The standard unit was the poundweight divided into twelve ounces. The *as* or *as*, or pound of bronze, is said to have received a state impress as early as the reign of Servius Tullius, 578 B.C. This gigantic piece was oblong like a brick, and stamped with the representation of an ox or sheep, whence the word *pecunia*, from *pecus*, cattle. The full pound of the *as* was gradually reduced, always retaining the twelve (nominally) uncial subdivisions, till its actual weight came to be no more than a quarter of an ounce. About the time when the *as* had diminished to nine ounces, the square form was exchanged for the circular. This large copper coin, called the "as grave," was not struck with the punch, but cast, and exhibited on the obverse the *Ianus bifrons*; and on the reverse, the prow of a ship, with the numeral I. Of the fractions of the *as*, the sextans, or sixth part, generally bears the head of Mercury, and the uncia, or ounce piece, that of Minerva; these pieces being further distinguished by dots or knobs, one for each ounce. There were circular pieces as high as the decussis, or piece of twelve asses, presenting a head of Roma (or Minerva), but none are known to have been coined till the weight of the *as* had diminished to four ounces. The Roman uncial coinage extended to the other states of Italy, where a variety of types were introduced, including mythological heads and animals. In the reign of Augustus, the *as* was virtually superseded by the sestertius, called by numismatists the

first bronze, about the size of our penny, which was at first of the value of  $\frac{1}{4}$ , afterwards of 4 asses. The sestertius derived its value from the silver denarius, of which it was the fourth. The half of the sestertius was the dupondius (known as the second bronze), and the half of the dupondius was called the assarion, an old name of the as. The assarion is known to numismatists as the third bronze.

Silver was first coined at Rome about 281 B.C., the standard being founded on the Greek drachma, then equivalent in value to ten asses; the new coin was therefore called a denarius, or piece of ten asses. The earliest silver coined at Rome has on the obverse the head of Roma (differing from Minerva by having wings attached to the helmet); on the reverse is a quadriga or biga, or the Dioscuri. Among various other types which occur in the silver of the Italian towns subject to Rome are the horse's head and galloping horse, both very beautiful. During the social war, the revolted states coined money independently of Rome, and used various devices to distinguish it as Italian and not Roman money.

The earliest gold coins seem to have been issued about 97 B.C., and consisted of the scrupulum, equivalent to 20 asses, and the double and triple scrupulum. These pieces bear the head of Mars on the obverse, and on the reverse an eagle standing on a thunderbolt, with the inscription "Roma" on the exergue. The large early republican coins were cast, not struck.

The Family Coins begin about 170 B.C., and about 60 B.C. they entirely supersede the coins first described. Those families who successively held offices connected with the public mint acquired the right first to inscribe their names on the money, afterwards to introduce symbols of events in their own family history. These types gradually superseded the natural ones; the portrait of an ancestor followed; and then the portrait of a living citizen, Julius Caesar.

Under the empire, the copper sestertius, which had displaced the as, continued the monetary standard. A magnificent series exists of the first bronzes of the emperors from Augustus to Gallienus. While it was the privilege of the emperors to coin gold and silver, copper could only be coined *ex senatus consulta*, which from the time of Augustus was expressed on the coins by the letters S.C., or EX S.C. The obverse of the imperial coins bears the portraits of the successive emperors, sometimes of the empress or other members of the imperial family; and the reverse represents some event, military or social, of the emperor's reign, sometimes allegorized. The emperor's name and title are inscribed on the obverse, and sometimes partly continued on the reverse; the inscription on the reverse generally relates to the subject delineated; and towards the close of the 3rd c. the exergue of the reverse is occupied by the name of the town where the coin is struck. The coins of Augustus and those of Livia, Antonia, and Agrippina the Elder have much artistic merit. The workmanship of Nero's sestertii is very beautiful. The coins of Vespasian and Titus commemorate the conquest of Judaea. The Colossus appears on a sestertius of Vespasian. The coins of Trajan are noted for their architectural types. Hadrian's coins commemorate his journeys. The coins and medals of Antonine, Marcus Aurelius, and the two Faustines are well executed; as are also those of Commodus, of whom a remarkable medallion relates to the conquest of Britain. There is a rapid failing off in design after the time of Commodus, and base silver comes extensively into use in the reign of Caracalla. Gallienus introduced the practice of coining money of copper washed with silver.

The colonial and provincial money of this period was very inferior to that coined in Rome. In the coins of the provinces which had been formed out of the Greek empire, the obverse bears the emperor's head, and the reverse generally the chief temple of the gods in the city of coining; the inscriptions are in Greek. In the imperial coins of Alexandria appear such characteristic devices as the heads of Jupiter Ammon, Isis, and Canopus, the sphinx, the serpent, the lotus, and the wheat-ear. Colonial coins were at first distinguished by a team of oxen, afterwards by banners, the number of which indicated the number of legions from which the colony had been drawn.

After the time of Gallienus, the colonial money and the Greek imperial money, except that of Alexandria, ceased, and much of the Roman coinage was executed in the provinces, the name of the town of issue appearing on the exergue. Diocletian introduced a new piece of money, called the follis, which became the chief coin of the lower empire. The first bronze has disappeared after Gallienus, and the second

disappears after Diocletian, the third bronze diminishing to 1-20th of an ounce. With the establishment of Christianity under Constantine, a few Christian types are introduced. The third bronze of that emperor has the Labarum (q. v.), with the monogram IHS. Large medallions, called *contorniati*, encircled with a deep groove, belong to this period, and seem to have been prizes for distribution at the public games. Pagan types recur on the coins of Julian; and after his time the third bronze disappears.

The money of the Byzantine empire forms a link between the subject of ancient and that of modern coins. The portrait of the emperor on the obverse is after the 10th c. supported by some protecting saint. The reverse has at first such types as Victory with a cross, afterwards a representation of the Saviour or the Virgin; in some instances, the Virgin supporting the walls of Constantinople. Latin is gradually superseded by Greek in the inscriptions, and wholly disappears by the time of Alexius I. The chief gold piece was the solidus or nomisma, which was long famed in commerce for its purity, and circulated largely in the west as well as the east of Europe.

Of the coins of the middle ages, the most important is the silver denier or penny, derived from the Latin denarius. Its half was the obole, first of silver, afterwards of billon. Coins of this description were issued in the German empire, France, England, and the Scandinavian states, and in many cases by ecclesiastical princes and feudal lords as well as sovereigns. The obverse of the regal coin of the early middle ages is generally the bust of the sovereign, and the reverse a Greek cross, accompanied by the royal name or title, and the place of mintage or the moneymaster (see MINT). The arms of the country were introduced in the 12th c., in conjunction with the cross, and afterwards superseded it. In the 13th and 14th centuries, coins began to be issued by free imperial cities or corporations of towns; and there prevailed extensively throughout Germany and other parts of Europe a thin piece called a bracteate, in relief on one side, and hollow on the other, often not bearing a single letter, and rarely a full inscription. Down to the 14th c., the relief of the medieval coins is very inconsiderable, the pieces thin, and the art poor.

Britain received the Roman money on its subjugation. Constantine seems to have had a mint in London, and the Roman currency continued to circulate for a time after the departure of the conquerors. The first independent coinage, however, shews hardly trace of the influence of Rome; it consists of two small coins, called the skeattæ and stycæ, the former of silver, the latter of copper. Both seem to belong solely to the Saxon kingdom of Northumbria; they are without inscriptions; a bird, a rude profile, and several unintelligible symbols appear on them, and their art is of the most debased kind. In the other kingdoms of the heptarchy silver pennies were coined, first intended to be 1-240th of a pound weight; on the disappearance of skeattæ and stycæ, they form, with the occasional addition of halfpennies, the sole currency of England down to the reign of Edward III. The pennies of the heptarchy bear the name of the king or of the moneymaster; a cross sometimes appears after the introduction of Christianity, and in later times a rude head of the king or queen. The pennies of the Saxon and Danish sole monarchs of England, have a somewhat similar character. Alfred's earlier coins have a grotesque-looking portrait, and on the reverse a monogram of London; in his later coins the head disappears, and a cross and circle take its place. A cross, variously ornamented with three pellets in each angle, continues to be the usual reverse of the Saxon, Norman, and Plantagenet coins. The coins of Edward III. are a great artistic advance on those that preceded them. The silver coinage of that king consisted not only of pennies, halfpennies, and farthings, but also of groats and half-groats. The obverse of the groat bears a conventional crowned head within a flowered circle of nine arches, the words "D·i Gratia" and the title "Rex Francie" appearing for the first time in the legend. The reverse has the motto "Posni Deu n adjutorem meum," which continued on the coinage till the time of Edward V. But the great numismatic feature of Edward III.'s reign is the issue of gold nobles, worth six shillings and eightpence. The obverse of those beautiful coins represent the king in a ship, a sword in his right hand, in his left a shield with the quartered arms of France and England. The reverse is a rich cross flory within a circle of eight arches, and a lion under a crown in each angle of the cross, the legend being "Ihesus antem transiens per medium illorum ibat." Half and quarter nobles were also coined. The noble having increased in value, a coin

called an angel, of the former value of a noble, was issued by Henry VI. and Edward IV. The obverse represented St Michael transfixing a dragon; the reverse a ship, with a cross for the mast.

As we approach the period of the Reformation, the coinage gradually becomes more ornate. The nobles coined by Edward IV., after the value of that coin had been fixed at ten shillings, were called rials (a name derived from a French coin), and the double rial or sovereign was first coined by Henry VII. The obverse has the king on his throne with sceptre and orb, and on the reverse, in the centre of a heraldic full-blown rose, is a shield with the arms of France and England. The testoon, or shilling, valued at twelve pence, also first appeared in this reign, with the royal profile crowned on the obverse, and the royal arms quartered by the cross on the reverse. A great debasement of the coinage took place in the reign of Henry VIII. The reverse of the farthings of that monarch bears a portcullis, that of the shillings a rose surmounted by a crown, and of the sovereigns, the royal arms supported by a lion and dragon. A noble was coined with St George and the dragon on the obverse, and on the reverse a ship with three crosses for masts, and a rose on the centre mast. On the coins of Henry VIII. the title "H: b: n: re: Rex" first appeared, former kings having only styled themselves "Dominus Hibernie," Ireland not being accounted a kingdom. Under Edward VI. the silver coins called crowns and half-crowns appear, having for device the king crowned on horseback in the armor of the period. They derived their name from coins circulating on the continent, which had for device a crown. The royal arms in an oval shield without the cross are introduced as the reverse of the shilling. From this period there is a very obvious decline in the artistic feeling of the English coins. On some of the shillings of Mary, her bust and that of Philip face each other, the in-ignis of Spain and England impaled occupying the reverse; afterwards the king's head occupies one side of the coin, and the queen's the other. Half-sovereigns, or rials, and angels were coined of the old type of Edward IV. The great event in the coinage of Elizabeth's reign was the temporary introduction of the mil and screw, instead of the hammer and punch, producing coins of a more regular and workmanlike appearance. The profile bust of James I., crowned and in armor, appears on his shillings and smaller pieces; on his crowns and half-crowns he is represented on horseback; on the reverse are the quartered arms of the three kingdoms (the harp of Ireland appearing for the first time on the coinage), with the motto "Quod Deus coniunctit nemo separabit." Copper farthings, with crown, sceptre, and sword on the obverse, and a harp on the reverse, were coined for England as well as Ireland, the first copper money issued in England since the stycia. Private tokens of copper, issued by tradesmen and others, had, however, been in circulation before, and came again into use to a large extent at a later period. Charles I. coined ten and twenty shilling pieces of silver, the former a very noble coin, with a representation of the king on horseback. A crown, struck at Oxford, bears on the obverse the king on horseback, with a representation of the town, and on the reverse the heads of the Oxford declaration. The guinea, first coined in this reign, was so called from the metal being procured from the coast of Guinea; its original value was but twenty shillings.

The coins of the Commonwealth exhibit a shield with the cross of St George surrounded by a palm and olive branch, and have for legend "The Commonwealth of England." On the reverse are two shields accolée, with the cross of St George and the harp of Ireland, and the motto "God with us." Coins far superior in character were executed by Cromwell, with his laureated bust and title as Protector, and on the reverse a crowned shield quartering the cross of St George, of St Andrew and the harp, with the Protector's paternal arms in surtout; but few of these were issued. In the early coins of Charles II., that monarch is crowned, and in the dress of the time; in his later money he is in conventionalised Roman drapery, with the head turned to the left, and from that time it has been the practice to turn every king's head the reverse way from that of his predecessor. The four shields on the reverse are disposed in the form of a cross (an arrangement which continued till the reign of George II.), and on the edge of the crowns and half-crowns is the legend "Decus et tutamen." Charles II. issued a copper coinage of halfpennies and farthings; on the former appears the device of Britannia, taken from the Roman coins relating to Britain. Pennies were not coined till George III.'s reign. The coins of William and Mary have the profiles of the king and

queen one over the other, and the shields of the three kingdoms in the form of a cross on the reverse, with Nassau in the centre. The coinage of William alone, after the death of Mary, is of somewhat improved design. Sir Isaac Newton being then Master of the Mint. Little change in the general design of the coin occurs in the reigns of Anne and George I. On the accession of the House of Hanover, the Hanoverian arms are placed in the fourth shield, and George IV. substituted a quartered shield with Nassau en surlout for the four shields on the reverse of his gold coins. During the greater part of George III.'s reign the coinage was utterly neglected, and the silver pieces in circulation were worn perfectly smooth. When coins were at last issued, the Roman conventionalism of the previous reigns gave way to a now fashionable Greek conventionalism. The quartered shield supplanted the four shields, and on the reverse of the crown appeared a Grecaitised St George and the dragon. George IV.'s bust is taken from Chantrey's statue; the rose, thistle, and shamrock, united under a crown, appear on the reverse of his shilling. Silver groats were issued in the reign of William IV. The ensigns of Hanover disappeared at the beginning of the present reign; the reverse of the shilling is even poorer than that of George IV., the words "One shilling," occupy the field, surrounded by an oak branch and a laurel branch; silver pieces of three-pence have been introduced. But the principal monetary event is the issue of the silver florin, in value equivalent to two shillings, looked on as a step towards the institution of a decimal coinage. It represents the head of the Queen crowned, with the legend in old English character, and for reverse the four shields are once more placed in the form of a cross.

No native Scottish coinage existed earlier than the 11th century. Coins are extant of Somerled, prince of the Isles of that century, and of Alexander I. of the century following. The silver pennies of William the Lion, and Alexander II. and III., are like contemporary English money, but ruder, and bear the names of the moneymen and place of mintage, generally Edinburgh, Perth, or Berwick. The profiles on the coins of John Balliol, Robert Bruce, and David II. are attempts at portraiture. A remarkable gold piece, first coined by Robert II., is the St Andrew, with the arms of Scotland on the obverse, and St Andrew on his cross on the reverse. In the four succeeding reigns the weight of the silver coins rapidly decreased, and coins of billon, or base metal, were issued, nominally pennies, but three and a half of which eventually passed for a silver penny. The evil increased, and baser and baser alloy was used. Groats of billon, known as placks and half-placks, were coined by James III. James IV.'s coins have a characteristic portrait, and a good deal of artistic feeling. James III. and IV. issued well-executed gold pieces, called unicorns and riders, the type of the one being the unicorn, of the other the king on horseback. A still more beautiful coin was the gold bonnet piece of James V., so called from the cap in the king's portrait. Of Mary, there are a great variety of interesting pieces. The portrait is sometimes crowned, sometimes uncrowned, and on the coin issued soon after Francis's death, has a widow's cap and high-frilled dress. The types in James VI.'s reign are also very various. On his accession to the English throne, the relative value of English and Scottish coins was declared to be as 12 to 1. The coins afterwards issued from the Scottish mint differed from the English, chiefly in having Scotland in the first quarter in the royal shield. The last Scottish gold coinage consisted of pistoles and half-pistoles of Darien gold, about the size of a guinea and half-guinea, struck by William III.; the pistole distinguished by a rising sun under the bust of the king.

The coinage of Ireland is scanty and uninteresting compared with that of Scotland. The coins of English monarchs struck in Dublin resemble much those current in England. Henry VIII. first placed a harp on the Irish coins.

In France, the earliest coins are those of the Merovingian kings, rude imitations of the late Roman and early Byzantine money, and mostly of gold. Under the Carolingian dynasty, deniers and oboles are the prevailing coinage, remarkably rude in fabric, without portrait, and bearing the name of the king and place of mintage. Some coins of Charlemagne, struck at Rome, are of better workmanship. They contain one letter of "Roma" at each extremity of the cross, with the legend "Carolus IP." The coinage improved under the Capetian kings; the fleur-de-lis appears in addition to the cross. In the 13th c. gold pieces were issued, and in the time of Philip VI. both the d sign and the execution of the coins are beautiful. The coins of Louis XII. are the first that bear the royal portrait. The modern coinage

may be said to begin under Henry II., whose portrait is good. The seigniorial coins of France in the middle ages are of considerable importance, and the medals of Louis XIV. and Napoleon I. are much more interesting than the modern coins.

The medieval coinage of Italy is of great interest. The money of the Lombard kings of Italy and Dukes of Benevento, is little inferior to that of the Greek emperors. There is a beautiful series of gold and silver pieces belonging to Venice, bearing the names of the doges, and having generally for type the doge receiving the gonfalon, or standard of St. Mark. The gold florins of Florence, with the lily for device, are no less celebrated, and were imitated by other states. Florence had also a remarkable series of medals, with admirable portraits of persons of note. The coins of the popes, from Hadrian I. down to the 14th c., bear the name of the pope and emperor of the west; those of later date are beautiful in execution, and have seated portraits of the pontiffs, with the cross-keys and mitre for reverse. A remarkable series of medals commemorates the chief events of each reign, one of which, struck after the massacre of St. Bartholomew, has for type an angel slaying the Huguenots, and the inscription "Urgonotorum strages." The coins of the Norman princes of Naples struck in Sicily, have the legends partly or wholly in Arabic. Malta has a series, with the arms and effigies of the grand-masters.

The medieval money of Germany comprises coins of the emperors, the electors, the smaller princes, the religious houses, and the towns. The imperial series is extensive and very interesting, though, till near the close of the middle ages, it is rather backward in its art. About the Reformation period, however, there are vigorous portraits both on its current coins and on the medals, and those double dollars which are virtually medals. The coins of the Dukes of Saxony, with their portraits, are equally remarkable. The coins of the archbishops of Cologne, Mainz, and Treves form a very interesting series, the first more especially, with a representation of the cathedral.

The coins of the Low Countries resemble those of France and Germany. The Dutch medals are of interest, more especially those struck in commemoration of events in the war with Spain.

The coins of the Swiss cantons and towns during the early period of Swiss independence bore the heraldic shield of each, drawn with vigorous grotesqueness. There are also pieces struck by ecclesiastical lords, and by different families who had a right of coinage.

The coins of Spain begin with those of the Gothic princes, which are chiefly of gold, and on the model of the trientes and semisses of the lower empire. Some of the early pieces have a rude head of the monarch on one side, and of the emperor on the other. Afterwards, the obverse bears the profile of the monarch, and the reverse a cross of some description, with the name of the place of mintage, and the word "Pius" for legend. In later times, there are two interesting series of coins belonging to the kingdom of Aragon and to the kingdom of Castile and Leon.

The coinages of Norway and Sweden at first resembled the British, and afterwards the German type. From the 10th to the 14th c., bracteates were issued by the ecclesiastics. The coinage of Hungary begins in the 11th c., and has the portraits of the monarchs. The Russian coinage is Byzantine in character, and rude in its art. The earliest pieces are the silver darga of the 14th c., of an oblong shape, with representations of the prince on horseback, and various legendary subjects. Peter the Great introduced the usual European type. There is an important series of bronze coins of the Crusaders, beginning with Tancred, and coming down to the end of the 15th c., including money of the kings of Cyprus and Jerusalem, and other princes established in the east.

In India, the succession of the kings of Bactria, the remotest of the dynasties founded on the ruins of Alexander's empire, has only become known through their recently-discovered coins. There are early rude Hindu coins of the Gupta line, with figures of the Brahminical divinities of a type still in use.

Of the coins of the Mohammedan princes, the oldest gold pieces are the bilingual coins of cities of Syria and Palestine, of the middle of the 7th c. (A.H. 78), barbarous imitations of the latest Byzantine money of Alexandria. Most of the Mohammedan coins are covered exclusively by inscriptions expressive of the elementary principles of the Mohammedan faith. For some centuries, no sovereign except the calif was

allowed to inscribe his name on the coin. Large gold coins of great purity were issued by the Moorish kings of Granada in Spain.

The high prices given for ancient coins have led to numerous forgeries from the 18th c. downwards. Against such imitations, collectors require to be on their guard.

Among the best works on numismatics are Eckhe<sup>t</sup>, "Doctrina Numorum Veterum" (Vienna, 1792—1798); Hennin, "Manuel de Numismatique Ancienne" (Paris, 1830); Grasset, "Handbuch der alten Numismatik" (Leipzig, 1852—1858); Leake, "Numismata Hellenica" (London, 1854); Ruding's "Annals of the Coinage of Great Britain" (London, 1840); Lindsey's "View of the Coinage of Scotland" (Cork, 1845); Leblanc, "Traité Historique des Monnaies de France" (Paris, 1890); Cappe, "Die Münzen der Deutschen Kaiser und Könige des Mittelalters" (Dresden, 1848—1850); Marsden, "Numismata Orientalia Illustrata" (London, 1823—1825).

NU'MMULITE LIMESTONE, an important member of the Middle Eocene period, consisting of limestone composed of nummulites held together by a matrix formed of the comminuted particles of their shells, and of smaller foraminifera. It forms immense masses of the strata which are raised up on the sides of the Alps and Himalayas, and may be traced as a broad band often 1800 miles in breadth, and frequently of enormous thickness, from the Atlantic shores of Europe and Africa, through Western Asia, to Northern India and China. It is known also to cover vast areas in North America.

NUMMULITES, or Nummulina (Gr. money-fossil), a genus of fossil foraminifera, the shells of which form immense masses of rock of Eocene age. See NUMMULITE LIMESTONE. Upwards of 50 species have been described. They are circular bodies of a lenticular shape, varying in magnitude from the merest point to the size of a crown-piece. The shell is composed of a series of small chambers arranged in a concentric manner. The growth of the shell does not take place only around the circumference, but each whorl invests all the preceding whorls, so as to form a new layer over the entire surface of the disk, thus adding to the thickness as well as the breadth, and giving the fossil its lenticular form. A thin intervening space separates each layer from the one which it covers, and this space at the margin swells out to form the chamber. All the internal cavities, however, seem to have been occupied with the living sarcodite, and an intimate connection was maintained between them by means of innumerable parallel tubuli, which everywhere pass from one surface to another, and which permitted the passage of the sarcodite as freely as do the minute pores or foramina of the living foraminifera.

The name is given to them from their resemblance to coins. In Egypt, where the whole of the Mokkadam Mountains, from the stone of which the pyramids were built, is formed of them, they are called by the natives "Pharaoh's Pence."

NUN, a member of a religious order of women. The etymology of this name is a subject of some controversy, but there seems every reason to believe that it is from a Coptic or Egyptian root, which signifies "virgin." It is found in use as a Latin word as early as the time of St Jerome ("Ep. to Eustachius," p. 22, c. 6). The general characteristics of the religious orders will be found under the head MONACHISM (q. v.), and under those of the several orders. It is only necessary here to specify a few particulars peculiar to the religious orders of females. Of these the most striking perhaps is the strictness in the regularly authorised orders of nuns of the "cloister," or enclosure, which no extern is ever permitted to enter, and beyond which the nuns are never permitted to pass, without express leave of the bishop. The superiors of convents of nuns are called by the names Abbess, Prioress, and, in general, Mother Superior. They are, ordinarily speaking, elected by chapters of their own body, with the approval of the bishop, unless the convent be one of the class called exempt houses, which are immediately subject to the authority of the Holy See. The ceremony of the solemn blessing or inauguration of the abbess is reserved to the bishop, or to a priest delegated by the bishop. The authority of the abbess over her nuns is very comprehensive, but a precise line is drawn between her powers and those of the priestly office, from which she is strictly debarred. The name of nun is given in general to the sisters of all religious congregations of females who live in retirement and are bound by rule; but it is primarily and

properly applicable only to sisters of the religious orders strictly so-called. See MONACHISM.

NUNC DIMI'TTIS, the name given to the canticle of Simeon (Luke ii. 29-32), which forms part of the compline office of the Roman Breviary, and is retained in the evening service of the Anglican Church when it follows the second lesson. On the great festivals in Lent, the music of this canticle is especially grand and imposing.

NU'NCIO (Ital. *nunzio*, Lat. *nuncius*, a messenger), the name given to the superior grade of the ambassadors sent by the pope to foreign courts, who are all called by the general name of LEGATE (q. v.). A nuncio is an ambassador to the court of an emperor or king. The ambassador to a republic, or to the court of a minor sovereign, is called INTERNUNCIO.

NUNCU'PATIVE WILL is a will made by word of mouth. As a general rule, no will is valid unless it is in writing and signed by the testator; but in cases of soldiers and sailors, a verbal or inquisitive will is held to be good, on the ground that there is often no time to draw up a formal will in writing.

NUNEA'TON, a small market-town of England, in the county of Warwick, and 18 miles north-east of the town of that name. It contains a small parish church in Gothic, and its Free Grammar School, founded by Edward VI. in 1553, has an annual income from endowment of about £300. Manufactures of ribbons and cotton goods are carried on. Pop. (1871) 7000.

NUNQUAM INDE'BITATUS, in English Law, means a plea or defence to an action for a debt that the defendant never was indebted; in other words, that no debt is due.

NURAGHE, the name of certain structures, of conical shape, in the island of Sardinia, rising 80 or 40 feet above the ground, with two or three stories of domed chambers connected by a spiral staircase. Some are raised on basements of masonry, or platforms of earth. They are made of granite limestone, basalt, porphyry, sandstone, and schist. Their entrances are small and low, and when they have chambers of two stories, the upper chamber is reached by the spiral staircase which has loopholes to admit the light. The tops are supposed to have had a terrace. Although 3000 of them exist, none are perfect. Their masonry is irregular, but not polygonal, and resembles the style of work called Asiatic. Like the round towers of Ireland, and other uninscribed monuments, their object and antiquity are enveloped in much doubt. They have been supposed to be the work of the Pelasgi, the Phœnicians, or Carthaginians, and to have been ancient sepulchres, *Tholi* or *Daedalia*, constructed in heroic times. Skeletons, and other funeral paraphernalia, have been found in them. They have many points of resemblance to the "Burghs" or "Duns" on the northern shores of Scotland, of which the Burgh of Monsa, in Shetland, is perhaps the best example.—De la Marmora, "Voyage en Sardaigne," tom. ii.; Petit Radel, "Nuraghe" (Paris, 1826-1828); Micali, "Ant. Pop. Ital." ii. p. 43; Dennis, "Cities and Cem. of Etruria," ii. p. 161.

NU'RNBURG (*Norimberga, Norica*), a fortified city of the Bavarian province of Middle Franconia, situated in  $49^{\circ} 28'$  n. lat., and  $11^{\circ} 5'$  e. long. Pop. (1871) 80,000; (1875) 91,017. N. is one of the most remarkable and interesting cities of Germany, on account of the numerous remains of medieval architecture which it presents in its picturesque streets, with their gabled houses, stone balconies, and quaint carvings. No city retains a stronger impress of the characteristics which distinguished the wealthy burgher-class in the middle ages, while its double lines of fortified walls, separated from each other by public walks and gardens, and guarded by 70 towers, together with the numerous bridges which span the Pegnitz, on whose banks the city is built, give it distinctive features of its own. Among the most remarkable of its numerous public buildings are the old palace or castle, commanding, from its high position, a glorious view of the surrounding country, and interesting for its antiquity, and for its gallery of paintings, rich in gems of early German art; the town-hall, which ranks amongst the noblest of its kind in Germany, and is adorned with works of Albert Dürer, and Gabriel Weyher; the noble Gothic fountain opposite the cathedral by Schonhofer, with its numerous groups of figures, beautifully restored in modern times; and

many other fountains deserving notice. Of the numerous churches of N., the following are the most remarkable: St Lawrence, built between 1270—1478, with its beautiful painted-glass windows, its noble towers and doorway, and the celebrated stone pyx, completed in 1500, by Adam Kraft, after five years assiduous labor; and the exquisite wood-carvings of Veit Stoss; St Sebald's, with its numerous fine glass-paintings and frescoes by Peter Vischer and other German masters; the cathedral, or Our Lady's, built in 1681, similarly enriched. N. is well provided with educational establishments, and besides a good gymnasium and polytechnic institution, has good schools of art, normal and other training colleges, a public library of 50,000 vols., galleries of art collections, museums, &c.; while the numerous institutions of benevolence are liberally endowed and well maintained. Although the glory of the foreign commerce of N. may be said to have been long extinct, its home trade, which is still of considerable importance, includes the specialities of metal, wood and bone carvings, and children's toys and dolls, which find a ready sale in every part of Europe, and are largely exported to America and the East. In addition to its own industrial commerce, is the seat of a large transfer and exchange business, which owes much of its importance to the facilities of inter-communication afforded by the net-work of railway lines with which the city is connected.

N. was raised to the rank of a free imperial city by the Emperor Henry V., in 1219, previous to which time, Henry IV. had ennobled 38 of the principal burgher families, who forthwith arrogated to themselves supreme power over the N. territory. In the 13th c., we find it under the title of a burggraviate in the hands of the Hohenzollern family, who, in 1417, ceded for a sum of money all their territorial and manorial rights to the magistracy of the city. This measure put a stop to the feuds which had hitherto raged between the burggrafs and the municipality, and for a time N. continued to grow rich with the fruits of the great internal trade, which it had long maintained between the traders of the East and the other European marts of commerce. The discovery of the passage by the Cape of Good Hope by opening new channels of communication between Asia and Europe, deprived N. of its ancient monopoly. The Thirty Years' War completed the decay of the city, which suffered severely from both parties in turn. The ancient reputation of N. as a wealthy and loyal city of Germany secured to it, however, special consideration; and in 1806, when the imperial commissioners reorganized some of the dismembered parts of the old empire, it was allowed to retain its independence, with a territory of 453 square miles, containing 40,000 inhabitants, and drawing a revenue of 800,000 guildens; but in consequence of the disputes in which the free city became involved with the king of Prussia, who had some hereditary claim on the ancient burggraviate, N., alarmed at the prospect of still greater embarrassments, entered into the Rhenish Confederation, and as the result of this alliance, was transferred, in 1806, with the surrender of its entire domain and all rights of sovereignty, to the king of Bavaria.

**NURSE, Military.** In continental armies, the "sisters of charity" usually carry their mission of mercy into the military hospitals. Protestant England having no such organisation to fall back upon, the soldiers have been dependent on the regular male hospital attendants for their care during sickness, or when suffering from wounds. The Crimean campaign, however, disclosed so melancholy a picture of the want of women's co-operation, that a band of self-sacrificing ladies, headed by Miss Nightingale (q. v.), proceeded to Turkey, and were soon acknowledged as messengers of health and life by the unfortunate wounded. The example thus set has not been without effect. In the Franco-German war of 1870—1871, lady-nurses of various nations ministered in all the military hospitals, tending impartially the numerous wounded of both sides.

**NU'RSERY,** a garden or portion of a garden devoted to the raising of young plants, to be afterwards planted elsewhere. The ripening of garden seeds for sale is generally also an important part of the trade of the public nurseryman. Many culinary vegetables are very commonly raised from seed in public nurseries, and sold as young plants; the trouble of raising them in small gardens being found too great, although, when there is no public nursery at hand, even the cottage-gardener may be compelled to undertake this trouble for himself, in order to procure a

upply of young kale, cabbage, cauliflower, &c., in fresh and healthful condition. Many flowering plants, as wallflower, stock, sweet-william, &c., are also raised and sold by nurserymen. Another great use of the nursery is the rearing of fruit-trees. In the nursery, the stocks are raised from seed, the grafting is performed, and the training of the young tree, whether for standard, espalier, or wall-tree, is begun. As, with regard to fruit-trees, the selection of grafts is of the utmost importance, the reputation of the nurseryman is particularly to be considered by the purchaser; nor is there any trade in which this is more generally necessary, months, or sometimes years elapsing before the quality of the goods purchased can be experimentally ascertained. The principal, and many of the smaller towns of Britain are well supplied with public nurseries, which is the case also in many countries of continental Europe and in North America. Some of these nurseries are on a very great scale, as those of Messrs Loddiges of London, Lawson of Edinburgh, and Booth of Hamburg. The largest nurseries, however, are very much devoted to the rearing of ornamental shrubs and trees, and of forest-trees. Plantations of forest-trees, even when very extensive, are now generally, although not always, made with plants obtained from public nurseries. The exertions made by nurserymen to obtain new plants from foreign countries, have contributed much, not only to the advancement of gardening in its various departments, and of arboriculture, but also of botany.—Much benefit also results from the exchange of the produce of the nurseries of different countries. Thus, bulbous roots are brought to Britain from Holland, from what may be described as nurseries specially devoted to them; roses and orange-trees are imported from the nurseries of France, &c. It often happens that seeds imported from climates more thoroughly adapted to the plants, produce better crops than those raised in a colder climate or under a cloudier sky.

NUT, in popular language, is the name given to all those fruits which have the seed enclosed in a bony, woody, or leathery pericarp, not opening when ripe. Amongst the best known and most valuable nuts are the Hazel-nut, Brazil-nut, Walnut, Chestnut, and Cocoa-nut, all of which are edible. Other nuts are used in medicine, and for purposes connected with the arts. Some of the edible nuts abound in a bland oil, which is used for various purposes. In Botany, the term nut (*nux*) is used to designate a one-celled fruit, with a hardened pericarp, containing, when mature, only one seed. The *Achenium* (q. v.) was by the older botanists generally included in this term. Some of the fruits to which it is popularly applied scarcely receive it as their popular designation. The hazl-nut is an excellent example of the true nut of botanists. The name nut, without distinctive prefix, is popularly given in Britain to the hazel-nut, but in many parts of Europe to the walnut.

Many nuts have a considerable commercial value, from their being favorite articles of food: these are the Hazel-nut and its varieties, the Black Spanish, the Barcelona, the Smyrna, the Jerusalem filbert, and the common filbert; the Walnut, Chestnut, Hickory, and Pecan; the Souari, the Cocoa or Coker nuts, and the Brazil or Para nut.

The Barcelona and Black Spanish, as their names imply, are from Spain; the former is the commonest nut of our shops. About 120,000 bags, averaging  $1\frac{1}{4}$  bushel each, or 150,000 bushels, are annually imported into Great Britain. The import value is about 33s. per bag. They are always kiln-dried when we receive them. This is not the case with the black Spanish, of which only about 12,500 three-bushel bags, or about 37,000 bushels, are imported in the beginning of the season, when their value is about 14s. per bushel. From the Black Sea we receive annually about 68,000 bushels of hazel-nuts, worth 10s. per bushel, with from 500 to 1000 bags of the so-called Jerusalem and Mount Atlas filberts. Of chestnuts from Leghorn, Naples, Spain, France and Portugal, we receive annually about 20,000 bushels. The trade in walnuts is very uncertain, and probably never exceeds 5000 bushels. Of the curious three-cornered or Brazil nut from Para and Maranhão, the importation is also very irregular, varying from 800 to 1000 tons, or 1200 to 4000 bushels per annum. About two millions of cocoa-nuts are also imported. The other kinds of nuts are too irregular in their importations to supply any reliable statistics. The annual value of all the nuts imported for use as fruit is computed at about £153,000.

NUTATION is a slight oscillatory movement of the earth's axis, which disturbs

the otherwise circular path described by the pole of the earth round that of the ecliptic, known as the "precession of the equinoxes." It is produced by the same causes, viz., the attraction of the sun, moon, and planets (the attraction of the last mentioned being so small as to be quite imperceptible) upon the bulging zone about the earth's equator, though in this case it is the moon alone that is the effective agent. It also, for reasons which need not be given here, depends, for the most part, not upon the position of the moon in her orbit, but of the moon's node. If there was no precession of the equinoxes, nutation would appear as a small elliptical motion of the earth's axis, performed in the same time as the moon's nodes take to complete a revolution, the axis of the ellipse being respectively  $18^{\circ} 5'$  and  $13^{\circ} 7'$ , the longer axis being directed towards the pole of the ecliptic. But this motion, when combined with the more rapid one of precession, causes the pole of the earth's axis to describe a wavy line round the pole of the ecliptic.

The effect of nutation, when referred to the equator and ecliptic, is to produce a periodical change in the obliquity of the ecliptic, and in the velocity of retrogradation of the equinoctial points. It thus gives rise to the distinction of "apparent" from "mean" right ascension and declination, the former involving, and the latter being freed from the fluctuations arising from nutation. This motion is common to all the planets.

**NUT-CRACKER** (*Nucifraga* or *Caryocatactes*), a genus of birds of the family *Corvidae*, with a straight conical bill, both mandibles terminating in an obtuse point, and tail nearly square at the end. The form and characters are nearly similar to those of crows, but the habits are rather those of jays, and in some respects indicate an approach to woodpeckers. One species (*N. caryocatactes* or *C. nucifraga*), is occasionally seen in Britain, and is not uncommon in many parts of Europe and of Asia, particularly in mountainous regions covered with pines. It is about the size of a jackdaw, but has a longer tail. The plumage is light brown, speckled with white, except on the wings, rump, and tail, which are nearly black. The *N.* frequents the tops of high pines, and is a shy bird.

**NUT-HATCH** (*Sitta*), a genus of birds of the family *Certhiidae*, having a straight conical or prismatic bill, short legs, the hind-toe very strong. They run up and down trees with great agility, moving with equal ease in either direction, and without hopping, so that the motion is rather like that of a mouse than of a bird. They feed on insects, in pursuit of which they examine the crevices, and remove the scales of the bark; also on seeds, as those of pines, and the kernels of nuts, to obtain which they fasten the nut firmly in some crevice of bark or other such situation, and peck at it until the shell is broken, so placing themselves that they sway not merely the head, but the whole body, to give force to the stroke. The English name is said to have been originally *Nut-hack*. One species, the *EUROPEAN N.* (*S. Europaea*), is common in most parts of Europe, and is found in most of the wooded districts of England. Its whole length is about six inches. If taken young, it is easily tamed, and becomes very familiar and amusing; but an old bird caught and put into a cage, is apt to kill itself by violently pecking to force a way out. It soon destroys the wood of a cage.—Other species are found in the East and in North America, where the genus is particularly abundant. Birds nearly allied are found in Australia.

**NUTMEG.** This well-known and favorite spice is the kernel—mostly consisting of the albumen—of the fruit of several species of *Myristica*. This genus belongs to a natural order of exogens called *Myristicaceæ*, which contains about forty species, all tropical trees or shrubs, natives of Asia, Madagascar, and America. They generally have red juice, or a juice which becomes red on exposure to air. The order is allied to *Lauraceæ*. The leaves are alternate and without stipules. The flowers are unisexual, the perianth generally trifid, the filaments united into a column. The fruit is succulent, yet opens like a capsule by two valves. The seed is nut-like, covered with a lucidated fleshy aril, and has an albumen penetrated by its membranous covering. The species of this order are generally more or less aromatic in all their parts; their juice is styptic and somewhat acrid; the albumen and aril contain both a fixed and an essential oil, and those of some species are used as spices. The genus *Myristica* has the anthers united in cylindrical column, and the cotyledons folded. The species which furnishes the greater part of the nutmegs of commerce is *M. gra-*

*grans or moschata*; but the long N. (*M. satua*), from the Banda Isles, is now not uncommon in our markets. The common N-tree is about 25 feet in height, with oblong leaves, and axillary few-flowered racemes; the fruit is of the size and appearance of a roundish pear, golden yellow in color when ripe. The fleshy part of the fruit is rather hard, and is of a peculiar consistency, resembling candied fruit; it is often preserved and eaten as a sweetmeat. Within is the nut, enveloped in the curious yellowish-red aril, the *Mace* (q. v.), under which is a thin shining brown shell, slightly grooved by the pressure of the mace, and within is the kernel or nutmeg. Up to 1796, the Dutch being the possessors of the Banda Isles, jealously prevented the N. from being carried in a living state to any other place; but during the conquest and retention of the islands by the British, care was taken to spread the culture of this valuable spice, and plants were sent to Penang, India, and other places, where they are now successfully cultivated; indeed, they have now become established in the West India Islands, and both Jamaica and Trinidad produce excellent nutmegs. Brazil is also found favorable to their culture. The N. is very liable to the attack of a beetle, which is very destructive, and it is a common practice to give them a coating of lime before shipping them to Europe, in order to protect them from its ravages. The Dutch or Batavian nutmegs are nearly always lined, but those from Penang are not, and are consequently of a greater value. The N. yields, by expression, a peculiar yellow fat, called oil of mace, because, from its color and flavor, it was generally supposed to be derived from mace; and by distillation is obtained an almost colorless essential oil, which has very fully the flavor of the nutmeg. Her own settlements now furnish Great Britain with the greater portion of this spice, but some lots of Batavian also come into the market. The quantity imported may be stated as 300,000 pounds' weight, worth, in round numbers, £70,000.

Nutmegs are chiefly used as a spice; but medicinally they are stimulant and carminative. They possess narcotic properties, and in large doses produce stupefaction and delirium, so that they ought not to be used where affections of the brain exist or are apprehended.

Other species of *Myristica*, besides those already named, yield nutmegs sometimes used, but of very inferior quality.—The fruits of several species of *Lauraceæ* also resemble nutmegs in their aromatic and other properties; as the cotyledons of *Nectandra Pucheria*, the Pichurim Beans of Commerce, and the fruit of *Aerodictidium camara*, a tree of Guiana, the Camara or Ackawui nutmeg. The clove nutmegs of Madagascar are the fruit of *Agathophyllum aromaticum*, and the Brazilian nutmegs of *Cryptocarya moschata*. All these belong to the order *Lauraceæ*. The Calabash N. is the fruit of *Monodora myristica*, of the natural order *Anonaceæ*.

#### NU'TRIA. See COYPU and RACOONDA.

**NUTRITION.** The blood which is carried by the capillaries to the several tissues of the body is the source from whence all the organs derive the materials of their growth and development; and it is found that there is direct proportion between the vascularity of any part and the activity of the nutrient operations which take place in it. Thus, in nervous tissue and muscle, in mucous membrane and in skin, a rapid decay and renovation of tissue are constantly going on, and these are parts in which the capillaries are the most abundant; while in cartilage and bone, tendon and ligament, the disintegration of tissue is comparatively slow, and the capillaries are much less abundant. Each elementary cell or particle of a tissue seems to have a sort of gland-like power not only of attracting materials from the blood, but of causing them to assume its structure, and participate in its properties. Thus, from the same common source, nerves form nervous tissue, muscles muscular substance, and even morbid growths, such as cancer, have an assimilating power.

Before entering further into the subject of nutrition, it is necessary to understand how it differs from the allied processes of development and growth. All these processes are the results of the plastic or assimilative force by which living bodies are able to form themselves from dissimilar materials (as when an animal subsists on vegetables, or when a plant grows by appropriating the elements of water, carbonic acid, and ammonia); but they are the results of this force acting under different conditions.

Development is the process by which each tissue or organ of a living body is first formed, or by which one, being already incompletely formed, is so changed in shape and composition, as to be fitted for a function of a higher kind, or finally is advanced to the state in which it exists in the most perfect condition of the species.

Growth, which commonly concurs with development, and continues after it, is properly mere increase of a part by the insertion or superaddition of materials similar to those of which it already consists. In growth, properly so called, no change of form or composition occurs; parts only increase in weight, and usually in size; and if they acquire more power, it is only more power of the same kind as that which they before enjoyed.

Nutrition, on the other hand, is the process by which the various parts are maintained in the same general conditions of form, size and composition, which they have already by development and growth attained. It is by this process that an adult person in health maintains for a considerable number of years the same general outline of features, and nearly the same size and weight, although during all this time the several tissues of his body are undergoing perpetual decay and renovation. In many parts, this removal and renewal of the particles is evident. In the glands—the Kidneys (q. v.), for example—the cells of which they are mainly composed are being constantly cast off; yet each gland maintains its form and proper composition, because for every cell that is thrown off, a new one is produced. In the epidermis of the skin, a similar process is perpetually going on before our eyes. In the muscles, a similar change may be readily traced, for, within certain limits, an increased amount of exercise is directly followed by an increased excretion of the ordinary products of the decomposition of the nitrogenous tissues—viz., urea, carbonic acid, and water. Again, after prolonged mental exertion, there is often a very marked increase in the amount of alkaline phosphates in the urine, which seems to shew that in these cases there is an excessive oxidation of the phosphorus of the brain; and yet, in consequence of the activity of the reparative process, neither the muscles nor the brain diminish in size.

It may be regarded as an established fact in physiology, that every particle of the body is formed for a certain period of existence in the ordinary conditions of active life, at the end of which period, if not previously destroyed by excessive exercise, it is absorbed or dies, and is cast off. (The hair and deciduous or milk teeth afford good illustrations of this law.) The less a part is exercised, the longer its component particles appear to live. Thus, Mr Paget found that, if the general development of the tadpole be retarded by keeping it in a cold, dark place, and if hereby the functions of the blood corpuscles be slowly and imperfectly discharged, the animal will retain its embryonic state for several weeks longer than usual, and the development of the second set of corpuscles will be proportionally postponed, while the individual life of the corpuscles of the first set will be, by the same time, prolonged.

For the due performance of the function of nutrition, certain conditions are necessary, of which the most important are—1, a right state and composition of the blood, from which the materials of nutrition are derived; 2, a regular and not far distant supply of such blood; 3, a certain influence of the nervous system; and 4, a natural state of the part to be nourished.

1. There must be a certain adaptation peculiar to each individual between the blood and the tissues. Such an adaptation is determined in its first formation, and is maintained in the concurrent development and increase of both blood and tissues. This maintenance of the sameness of the blood is well illustrated by the action of vaccine matter. By the insertion of the most minute portion of the virus into the system, the blood undergoes an alteration which, although it must be inconceivably slight, is maintained for several years; for even very long after a successful vaccination, a second insertion of the virus may have no effect, because the new blood formed after the vaccination continues to be made similar to the blood as altered by the vaccine matter. So, in all probability, are maintained the morbid states of the blood which exist in syphilis and many other chronic diseases; the blood once inoculated, retaining for years the taint which it once received. The power of assimilation which the blood exercises in these cases is exactly comparable with that of maintenance by nutrition in the tissues; and evidence of the adaptation between the blood and the tissues, and of the delicacy of the adjustment by which it is main-

tained, is afforded by the phenomena of symmetrical diseases (especially of the skin and bones), in which, in consequence of some morbid condition of the blood, a change of structure affects in an exactly similar way the precisely corresponding parts on the two sides of the body, and no other parts of even the same tissue. These phenomena (of which numerous examples are given in two papers by Dr W. Budi and Mr Paget in the 25th volume of the "Medico-chirurgical Transactions") can only be explained on the assumption—1st, of the complete and peculiar identity in composition in corresponding parts of opposite sides of the body; and 2dly, of so precise and complete an adaptation between the blood and the several parts of each tissue, that a morbid material being present in the blood, may destroy its fitness for the nutrition of one or two portions of a tissue, without affecting its fitness for the maintenance of the other portions of the same tissue. If, then, the blood can be fit for the maintenance of one part, and unfit for the maintenance of another part of the same tissue (as the skin or bone), how precise must be that adaptation of the blood to the whole body, by which in health it is always capable of maintaining all the different parts of the numerous organs and tissues in a state of integrity.

2. The necessity of an adequate supply of appropriate blood in or near the part to be nourished, is shewn in the frequent examples of atrophy of parts to which too little blood is sent, of mortification when the supply of blood is entirely cut off, and of defective nutrition when the blood is stagnant in a part. The blood-vessels themselves take no share in the process, except as the carriers of the nutritive matter; and provided they come so near that the latter may pass by imbibition, it is comparatively unimportant whether they ramify within the substance of the tissue, or (as in the case of the non-vascular tissues, such as the epidermis, cornea, &c.) are distributed only over its surface or border.

3. Numerous cases of various kinds might be readily adduced to prove that a certain influence of the nervous system is essential to healthy nutrition. Injuries of the spinal cord are not unfrequently followed by mortification of portions of the paralysed parts; and both experiments and clinical cases shew that the repair of injuries takes place less completely in parts paralysed by lesion of the spinal cord than in ordinary cases. Division of the trunk of the trigeminal nerve has been followed by incomplete nutrition of the corresponding side of the face, and ulceration of the cornea is a frequent consequence of the operation.

4. The fourth condition is so obvious as to require no special illustration.

For further information on this most important department of physiology, the reader is referred to Mr Paget's "Surgical Pathology," or to his original lectures on Nutrition, Hypertrophy, and Atrophy (published in volume 39 of "The Medical Gazette"), or to the chapter on "Nutrition and Growth," in Kirke's "Handbook of Physiology," which contains an excellent abstract of Mr Paget's views, and to which we are indebted for the greater part of this article.

**NUX VOMICA** is the pharmacopeial name of the seed of *Strychnos Nux Vomica*, or *Poison Nut*. The following are the characters of these seeds, which are imported from the East Indies: "Nearly circular and flat, about an inch in diameter, umbilicated and slightly convex on one side, externally of an ash-gray color, thickly covered with short satiny hairs, internally translucent, tough and horny, taste intensely bitter, inodorous."—"The British Pharmacopœia," p. 99.

For the genuine characters, see the article **STRYCHNOS**.—The N. V. tree is a native of Coromandel, Ceylon, and other parts of the East Indies. It is a tree of moderate size, with roundish-oblong, stalked, smooth leaves, and terminal corymbs. The fruit is a globular berry, about as large as a small orange, one-celled, with a brittle shell, and several seeds lodged in a white gelatinous pulp.—The bark is known as *False Angostura Bark*, having been confounded with *Angostura Bark*, in consequence of a commercial fraud, about the beginning of the present c.; but its properties are very different, as it is very poisonous.

The seeds contain (in addition to inert matters, such as gum, starch, woody fibre &c.) three alkaloids closely related to each other, which act as powerful poisons on the animal frame, and speedily occasion violent tetanic convulsions and death. These alkaloids or bases are named *Strychnia*, *Brucia*, and *Igasuria*, and exist in the seeds in combination with lactic and strychnic (or igasuric) acid. For a good method of obtaining pure strychnia, which is by far the most important of the three bases, the reader is referred to p. 328 of "The British Pharmacopœia."

*Strychnia* ( $C_{49}H_{22}N_2O_4$ ) occurs in "right square octahedrons or prisms, colorless and inodorous, scarcely soluble in water, but easily soluble in boiling rectified spirit, in ether, and in chloroform. Pure sulphuric acid forms with it a colorless solution, which, on the addition of bichromate of potash, acquires an intensely violet hue, speedily passing through red to yellow."—*Op. cit.* In nitric acid, it ought, if pure, to form a colorless solution; if the solution is reddish, it is a sign that brucia is also present. Strychnia combines with numerous acids, and forms well-marked salts, which are amenable to the same tests as the base itself.

*Brucia* ( $C_{46}H_{38}N_2O_8 + 8 Aq$ ) is insoluble in ether, but more soluble in water and in strong alcohol than strychnia; and it is the most abundant of the three alkaloids in *nux vomica*. It acts on the animal economy similarly to, but much less actively than strychnia, from which it may be distinguished not only by its different solubility, but by the red color which is imparted to it by nitric acid, and which changes to a fine violet on the addition of protochloride of tin. Like strychnia, it forms numerous salts.

*Igasuria* seems closely to resemble brucia in most respects. Little is known regarding *Igasurtic Acid*.

Strychnia, brucia, and igasuria occur not only in *nux vomica* but in the seeds of *Strychnos ignatii* (St Ignatius's beans), and in the seeds and other parts of several plants of the genus *Strychnos*. The amount of strychnia present in these substances varies from 0·5 to 1·5 per cent.

*Nux vomica*, according to the experiments of Maracet, acts on vegetables as a poison. His experiments were, however, confined to the haricot bean and the liliac. It is poisonous in a greater or lesser degree to most animals, though larger quantities are required to kill herbivorous than carnivorous animals. Thus, a few grains will kill a dog, but some ounces are required to destroy a horse. It is believed, however, that the bird called *Buceros Rhinoceros* eats the nuts with impunity; and a peculiar kind of *Acarus* lives and thrives in the extract of the nuts. Dr Pereira describes three degrees of the operation of this substance on man. 1. In very small doses, its effects are tonic and diuretic, and often slightly aperient. 2. In larger doses, there is a disordered state of the muscular system; the limbs tremble; a slight rigidity or stiffness is felt when an attempt is made to put the muscles in action; and the patient experiences a difficulty in keeping the erect posture. If the use of the medicine be continued, these effects increase in intensity, and the voluntary muscles are thrown into a convulsed state by very slight causes, as, for example, by inspiring more deeply than usual, or even by turning in bed. It is remarkable that in paralysis the effects are most marked in the paralysed parts. 3. In poisonous doses, the symptoms are tetanus and asphyxia, followed by death. After swallowing a large dose of strychnia (on which the poisonous effects of *nux vomica* essentially depend), the following phenomena occurred in a case recorded by Taylor in his "Medical Jurisprudence": "A young man, aged seventeen, swallowed forty grains of strychnia. The symptoms came on in about a quarter of an hour; lock-jaw and spasmodic contraction of all the muscles speedily set in, the whole body becoming as stiff as a board; the lower extremities were extended and stiff, and the soles of the feet concave. The skin became livid, the eyeballs prominent, and the pupils dilated and insensible; the patient lay for a few minutes without consciousness, and in a state of universal tetanus. A remission occurred, but the symptoms became aggravated, and the patient died asphyxiated from the spasm of the chest in about an hour and a half after taking the poison." It is difficult to say what is the smallest dose that would prove fatal to an adult. Thirty grains of the powdered nuts, given by mistake to a patient, destroyed life. Three grains of the extract have proved fatal; and in a case quoted by Taylor (*op. cit.*), half a grain of sulphate of strychnia caused death in 14 minutes.

The preparations of *nux vomica* are the powdered nuts, the extracts, the tincture, and strychnia; the alkaloid being usually preferable, in consequence of its more constant strength. In various forms of paralysis, especially where there is no apparent lesion of structure, *nux vomica* is a most successful remedy; although there are cases in which it is positively injurious. It is also of service in various affections of the stomach, such as dyspepsia, gastralgia, and pyrosis. The average dose of the powder is two or three grains, gradually increased; that of the tincture, 10 or 15 minims; and that of the extract half a grain, gradually increased to two or

three grains. The dose of strichnine, when given in cases of paralysis, is at the commencement one-twentieth of a grain three times a day, the dose being gradually increased, till slight muscular twitchings are observed. For gastric disorders, a still smaller dose is usually sufficient, as, for example, one-fortieth of a grain.

**NYĀNZA**, Victoria, a great fresh-water lake in Central Africa, discovered by Captain Speke in 1858, explored by Speke and Grant in 1862. The most authentic information that we have about the V. N. is, however, derived from the exploration and circumnavigation of it by Stanley in 1875. The native name, Nyanza, signifies "the water." Its southern point is in lat.  $2^{\circ} 44' S.$ , long.  $33^{\circ} E.$ . Its northern shore runs nearly parallel to the equator, and is about 25 miles to the north of it. It is estimated to be about 220 miles in length, and 180 in breadth. It is of no great depth; the surface is about 3800 feet above sea-level. There are a number of islands near its shores, the chief of which are Ukerewe in the south-east, and Sasse in the north-west. At its north-east extremity, Lake Baringo, described by the natives as a long-narrow basin, seems to be connected with the V. N. by a narrow channel. The countries on the west shores of the lake enjoy a mild and genial climate, and the rainfall is below that of many parts of Britain, being only 49 inches. M'tea, king of Uganda, seems to be the most powerful monarch on the shores of the lake, his sway extending over a large portion of the northern and western coasts. His subjects possess a considerable degree of civilisation. The most considerable tributary of the V. N. is the Shimgu (see **NILE**), which flows into its southern extremity in long.  $33^{\circ} 33' E.$  The Nile emerges from the north end of the V. N., at Napoleon Bay, precipitating itself over the Ripon Falls. North-west from Lake N. lies what Speke called Luta N'Zigó Lake, which was described as a narrow reservoir about 230 miles long, through the northern end of which the Nile passes. This lake is now known as the Albert Nyanza (q. v.).

**NYĀSSA**, or Nyanza (apparently identical with name Nyanzá), another lake in the interior of Africa, which Dr Livingstone discovered in 1861 by ascending the river Shiré (q. v.). The southern end of the Nyassa, or Star Lake, is in lat.  $14^{\circ} 25' S.$ , and its northern end extends to the parallel of  $9^{\circ} 20' S.$  The lake is upwards of 300 miles long, its average breadth being 26, and is 1300 feet above sea-level. The first representatives of a mission on N., founded in honor of Dr Livingstone, carried with them in sections a steamer of steel plates, which was successfully launched on the lake in 1875. None of the rivers flowing into N. are navigable. The lake is in most parts very deep—in many places over 100 fathoms. To the east is a range of mountains 100 miles long, and ranging from 10,000 to 12,000 feet above the lake. The scenery of N. is described as grand in the extreme, though much of the land surrounding it is low and marshy. The population of its shores, once dense, has been sorely scourged by the slave-trade. Something had previously been known about this lake under the name of the Maravi; but the accounts were so vague that latterly it was omitted from the maps of Africa.

**NYĀYA** (from the Sanscrit *ni*, into, and *āya*, going, a derivative from *a*, to go; hence literally "entering," and figuratively, "investigating analytically"), is the name of the second of the three great systems of ancient Hindu philosophy; and it is apparently so called because it treats analytically, as it were, of the objects of human knowledge, both material and spiritual, distributed by it under different heads or topics; unlike, therefore, the *Vedānta* (q. v.) and *Sāṅkhya* (q. v.), which follow a synthetic method of reasoning, the former of these systems being chiefly concerned in spiritual and divine matters, and the latter in subjects relating to the material world and man. The Nyāya consists, like the two other great systems of Hindu philosophy (see **MIMĀNSĀ** and **SĀṄKHYA**), of two divisions. The former is called **NYĀYA** (proper), and will be exclusively considered in this article; the other is known under the name of **VAIS'ESHIKA** (q. v.). With the other systems of philosophy, it concurs in promising beatitude, that is, final deliverance of the soul from re-birth or transmigration, to those who acquire truth, which, in the case of the Nyāya, means a thorough knowledge of the principles taught by this particular system.

The topics treated of by the Nyāya are briefly the following: 1. The *pramāṇa*, or instruments of right notion. They are: a. Knowledge which has arisen from

the contact of a sense with its object; b. Inference of three sorts (*a priori*, *a posteriori*, and from analogy); c. Comparison; and d. Knowledge, verbally communicated, which may be knowledge of "that whereof the matter is seen," and knowledge of "that whereof the matter is unseen" (revelation). 2. The objects or matters about which the inquiry is concerned (*prameya*). They are: a. The Soul (*atman*). It is the site of knowledge or sentiment, different for each individual co-existent person, infinite, eternal, &c. Souls are therefore numerous, but the supreme soul is one; it is deinonstrated as the creator of all things. b. Body (*'arira*). It is the site of action, of the organs of sensation, and of the sentiments of pain or pleasure. It is composed of parts, a framed substance, not inchoative, and not consisting of the three elements, earth, water, and fire, as some say, nor of four or all the five elements (viz. air and ether in addition to the former), as others maintain, but merely earthly. c. Organs of sensation (*indriya*); from the elements, earth, water, light, air, and ether, they are smell, taste, sight, touch, and hearing. d. Their objects (*arthā*). They are the qualities of earth, &c.—viz. odor, savor, color, tangibility, and sound. e. Understanding (*buddhi*) or apprehension (*upalabdhi*) or conception (*jñāna*), terms which are used synonymously. It is not eternal, as the Sāṅkhya maintains, but transitory. f. The organ of imagination and volition (*manas*). Its property is not the giving rise simultaneously to more notions than one. g. Activity (*pravritti*), or that which originates the utterances of the voice, the cognitions of the understanding, and the gestures of the body. It is therefore oral, mental, or corporeal, and the reason of all worldly proceedings. h. Faults or failings (*dosha*), which cause activity—viz. affection, aversion, and bewilderment. i. Transmigration (*pretyabhāva*, literally, the becoming born after having died), or the regeneration of the soul, which commences with one's first birth, and ends only with final emancipation. It does not belong to the body, because the latter is different in successive birth, but to the soul, because it is eternal. k. Fruit or retribution (*phala*), or that which accrues from activity and failings. It is the consciousness of pleasure or of pain. l. Pain (*duh'kha*), or that which has the characteristic mark of causing vexation. It is defined as "the occurrence of birth," or the originating of "body," since body is associated with various kinds of distress. Pleasure is not denied to exist, but, according to the Nyāya, it deserves little consideration, since it is ever closely connect'd with pain. m. Absolute deliverance or emancipation (*apavarga*). It is annihilation of pain, or absolute cessation of one's troubles once for all.

After (1) "instruments of right notion," and (2) "the objects of inquiry," the Nyāya proceeds to the investigation of the following topics.

3. Doubt (*sam'saya*). It arises from unsteadiness in the recognition or non-recognition of some mark, which, if we were sure of its presence or absence, would determine the subject to be so or so, or not to be so or so; but it may also arise from conflicting testimony. 4. Motive (*prayojana*), or that by which a person is moved to action. 5. A familiar case (*dr'ish'tāntā*), or that in regard to which a man of an ordinary and a man of a superior intellect entertain the same opinion. 6. Tenet or dogma (*riddhāntā*). It is either "a tenet of all schools," i. e. universally acknowledged, or "a tenet peculiar to some school," i. e. partially acknowledged; or "a hypothetical dogma," i. e. one which rests on the supposed truth of another dogma; or "an implied dogma," i. e. one the correctness of which is not expressly proved, but tacitly admitted by the Nyāya. 7. The different members (*avayava*) of a regular argument or *syllogism* (*nyāya*). 8. Confutation or reduction to absurdity (*tarka*). It consists in directing a person who does not apprehend the force of the argument as first presented to him, to look at it from an opposite point of view. 9. Ascertaining (*niru'ya*). It is the determination of a question by hearing both what is to be said for and against it, after having been in doubt. The three next topics relate to the topic of controversy, viz. 10. Discussion (*vāda*), which is defined as consisting in the defending by proofs on the part of the one disputant, and the controverting it by objections on the part of the other, without discordance in respect of the principles on which the conclusion is to depend; it is, in short, an honest sort of discussion, such, for instance, as takes place between a preceptor and his pupil, and where the debate is conducted without ambition of victory. 11. Wrangling (*jalpa*), consisting in the defence or attack of a proposition by means of tricks, futilities, and such like means; it is

therefore a kind of discussion where the disputants are merely desirous of victory, instead of being desirous of truth. 12. *Cavilling* (*vitañdā*), when a man does not attempt to establish the opposite side of the question, but confines himself to casting disingenuously at the arguments of the other party. 13. *Fallacies* or semblances of reasons (*hetvābhāsa*), five sorts of which are distinguished, viz. the erratic, the contradictory, the equally available on both sides, that which, standing itself in the need of proof, does not differ from that which is to be proved, and that which is adduced when the time is not that when it might have availed. 14. *Tricks*, or unfairness in disputation (*chhaña*), or the opposing of a proposition by means of assuming a different sense from that which the objector well knows the proponent intended to convey by his terms. It is distinguished as verbal misconstruing of what is ambiguous, as perverting, in a literal sense, what is said in a metaphorical one, and as generalising what is particular. 15. *Futile objections* (*jāti*), of which twenty-four sorts are enumerated; and, 16. *Failure in argument or reason of defeat* (*nigrahasthāna*), of which twenty-two distinctions are specified.

The great prominence given by the Nyāya to the *method*, by means of which truth might be ascertained, has sometimes misled European writers into the belief, that it is merely a system of formal logic, not engaged in metaphysical investigations. But though the foregoing enumeration of the tópica treated by it could only touch upon the main points which form the subject-matter of the Nyāya, it will sufficiently shew that the Nyāya intended to be a complete system of philosophical investigation; and some questions, such as the nature of intellect, articulated sound, &c., or those of genus, variety, and individual, it has dealt with in a masterly manner, well deserving the notice of western speculation. That the atomistic theory has been devolved from it, will be seen under the article *VAIS'ESHIKA*. On account of the prominent position, however, which the *method* of discussion holds in this system and the frequent allusion made by European writers to a Hindu syllogism, it will be expedient to explain how the Nyāya defines the "different members of a syllogism" under its seventh topic. A regular argument consists, according to it, of five members—viz. a. the proposition (*pratijñā*), or the declaration of what is to be established; b. the reason (*hetu*), or "the means for the establishing of what is to be established;" c. the example (*udgharan'a*), i. e. some familiar case illustrating the fact to be established, or inversely, some familiar case illustrating the impossibility of the contrary fact; d. the application (*upanaya*), or "re-statement of that in respect of which something is to be established;" and e. the conclusion (*nigamana*), or "the re-stating of the proposition because of the mention of the reason." An instance of such a syllogism would run accordingly thus: a. This hill is fiery, b. for it smokes, c. is a culinary hearth, or (inversely) not as a lake from which vapor is seen arising, vapor not being smoke, because a lake is invariably devoid of fire; d. accordingly, the hill is smoking; e. therefore, it is fiery.

The founder of the Nyāya system is reputed under the name of *Gotama*, or, as it also occurs, *Gautama* (which wou'd mean a descendant of Gotama). There is, however, nothing as yet known as to the history of this personage or the time when he lived, though it is probable that the work attributed to him is, in its present shape, later than the work of the great grammarian Pāṇini. It consists of five books or *Adhyāyas*, each divided into two "days," or diurnal lessons, which are again subdivided into sections or topics, each of which contains several aphorisms, or *Sūtras*. See *SŪTRA*. Like the text-books of other sciences among the Hindus, it has been explained or annotated by a triple set of commentaries, which, in their turn, have become the source of more popular or elementary treatises.—The Sanscrit text of the *Sūtras* of Gotama, with a commentary by *Vis'wanātha*, has been edited at Calcutta (1828); and the first four books, and part of the fifth, of the text, with an English version, an English commentary, and extracts from the Sanscrit commentary of *Vis'wanātha*, by the late Dr J. R. Ballantyne (Allahabad, 1850—1854). This excellent English version and commentary, and the celebrated Essay on the Nyāya, by H. T. Colebrooke ("Transactions of the Royal Asiatic Society," vol. i. London, 1821; and reprinted in the "Miscellaneous Essays," vol. i. London, 1837), are the best guide for the European student, who, without a knowledge of Sanscrit, would wish to familiarise himself with the Nyāya system.

NYCTAGINA'CÉA, a natural order of exogenous plants, consisting partly

herbaceous plants, both annual and perennial, and partly of shrubs and trees. Lindley ranks them in his *Chenopodial Alliance*. The flowers are either clustered or solitary, and either the cluster or the flower often has an involucle, which is often gaily colored. The perianth is tubular, plaited in bud, colored; the limb entire or toothed, deciduous. The stamens are equal in number to the lobes of the perianth. The ovary is superior, with one ovule and one style. The fruit is a thin *caryopsis*, enclosed within the enlarged and indurated base of the perianth.—There are about 100 known species, natives of warm countries. Some have flowers of considerable beauty, as those of the genus *Mirabilis*, known in our gardens as *Mirabilis of Peru*, one of which, *M. Jalapa*, was at one time erroneously supposed to produce jalap. The roots of many are fleshy, purgative, and emetic. Those of *Boerhaavia paniculata* are used instead of ippecuanha both in Guiana and in Java.

NYCTERIBIA, an extremely curious genus of insects, ranked in the order *Diptera*, although very different from most of that order, and having neither wings nor balancers. Its nearest alliance is with *Hippoboscidae* (see FOREST FLY and SABER TICK), which it resembles particularly in parasitic habits, and in the retention of the eggs within the abdomen of the female, until they have not only been hatched, but have passed from the larva into the pupa state. The form, however, is so spider-like, that these insects were at first ranked among the *Arachnida*. The few species known are all parasitic on bats, on which they run about with great activity. The head is very small, curiously affixed to the back of the thorax, and when the creature sucks the blood of the bat, upon which it lives, it places itself in a reversed position.

NYIREGYHA'ZA, a town of Hungary, in the county of Szabolcs, on the railway between Debreczin and Tokay. The trade in agricultural produce is considerable. N. has salt, soda, and saltpetre works. There are mineral springs in the neighborhood. Pop. (1869) 21,896.

NY'KERK, or Nieuwkerk, on the Veluwe, is a very flourishing and well-built town, near the Zuiden Zee, in the province of Gelderland, Netherlands, 25 miles north-west of Arnhem. Pop. 8000. It has a good harbor, which is connected with the sea by a wide canal of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles in length. In the neighborhood are fine rich meadow-pastures and lands suited for all kinds of grain, tobacco, potatoes, &c. Tobacco is extensively grown; many cattle are raised; and a brisk trade carried on both with the surrounding country and Amsterdam, the market to which the cattle, tobacco, dairy, and other agricultural produce, together with much firewood, are sent. N. has a handsome Reformed church, a Roman Catholic chapel, a synagogue, orphan-house, and good schools. There are several manufactures carried on, which also give employment to the people. In Netherlands' church history, N. is famed as the place where a great religious movement began at the middle of last century. The history of the movement, which spread throughout the land, contains all the marks of the later revivals in America, Scotland, and Ireland. See Ypey and Dermont's "Geschiedenis der Nederd. Her. Kerk," vol. iv.

NY'KÖPING, a seaport of Sweden, pleasantly situated on the Baltic, in lat.  $58^{\circ} 45'$  n. long.  $17^{\circ} 10'$  e., about 60 miles south-west of Stockholm. It comprises among its manufacturing products cotton goods, stockings, tobacco, &c., and has good shipyards, mills, and manufactories for machinery, while in the vicinity of the town are extensive paper-mills. The ruined old castle of N., nearly destroyed by fire in 1665, and which ranked in point of strength next to those of Stockholm and Calmar, has experienced many eventful vicissitudes of fortune. King Valdemar of Sweden, after his dethronement in 1288, was imprisoned here till his death in 1302; but the most tragic incident connected with N. Castle was the horrible death within its walls of the Dukes Eric and Valdemar, who, after being entrapped by their pusillanimous brother, King Birger, in 1817, were left to perish of hunger in a dungeon, the keys of which the king threw into the sea before he left the castle. The horror of this deed roused the indignation of the people, who seized upon the castle, sacked it, and demolished its keep and donjons. In 1719, the town was taken and dismantled by the Russians; and since then it has ceased to be the scene of any events of historical interest. It is noted for the pure Swedish spoken by its inhabitants. Pop. 4825.

NYL-GHAU (*Antelope picta*, or *Portax tragocamelus*), a species of antelope,

with somewhat ox-like head and body, but with long slender limbs, and of great activity and fleetness. It is one of the largest of antelopes, and is more than four feet high at the shoulder. The horns of the male are about as long as the ears, smooth, black, pointed, slightly curved forwards. The female has no horns. The neck is deep and compressed, not rounded as in most of the antelopes. A slight mane runs along the neck and part of the back, and the breast is adorned with a long hanging tuft of hair. The back is almost elevated into a hump between the shoulders. The N. inhabits the dense forests of India and Persia, where it has long been regarded as one of the noblest kinds of game. It is often taken, like other large animals, by the enclosing of a large space with nets, and by great numbers of people. It is a spirited animal, and dangerous to a rash assailant. It is capable of domestication, but is said to manifest an irritable and capricious temper.

**NYMPHÆA'CEÆ**, a natural order of exogenous plants, growing in lakes, ponds, ditches, and slow rivers, where their fleshy rootstocks are prostrate in the mud at the bottom; and their large, long-stalked, heart-shaped, or peltate leaves float on the surface of the water. Their flowers also either float, or are raised on their stalks a little above the water. The flowers are large, and often very beautiful, and fragrant. There are usually four sepals, and numerous petals and stamens, often passing gradually into one another. The ovary is many-celled, with radiating stigmas, and very numerous ovules, and is more or less surrounded by a large fleshy disc. The seeds have a farnaceous albumen. More than fifty species are known, mostly natives of warm and temperate regions. The rootstocks of some of them are used as food, and the seeds of many.—See WATER-LILY, LOTUS, VICTORIA, and EUBYALE.—Very nearly allied to N. are *Nelumbiaceæ*. See NELUMBO.

**NYMPHS**, in Classic Mythology, female divinities of inferior rank, inhabiting the sea, streams, groves, meadows and pastures, grottoes, fountains, hills, glens, trees, &c. Among the N., different classes were distinguished, particularly the *Oceanides*, daughters of Oceanus (N. of the great ocean which flows around the earth), the *Nereids*, daughters of Nereus (N. of the inner depths of the sea, or of the Inner Sea—the Mediterranean), *Potameides* (River N.), *Naiads* (N. of fountains, lakes, brooks, wells), *Oreades* (Mountain N.), *Dryads* or *Hamadryads* (Forest N., who were believed to die with the trees in which they dwelt). They were the goddesses of fertilising moisture, and were represented as taking an interest in the nourishment and growth of infants, and as being addicted to the chase (companions of the divine huntress Diana), to female occupations, and to dancing. They are among the most beautiful conceptions of the plastic and reverent (if credulous) fancy of the ancient Greeks, who, in the various phenomena of nature—the rush of sea-waves, the bubble of brooks, the play of sunbeams, the rustle of leaves, and the silence of caves—felt, with a poetic vividness that our modern science will hardly permit us to realise, the presence of unseen joyous powers.

**NYSSA**. See TUPELO.

**NYSTADT**, a town of Finland, on the eastern coast of the Gulf of Bothnia, 50 miles south of Birneborg. Here, in 1721, a treaty was agreed to, between Russia and Sweden, by virtue of which all the conquests of Peter the Great along the coasts of the Gulf of Finland were annexed to Russia. Pop. (1867) 3258.

## O

O, the fifteenth letter in the English and in most western alphabets, is one of the five simple vowel signs of the English language. As the language is at present pronounced it stands for at least four distinct sounds, heard in the words *note*, *nōr*, (*nōt*), *move*, *son*. The primary and simple sound of O is that heard long in *nōr*, and short in *nōt*, *tōp*. The sound given to it in such words as *note*, *go*, is really a diph-

thong—a long o terminating in a slight u or oo sound (o<sup>u</sup>). The corresponding

letter in the Hebrew and Phœnician Alphabet (q. v.) was called Ayn, i. e., "eye;" and accordingly the primitive form of the Phœnician letter was a rough picture of an eye, which naturally became a circle with a dot in the centre—still to be seen in some ancient inscriptions—and then a simple circle.

O', a prefix in many Irish family names, serves to form a patronymic, like Mac in Gaelic names; as O'Brien, a descendant of Brien. By some it is considered to be derived from *of*; but it is more likely from Ir. *ua*, Gael. *ogha*, a grandson. In the Lowland Scottish, the word *oe* is used for grandson, and in some localities for nephew.

OA'HU, one of the Sandwich Islands (q. v.).

OAJA'CO, Oaxaca, or Guaxnca, a city of Mexico, capital of a state of the same name, stands on the river Rio Verde, 210 miles south-south-east of Mexico. It covers an area 3 miles in length by 1½ in breadth, is well built, with open streets, interspersed with plantations, on which the cochineal insect feeds, and has about 25,000 inhabitants. Silk, cotton, sugar, and chocolate are manufactured.

OAK (*Quercus*), a genus of trees and shrubs of the natural order *Cupulifera*, having a three-celled ovary, and a round (not angular) nut—which is called an acorn—placed in a scaly truncated cup, the lower part of it invested by the cup. The species are very numerous, natives of temperate and tropical countries. A few species are found in Europe. North America produces many; and many are natives of mountainous regions in the torrid zone; some are found at low elevations in the valleys of the Himalaya, some even at the level of the sea in the Malay peninsula and Indian islands. But in the peninsula of India and in Ceylon, none are found; and none in tropical Africa, in Australia, or in South America. The oaks have alternate simple leaves; which are entire in some, but in the greater number variously lobed and sinuated or cut; evergreen in some, but more generally deciduous. Many of them are trees of great size, famous for the strength and durability of their timber, as well as for the majesty of their appearance, and their great longevity.—Throughout all parts of Europe, except the extreme north, two species are found, or varieties of one species, the COMMON OAK (*Q. robur*); one (*Q. pedunculata*) having the acorns on longish stalks, the other (*Q. sessiliflora*) having them almost without stalks. Other differences have been pointed out; but they are regarded by some of the most eminent and careful botanists as merely accidental, and not coincident with these; while, as to the length of the fruit-stalks, every intermediate gradation occurs. Both varieties occur in Britain, the first being the most prevalent, as it is generally in the north of Europe; the second being more abundant in more southern countries. The short-stalked oak is sometimes called DURMAST OAK in England. It has been much disputed which

is entitled to be considered the true British oak; and much alarm has occasionally been expressed lest new plantations should be made of the wrong kind; whilst the most contradictory statements have been made as to the comparative value and characters of the timber. The oak succeeds best in loamy soils, and especially in those that are somewhat calcareous. It cannot endure stagnant water. It succeeds well on soils too poor for ash or elm; but depends much on the depth of the soil, its roots penetrating more deeply than those of most other trees. Noble specimens of oak trees, and some of them historically celebrated, exist in almost all parts of Britain; but are much more frequent in England than in Scotland. The former existence of great oak forests is attested by the huge trunks often found in bogs. The oak attains a height of from 60 to 100 or even 150 or 180 feet; the trunk being four, six, or even eight feet in diameter. It sometimes grows tall and stately, but often rather exhibits great thickness of bole and magnitude of branches. It reaches its greatest magnitude in periods varying from 120 to 400 years, but lives to the age of 600, or even 1000. The timber is very solid, durable, peculiarly unsusceptible of the influence of moisture, and therefore eminently adapted for ship-building. It is also employed in carpentry, mill-work, &c.—The bark abounds in tannin; it also contains a peculiar bitter principle called *Quercine*, and is used in medicine, chi-fly in gargles, &c., on account of its astringency, sometimes also as a tonic; it is used along with gall-nuts in the manufacture of ink; but most of all for tanning (see *BARK*), and on this account the oak is often planted as copse-wood (see *COPSE*) in situations where it cannot be expected to attain to great size as a tree. The timber of copse oak is excellent fire-wood. The oak is particularly fitted for copse-wood, by the readiness with which it springs again from the stools after it has been cut.—Acorns are very nourishing food for swine, and in times of scarcity have been often used for human food, as, indeed, they commonly are in some very poor countries, either alone or mixed with meal. The bitterness which makes them disagreeable is said to be in part removed by burying them for a time in the earth. The acorns of some trees are also much less bitter than others, and oaks of the common species occur which produce acorns as sweet as chestnuts. Other varieties of the common oak are assiduously propagated by nurserymen as curios and ornamentals, particularly one with pendulous branchlets (the *Weeping Oak*), and one with branches growing up close to the stem, as in some kinds of poplars. Among the Greeks and Romans, the oak was sacred to Zeus or Jupiter; and it has been connected with the religious observances of many nations, as of the ancient Celts and Germans.—The TURKEY OAK OR ADRIATIC OAK (*Q. cerris*), now very frequently planted in Britain, is a large and valuable tree, very common in the south-east of Europe, and in some parts of Asia. The timber is imported in considerable quantity into Britain for ship-building and other purposes. The leaves differ from those of the common oak in their acute lobes, and the cups of the acorns are mossy, i. e., have long, loose, acute scales. Similar to this, in both these respects, are the AUSTRIAN OAK (*Q. austriaca*), abundant near Vienna, and the SPANISH OAK (*Q. Hispanica*).—The CORK OAK or CORK-TREE (*Q. Suber*) is noticed in the article *CORK*; the HOLM OAK or EVERGREEN OAK (*Q. ilex*), another of the species found in the south of Europe, in the article *ILEX*.—Of the North American oaks, some are very valuable as timber trees. Perhaps the most important is the WHITE OAK or QUEBEC OAK (*Q. alba*), a large tree, the leaves of which have a few rounded lobes. It is found from the Gulf of Mexico to Canada; and in some places forms the chief part of the forest. The timber is less compact than that of the British oak; that of young trees is very elastic.—The OVERCUP OAK (*Q. lyrata*), a majestic tree, highly esteemed for its timber, and having its acorns almost covered by their globular cup, grows chiefly in lands liable to inundation in the Southern States.—The CHESTNUT-LEAVED WHITE OAK (*Q. prinus*) is also a much-esteemed timber tree of the Southern States.—The SWAMP WHITE OAK (*Q. bicolor*), a closely allied species, extends further north.—The LIVE OAK (*Q. virens*), an evergreen species with entire leathery leaves, is regarded as a tree of the first importance in the United States, from the excellence of its timber and its value for ship-building, so that efforts have been made by the government to protect it and to promote the planting of its acorns. Yet it is not a very large tree, being seldom more than forty-five feet in height, with a trunk of two feet in diameter. It grows on the coasts of the Gulf of Mexico, and as far north as Virginia. It once abounded on the Sea Islands, now so

celebrated for their cotton.—The RED OAK (*Q. rubra*), a large tree, with cinnated and lobed leaves, the lobes toothed and bristle-pointed, yields great part of the Red Oak Staves exported from Canada and the north of the United States to the West Indies; but Red Oak Staves are also produced in the Middle and Southern States by the SCARLET OAK (*Q. coccinea*), a very similar species, by the BLACK OAK or QUEERCITRON OAK (*Q. tinctoria*), another species with the lobes of the leaves bristle-pointed, better known for the dye-stuff which its bark yields (see QUEERCITRON), and by the Willow Oak (*Q. phellos*), a large tree with lanceolate leaves and a willow-like aspect. The timber of all these species is of very inferior quality. These are the American oaks of greatest economical and commercial importance, but there are numerous other species, some of them trees, some mere shrubs, of which some grow on poor soils, and cover them in compact masses; resembling in this a single European species (*Q. vinimalis*), a native of the Voegge, 6–8 feet high, with slender tough branches, which makes excellent hedges.—The BLACK JACK (*Q. nigra*) is an American oak, chiefly notable for the abundance in which it grows on some of the poorest soils. It is a small tree, and its timber of little value. The bark is black.—Some of the Nepalese oaks are large and valuable trees, as are some of those of China and Japan, of Java, of Mexico, &c. The oaks of Java and the other Indian islands have generally the leaves quite entire.—The bark of most of the species of oak is capable of being used for tanning, and is used in different countries. The caps and acorns of the VALONIA OAK (*Q. ilex*) are exported from the Morea and other parts of the Levant, in great quantities, for this purpose, under the name of *Valonia*. See LEATHER. The tree resembles the Turkey Oak, and has very large hemispherical mossy caps. The caps are said to contain more tannin than any other vegetable substance.—Galls (q. v.) or Gall-nuts are in great part obtained from the oak therefore called the GALL-OAK (*Q. infectoria*), a scrubby bush, a native of Asia Minor, with bluntly serrated, ovate-oblong leaves.—The KERMES OAK (*Q. coccifera*), on the leaves of which the Kermes (q. v.) insect is found, is a low bush, with evergreen spinous leaves, much resembling a holly, a native of the south-east of Europe.—Of oaks with sweet and edible acorns, may be mentioned the BALLOT OAK (*Q. Ballota* or *Grammatica*), an evergreen with round spiny-toothed leaves, a native of the north of Africa, the acorns of which are regularly brought to market in Algeria and in Spain, and are long and cylindrical; the Italian Oak (*Q. ilex*), closely allied to the common oak; and the DWARF CHESTNUT OAK (*Q. chinguaquini* or *prinoides*) of North America, a small shrubby species, which has been specially recommended to cultivation on this account. Other North American species, and some of the Himalayan species, also produce edible acorns. From the acorns of some species, oil is made in considerable quantity in different parts of the world, and is used in cookery.—The leaves of the Manna Oak (*Q. manniifera*)—a native of the mountains of Kurdistan, having oblong, blunt-lobed leaves—create in hot weather a kind of manna, a sweet mucilaginous substance, which is made into sweetmeats, and very highly esteemed.

The name Oak is sometimes popularly applied to timber trees of very different genera. Thus, AFRICAN OAK is another name of African Teak. See TEAK. Some of the species of *Casuarina* (q. v.) are called Oak in Australia. The STONE OAK (*Lithocarpus Javensis*) of Java, so named from the extreme hardness of its timber, is a tree of the same family with the true oaks.

OAK BEAUTY (*Biston prodromaria*), a moth of the family *Geometridae*, a native of England, about an inch and a half or two inches in expanse of wings; the upper wings with two brown curved bands, and margined with black, the lower wings with one brown band. The caterpillar feeds on the oak.

OA'KHAM, the county-town of Rutlandshire, England, in the vale of Catmose, 25 miles west-north-west of Peterborough. It is a station on the Syston and Peterborough branch of the Midland Railway. In former times, there was a castle here; it is now in ruins, with the exception of the portion used as the county-hall. The church, the interior of which was beautifully restored in 1858, is an edifice in the perpendicular style, and has a fine tower and spire. The Free Grammar school, with an endowment of about £700 a year, was founded in 1581. Pop. (1871) 2911.

OA'KUM, a tangled mass of tarred hempen fibres, is made from old rope by un-

twisting the strands and rubbing the fibres free from each other. Its principal use is in Caulking (q. v.) the seams between planks, the space round rivets, bolts, &c., for the purpose of preventing water from penetrating.

OANNES, the name of a Babylonian god, who, in the first year of the foundation of Babylon, is said to have come out of the Persian Gulf, or the old Erythrean Sea, adjoining Babylon. He is described as having the head and body of a fish, to which were added a human head and feet under the fish's head and at the tail. He lived amongst men during the daytime, without, however, taking any food, and retired at sunset to the sea, from which he had emerged. O. had a human voice, and instructed men in the use of letters, and in all the principal arts and sciences of civilisation, which he communicated to them. Such is the account of him preserved by Berossus and Apollodorus. Five such monsters are said to have come out of the Persian Gulf; one, called Anedotos or Idotion, in the reign of Amenon, the fourth king of Babylon; another in that of the fifth king; and the last, called Odaccon (or Ho Dagon), apparently the Phœnician Dagon, under the sixth. Many figures of O., resembling that of a Triton, having the upper part of a man, and the lower of a fish, or as a man covered with a fish's body, have been found in the sculptures of Kouynujik and Khorsabad, as well as on many cylinders and gems. O. is supposed to have symbolised the conquest of Babylon by a more civilised nation coming in ships to the mouth of the Euphrates; but he is apparently a water-god, resembling in type and character the Phœnician Dagon, and the Greek Proteus and Triton.

Helladius "Apud Phot. Cod." 279, pp. 535, 34; Richter, "De Beroso;" Cory, "Anc. Fragm." p. 30; 1 Sam. v. 4; Bunsen, "Egypt's Place," vol. i. p. 106; Layard, "Nineveh," p. 343.

OAR, a wooden instrument by which a person sitting in a boat propels it through the water. The oar rests on the row-lock, and in many cases some device is resorted to, to retain the oar from slipping outwards. In the Thames, a leather stop, called a button, is used; sometimes a pin in the gunwale of the boat passes through the oar (but this weakens the oar, and precludes feathering); at other times, the oar is fastened to the pin by a leather strap. The action of an oar in moving a boat is that of a lever, the rower's hand being the power, the water the fulcrum, against which the oar presses, and the row-lock the point at which the opposition caused by the weight of the boat and its cargo is felt. *Feathering* an oar consists in turning it, immediately on leaving the water, so that the flat blade of the oar is horizontal, and in preserving this position until just before the fresh dip, when of course the vertical position must be resumed. Feathering diminishes the resistance offered by air, wind, and small waves; it also adds greatly to the beauty and grace of rowing.

The best oars are of Norway fir, though some are made of ash and beech.

O'ASES, certain cultivated spots in the Libyan desert (called also *Aurasis*, *Ouasis*, or *Hoaxis*) which produce vegetation, owing to the presence of springs issuing from the ground. The principal oases are those lying to the west of Egypt, a few days' journey from the Nile, and known to the ancients by the name of the Greater and Lesser Oases, and that of Ammon. It is supposed that they were known to the Egyptians during the 12th dynasty under the name of *Suten-Khenn*, but no evidence of their occupation by the Egyptians earlier than Darius has been found *in situ*. By some of the ancients they were called the Islands of the Blessed, or compared to the spots on a panther's skin. Their name is supposed to be the Coptic *Onaké* (Inhabited Place). They are first mentioned by Herodotus in his account of the destruction of the army of Cambyses by the storm of sand, or simoon. Equally celebrated is the visit of Alexander the Great to the oasis, which he successfully accomplished after the conquest of Egypt, and passed through the desert a nine days' journey before he reached the Temple of Ammon, the priests of which declared him the son of that god, and the future conqueror of the entire world. Herodotus describes that of El Wah, or the Oasis Magna of the Romans, which contained the oracle of Ammon, and which lies seven days' journey west of Thebes. It appears to have been anciently frequented by caravans going to the Pillars of Hercules. Strabo mentions three oases: the first seven days' journey west of Abydos; the second west of the Lake Maeis; the third, near the oracle of Ammon. Pliny mentions two oases; so does Ptolemy, who calls them the Lesser and Greater. Under the Roman empire,

they were used for temporary banishment of criminals of state, and the poet Juvenal was sent there. Olympiodorus, a native of the Thebaid, gives a glowing description of them in the days of Theodosius the Younger. Under the Byzantine emperors, the emperors banished there the heads of the Catholic party, at the instigation of the Arians, in the 4th c., and Athanasius himself is supposed to have taken refuge in them. In the 5th c., Nestorius, the Bishop of Constantinople, was banished there. He was rescued by an excursion of the Blemyes, but expired soon after his arrival at the Nile. The oases were then a place of dissolution and horror, occasionally plundered by Bedouins. They fell, 943 A.D., into the power of the Arabs, after having been held by the Egyptian monarchs and their successors till that period; and they are described by Edrisi (1150 A.D.) as uninhabited; by Abulfeda (1240 A.D.) and by Leo Africanus (1518 A.D.), as inhabited and cultivated, and quite independent, having three fortresses. The first modern traveller who visited them is supposed to have been Poncet (1698 A.D.). Subsequently, in 1792, Browne discovered the oasis of Ammon at El Siwah; and it was visited in 1798 by Horneemann, and in 1819 by Cailliaud. It lies in  $29^{\circ} 12' 20''$  n. lat. and  $26^{\circ} 6' 3''$  e. long. Drovetti and Minutoli also visited the same spot.

These oases are now held by Muggrebi Arabs, a powerful race in the Desert, capable of raising 30,000 men, who supply camels and guides to travellers. The principal oases are: 1. El Khargeh, or the Oasis Magna, the Greater Oasis of Ptolemy; 2. El Kaas, or Oasis Parva, the Lesser Oasis; 3. Siwah, or the Oasis of Ammon, the most northerly; 4. The Western Oasis, or Dakkel, mentioned by Olympiodorus, and visited by Sir Archibald Edmonstone in 1819, and Rohlfs in 1874. Of El Khargeh, full particulars have been given by M. Hoskins, who discovered it lying about 125 miles west of the Nile, having a stream of water rising near the village of Genah, on the north-west of the oasis, and lost in the sand. It is bounded

the east by Haref-bel-Badah. North of El Genu lies the metropolis, El Khargeh, which consists of a series of covered streets and open bazaars. The temple lies two hours' journey from it, in a fine situation; the sekos has a vestibule of 600 feet, with pylons, or gateways, the first of which has a decree in Greek, dated in the reign of Galba (68 A.D.), against forcing persons to form the revenue, preventing imprisonment for debt, preserving the dowries of women, and limiting the office of strategos for three years. The temple has other decrees preventing the officers of government from smuggling. It has an avenue of sphinxes and three pylons; on the third, Darius is represented offering to Amen Ra, Osiris, and Isis; while Nekht-her-hebi (Nectabes) continued the ornaments of the temple about 414—340 B.C. The sekos is 140 feet long, and represents Darius offering to Amen Ra, or Khnumis, the ram-headed god, and Osiris; while in the accompanying scenes are seen Anubis, or Anaitis, Rupsn, or Reseph. In the vicinity is a magnificent necropolis of 150 sepulchres, of a late period, with Doric and Corinthian capitals. There are several temples at other spots of the oasis. 2. El Kaas, the Oasis Parva, lies four or five days' journey south-east from Siwah, called the Wah-el-Bahnas, or Wah-el-Menesheh, contains no monuments older than the Roman, consisting of a triumphal arch, subterraneous and other aqueducts, several hot-springs, a necropolis and Christian church. This oasis was first conquered by the Arabs; and in its vicinity is another oasis called Wady Zerzoora, with others adjoining, of inferior interest. 3. Siwah, or the Oasis of Ammon—one of the first discovered, and repeatedly visited, has, unfortunately, not been seen by any one acquainted with hieroglyphics—lies west of the Natron Lakes. It would appear from Minutoli that the temple was built by Nekht-her-hebi, or Nectabes I., in honor of the god Khnum, Ammon Khnumis or Chnebis, who, as the deity of water, presided over the water from which the oasis originated. The oasis is nine miles broad and two long, contains El Garah Gharmy, and Menchyeb, has a population of about 8000 inhabitants, possesses date and other trees, grows cereals, and has sulphurous springs, a salt lake at Arachich, and many ruined temples, a necropolis, and other remains. The oracle of Ammon is supposed to have been at a place called Om-Beydah, or the temple of Nekht-her-hebi. From this, it would seem that the oasis did not fall into the power of Egypt until about the 5th c. B.C. The celebrated Fountain of the Sun is at Siwah Sharqieh. It is 30 paces long, 20 broad, six fathoms deep, with bubbles constantly rising to the surface, steaming in the morning, and warmer at night. Close to it are the remains of the sanctuary of Ammon. 4. El Dakkel, or the Western Oasis, lies

about 78 miles southwest of Stout. The principal ruin at Dar-el-Hadjar consists of a small temple, dedicated to Khnumis by the Roman emperors, Nero and Titus. At Ain Almoor, between this oasis and the Oasis Magna, is a temple built under the Roman empire.—Heodoius, iii. 26; Strabo, ii. p. 180, xvii. pp. 790, 791, 813; Ptolemy, iv. 5, 87; Montoli, "Reise zum Tempel des Jupiter Ammon" (Berlin, 1824); Ho-king, "Visit to the Great Oasis" (8vo, Lond. 1887); Champollion, "L'Egypte," p. 282.

OAT, or Oats (*Avena*), a genus of grasses containing many species, among which are some valuable for the grain which they produce, and some useful for hay. The Linnean genus *Avena*, less natural than most of the Linnean genera, has been much broken up. The genus, as now restricted, has the spikelets in loose panicles, the glumes as long as the florets, and containing two or more florets; the palea firm and almost cartilaginous, the outer palea of each floret, or of one or more of the florets, bearing on the back a knee-jointed awn, which is twisted at the base. The awn, however, tends to disappear, and often wholly disappears in cultivation. Those species which are cultivated as corn-plants have comparatively large spikelets and seeds, the spikelets—at least after flowering—pendulous. The native country of the cultivated oats is unknown, although most probably it is Central Asia. There is no reference, however, to the oat in the Old Testament; and although it was known to the Greeks, who called it *Bromos*, and to the Romans, it is probable that they derived their knowledge of it from the Celts, Germans, and other northern nations. It is a grain better suited to moist than to dry, and to cold than to warm climates, although it does not extend so far north as the coarse kinds of barley. The grain is either used in the form of Groats (q. v.) or made into meal. Oatmeal cakes and porridge form great part of the food of the peasantry of Scotland and of some other countries. No grain is so much esteemed for feeding horses. Besides a large quantity of starch—about 65 per cent.—and some sugar, gum, and oil, the grain of oats contains almost 20 per cent. of nitrogenous principles, or Protein (q. v.) compounds, of which about 16 or 17 parts are *Avenine*, a substance very similar to *Caseline* (q. v.), and two or three parts gluten, the remainder albumen. The husk of oats is also nutritious, and is mixed with other food for horses, oxen, and sheep. From the starchy particles adhering to the husk or *seeds* after the separation of the grain, a light dish, called *sowans*, is made in Scotland by means of boiling water, was once very popular, and is very suitable for weak stomachs. The grain is sometimes mixed with barley for distillation. The Russian beverage called *quass* is made from oats. The straw of oats is very useful as fodder, bringing a higher price than any other kind of straw.—The varieties of oats in cultivation are very numerous, and some highly esteemed varieties are of recent and well-known origin. It is doubtful if they really belong to more than one species; but the following are very generally distinguished as species: 1. COMMON OAT (*A. sativa*), having a very loose panicle, which spreads on all sides, and two or three fertile florets in each spikelet, the palea quite smooth, not more than one floret awned; 2. TARTARIAN OAT (*A. orientalis*), also called HUNGARIAN OAT and SIBERIAN OAT, distinguished chiefly by having the panicle much more contracted, and all turned to one side; 3. NAKED OAT (*A. nudicaulis*), differing from the Tartarian Oat chiefly in having the palea very slightly adherent to the seeds, which, therefore, fall readily out of them, whilst in the other kinds they adhere closely; 4. CHINESE OAT (*A. chinensis*), which agrees with the last in the characters of the palea and seeds, but is more like the Common Oat in its panicle, and has more numerous florets, 4–8, in the spikelet; 5. SHORT OAT (*A. brevis*), which has a close panicle turned to one side, the spikelets containing only one or two florets, each floret awned, the grains short. Almost all the varieties of oat in cultivation belong to the first and second of these species. The Naked Oat is cultivated in Austria, but is not much esteemed. The Chinese Oat, said to have been brought by the Russians from the north of China, is prolific, but the grain is easily shaken out by winds. The Short Oat is cultivated as a grain-crop on poor soils at high elevations in the mountainous parts of France and Spain, ripening where other kinds do not; it is also cultivated in some parts of Europe as a forage plant.—Besides these, there is another kind of oat, the BRISTLE-POINTED OAT (*A. strigosa*), regarded by some botanists as belonging even to a distinct genus, *Dauhonia*, because the lower palea is much prolonged, and instead of merely being bifid at the point, as in the other oats, is divided into two long teeth, extending into bristles. The panicle is

inclined to one side, very little branched; the florets, 2 or 3 in a spikelet, all awned, the grain rather small. This plant is common in cornfield, is cultivated in many countries, but chiefly on poor soils, and was at one time much cultivated in Scotland, but is now scarcely to be seen as a crop.—Not unlike this, but with the panicle spreading equally on all sides, the outer awns merely bifid, and long hairs at the base of the glumes, is the WILD OAT (*A. fatua*), also frequent in cornfield, and a variety of which is cultivated in some northern countries for meal, but which is more generally regarded by farmers as a weed to be extirpated, springing up so abundantly in some districts as to choke crops of better grain. Its awns have much of the hydro-metrical property which gives for *A. sterilis*, a species found in the south of Europe, the name of the ANIMAL OAT, because the seeds when ripe and fallen on the ground resemble insects, and move about in an extraordinary manner through the twisting and nuttwisting of the awns. The seed of the WILD OAT has been sometimes used instead of an artificial fly for catching trout.—Amongst the species of oat useful not for their grain but for fodder are the DOWNTY OAT-GRASS (*A. pubescens*) and YELLOW OAT-GRASS (*A. flavescens*), both referred by some botanists to the genus *Trisetum*—the short awn being like a middle tooth in the bifid palea—and both natives of Britain, the former growing on light ground and dry hills, especially where the soil is calcareous, the latter on light meadow lands.—Other species are found in Britain, continental Europe, North America, Australia, &c. In some parts of the Sahara are bottoms of ravines richly productive of a species of oat-grass (*A. Forskalii*) much relished by camels.

Far more ground is occupied with oats in Scotland than with any other grain. In all the higher districts, it is almost the only kind of grain which is cultivated. Throughout Scotland, it is the crop that is chiefly sown after land has been in pasture for one or more years. The seed is generally sown broadcast over the ploughed land, which is afterwards well harrowed and pulverised. It is of the utmost importance to have the latter operations well done, as it prevents the attacks of insect larvae. On soils that are infested with annual weeds, such as charlock, it is common to drill the seed, which permits the land to be hand-hoed and thoroughly cleaned. Oats thrive best upon deep and rich soils, and yield but poorly on thin sandy soils, where they suffer sooner from drought than barley, rye, or wheat. On good soils, it is common to dress oats with 2 to 3 cwt. of guano to the acre. The plant is not easily injured by large applications of heterogeneous manures. The Potato Oat is a variety generally cultivated in the best soils and climates. It is an early and productive variety. The Hopetoun Oat is also much sown in the earliest districts. The Sandy Oat is still more largely sown, more particularly when the climate is inferior and wet. It is not liable to be lodged with rains, and the straw is of fine quality for fodder. All these are varieties of the Common Oat. The White and Black Tartarian are much cultivated in some districts. They are very productive.—On the continent of Europe, this grain is seldom seen of quality equal to what is produced in Scotland; and even in most parts of England, the climate is less suitable to it, and it is less plump and rich.

OATES (alias Ambrose), Titus, was the son of a ribbon weaver, who, having first become an Anabaptist minister under Cromwell, took orders and a benefice in the English Church after the Restoration. Titus appears to have been born about 1620 in London. He was a pupil of Merchant Taylors' School, whence he passed to Trinity College, Cambridge, took orders, and received a small living from the Duke of Norfolk. This position, however, he forfeited, in consequence of a malicious prosecution, in which he narrowly escaped conviction for perjury; and having been afterwards appointed to the chaplaincy of one of the king's ships, he was expelled from it on a charge still more disgraceful. In this extremity, he conformed to the Roman Catholic Church, and was admitted as a scholar of the Jesuits' College at Valladolid; but was expelled for misconduct, after a trial of a few months. He was again received by the Jesuits, on his earnest protestations of repentance, at St Omer, where he was no less unsuccessful, and was finally dismissed by them in the early part of 1678. He now, as a mere vagabond adventurer, set himself to live by his wits, in the evil exercise of which he devised, about this time, the atrocious scheme with which his name is identified in history. Just then, great excitement and alarm pervaded the Protestant party in England. It was well known that Charles was at heart a Rouman Catholic; and his brother, the Duke of York, afterwards James II.

was an active and avowed zealot on the same side. The growing confidence of the Roman Catholics was unconcealed; and with or without instant reason, the cry so often since heard arose, and was everywhere re-echoed, that the "Protestant religion was in danger." In this fevered state of general feeling, O. saw his opportunity, and dexterously and boldly availed himself of it. He communicated to the authorities - the details of a pretended plot, the fruitment of his own brain, the main elements of which were a rising of the Catholic party, a general massacre of Protestants, the burning of the city of London, the assassination of the king, and the invasion of Ireland by a French army. In certain of its items, the fiction was devised with considerable ingenuity to catch the popular belief. By the strangest coincidence, moreover, there just then occurred in aid of it a series of events which seemed conclusively to attest its genuineness. A correspondence, the object of which was the propagation of the Roman Catholic religion, came to light between the secretary of the Duke of York and Pere La Chaise, the confessor and confidant of Louis XIV. Danby, the prime minister, it also appeared, had been busy with intrigues in the same quarter. Finally, Godfrey, the zealous magistrate through whom publicity was first given to "the plot," was found mysteriously murdered. After this, could reasonable doubt exist? Was not the English St Bartholomew already begun? All London went wild with fear and rage; and it seemed at one time likely that a massacre of Roman Catholics would be substituted for the dreaded extirpation of the Protestants. The parliament, which might have done something to allay the excitement, was itself swept headlong away by it. The king alone, whose life was threatened, but who, dissolute and indolent as he was, wanted neither courage nor shrewdness, much to his honor, scornfully insisted that the plot was merely some insane delusion, and tried, so far as he could, to control the excesses which followed. Too probably, his interference was of the characteristically easy, *insouciant* kind; in any case, it did not avail. The story of O. was universally believed; and he became the popular hero of the day. A pension of £900 a year was granted him; a suite of apartments in the palace at Whitehall was set apart as sacred to his use; and wherever he went, the Protestant public wildly cheered him as their savior. With the aid of a set of suborned ruffians, only one degree less foul than himself, convictions of his victims were readily obtained, judges and jurors vying with each other in their unquestioning reception in evidence of the grossest and most manifest perjury; and many innocent Roman Catholic gentlemen died the death of traitors at the block. Over the space of two years, the base success of O. was signalised by a series of judicial murders. Naturally, however, as reason resumed its sway, doubts began to be felt; and on the execution of a venerable and respected nobleman, Viscount Stafford, with a strong shock of pity and remorse, public suspicion awoke, and violent reaction set in. It was only, however, on the accession of James II. in 1685 that retribution overtook the malefactor. Active steps against him were then taken. He was tried before the Court of King's Bench, convicted of perjury, and sentenced to be pilloried, whipped at the cart's tail, and afterwards imprisoned for life. We might wonder a little at the leniency of the sentence, were it not thus to be explained: it was intended that the severity of the first two items of punishment should render the last one superfluous, and that the wretch should die under the lash of the executioner. But the hide of O. was beyond calculation tough; and horribly lacerated, yet living, his carcass was conveyed to the prison, from which it was meant never more to issue. Very strangely, however, the next turn of the political wheel brought back the monster to the light of day and to prosperity. When the revolution of 1688 placed William on the throne, the Protestant influence triumphed once more. In the outburst of enthusiasm which ensued, what more natural than that O. should be glorified as a Protestant martyr? Parliament solemnly declared his trial an illegal one; he was pardoned, and obtained his liberty; and in order to his perfect enjoyment of it, a pension of £300 a year was granted him. He was, however, no more heard of; he passed his seventeen remaining years in obscurity, and died in 1705 at the good old age of eighty-six.

OATH (Ang.-Sax. *ath*, Ger. *eid*), in the religious use of the word, may be defined an expressed or implied calling upon the Almighty to witness the truth of an asseveration, or the good faith of a promise; with which is ordinarily conjoined an imprecation of his vengeance, or a renunciation of his favor, in case the assevera-

tion should be false, or the promise should be broken. This practice has prevailed, in some form or other, in almost all the religions of the ancient, as well as of the modern world. It supposes, however, a belief of the existence of a provident Supreme Being, in order to its moral efficacy as a safeguard of truth. Among the Jews, we find instances in Gen. xiv. 22, xxi. 24, xlvi. 31, l. 5, confirmed even by the example of God himself, Numb. xiv. 28, Jerem. xliv. 26, Isai. lxii. 8. It was strictly forbidden to the Jews to swear by false gods (Amos viii. 14; Jerem. xii. 16). The form of oath was probably variable, either a direct adjuration, as "The Lord liveth," or an imprecation, "The Lord do so to me;" but in all cases, the strongest denunciations are held out against the false swearing (Exod. xx. 7, Levit. xix. 12). Oaths were employed, both judicially and extrajudicially, by the ancient Egyptians, Assyrians, Medes, and Persians, as well as by the Greeks, and also by the Romans. The forms were very various—one of the most solemn consisting in the act of placing the hand on the altar of the deity who was invoked as witness. In the judicial proceedings of both the last-named nations, oaths were employed, but not universally; and in examples of their extrajudicial use, the literatures of both abound. In the Christian dispensation, the solemnity of an oath is enhanced by the elevated idea of the sanctity and perfection of the Deity.

The lawfulness and fitness of the practice, under circumstances of due solemnity, are commonly recognised by Christians. Some communions, of which the most remarkable are the Moravians and the Society of Friends, applying literally the words of Christ (Mat. v. 34), regard all oaths as unlawful. But other communions generally restrict this prohibition to ordinary and private discourse, and find in Rom. i. 9, 2 Cor. xi. 21, Gal. i. 20, Phil. i. 8, and 1 Thessal. ii. 5, full warrant for the lawfulness of oaths in judicial and other solemn use. From some passages of the Fathers, it might seem that they shared the difficulties of the Quakers and Moravians on the subject of the lawfulness of swearing; but these Fathers for the most part referred to the oaths required of Christians by the pagans, which generally involved a recognition of particular pagan divinities; and they condemned these pagan oaths, rather as involving or even directly containing a profession of the popular paganism, than as unlawful in themselves. The Christians of the later ages may perhaps be said to have multiplied in an opposite degree the occasions of oaths; especially of what were called "purgatorial" oaths, in which a party charged with a crime justified himself by swearing his innocence. These oaths were commonly accompanied by some imprecatory form or ceremonial, and were often expected to be followed by immediate manifestations of the divine vengeance upon the perjurer. The common instrument of attestation on oath was the Bible or some portion of it; but oaths were sometimes sworn on the relics of saints, or other sacred objects; sometimes simply by raising the hand to heaven, or by laying it upon the breast or the head. In canonical processes, the oath was often administered to the party kneeling. The forms varied very much; the most general being that which the English oath still retains (*Sic me Deus adjure*). Divines commonly require, in order to the lawfulness of an oath, three conditions (founded upon Jerem. iv. 2), viz., *truth, justice, and judgment*—that is to say (1), that the asseveration, if the oath be assertive, shall be *true*, and that the promise, if the oath be promissory, shall be made and shall be kept *in good faith*; (2), that the thing promised shall be *equitably law and good*; (3), that the oath shall not be sworn without due *discretion and deliberation*, and without satisfactory reasons founded on *necessity*, or at least on grave and manifest utility.

The Mohammedans do not employ oaths in their judicial proceedings; but they regard deliberate perjury, even when extrajudicially committed, as sinful, and deserving of God's vengeance. For this, however, they require that the oath should be an express adjuration of God himself by some one of his well-known holy names; that the jurant should be of full age and intelligence; and that the oath should be sworn deliberately, and with the intention of swearing.

OATH, in point of law, is that kind of solemn declaration which is necessary as a condition to the filling of some office more or less public, or of giving evidence in a court of justice. Nearly all the great public offices of the state in this country can only be filled by persons who are willing to take an oath before acting in such office. The most important office of all—that of king or queen of Great Britain—requires a Coronation Oath (q. v.). Members of parliament also require to take the

**oath of fidelity and true allegiance, and promising to maintain the succession, in a full house, before taking their places (29 and 30 Vict. c. 19).** Quakers and others may make an affirmation to the same effect. In 1868 and 1871, great changes were made as to oaths. The oath of allegiance and the official oath must now be taken by the great officers of state, such as the First Lord of the Treasury, Chancellor of the Exchequer, Lord Chancellor, Secretaries of State, &c., in Eng. at d. In Scotland the same are taken by the Lord Keeper of the Great Seal and Privy Seal, Lord Clerk Register, Lord Advocate, and Lord Justice-Clerk; so in Ireland by the Lord Lieutenant, Lord Chancellor, and two others. The oath of allegiance and the judicial oath are taken by the superior judges in each kingdom, justices of the peace, and Scotch sheriffs. No others, except under the Clerical and Parliamentary Oaths Acts, are to take the oaths of allegiance, supremacy, and abjuration, or any oath substituted for these. All others who used formerly to take oaths now make declarations of fidelity in their office, and in some cases also one of secrecy.

The most important oaths affecting the general public are those which are required to enforce the truth from witnesses in courts of justice. It may be stated that jurymen, where they are called upon to exercise their functions, are also required to take an oath. The oath is read to the juror thus—" You shall well and truly try the issue between the parties, and a true verdict give, according to the evidence, so help you God;" and the juror kisses the new testament. Witnesses who are called to give evidence must all be first sworn in a similar manner, the words being, "The evidence you shall give shall be the truth, the whole truth; and nothing but the truth, so help you God." Hence, the person who is a witness must have sufficient understanding to know the nature and obligations of an oath; and on this ground, young children are incompetent to be witnesses. Another condition or qualification required in the party who takes an oath as a witness is, that he has a competent sense of religion, in other words, he must not only have some religious knowledge, but some religious belief. He must, in substance, believe in the existence of a God, and in the moral government of the world; and though he cannot be questioned minutely as to his particular religious opinions, yet, if it appear that he does not believe in a God and future state, he will not be allowed to give his evidence, for it is assumed, that without the religious sanction, his testimony cannot be relied upon. So long, however, as a witness appears to possess competent religious belief, the mere form of the oath is not material. The usual practice in England and Ireland is, for the witness, after hearing the oath repeated by the officer of court, to kiss the four gospels by way of assent; and in Scotland, the witness repeats similar words after the judge, standing and holding up his right hand, "swearing by Almighty God, as he shall answer to God at the Great Day of Judgment," but without kissing any book. Jews are sworn on the Pentateuch, keeping on their hats, and the oath ends with the words, "so help you Jehovah." A Mohammedan is sworn on the Koran; a Chinese witness has been sworn by kneeling and breaking a china saucer against the witness-box. Thus, the mere form of taking the oath is immaterial; the witness is allowed to take the oath in whatever form he considers most binding upon his own conscience—the essential thing being, however, that the witness acknowledge some binding effect derived from his belief in a God or a future state.

The policy of insisting upon the religious formalities attending the taking of an oath, has been much discussed of late years, and it has been disputed whether atheists, who avow an entire absence of all religious belief, should be entirely rejected as witnesses (as is sometimes the case), and justice thereby frustrated. The objections of Quakers, Mavians, and Separatists to taking an oath have long been respected as not being fundamentally at variance with a due sense of religious feeling, and hence they have by statute been allowed to make an affirmation instead of taking the oath. In 1864 another concession was made to those who, not being Quakers, yet refuse to take the oath from sincere conscientious motives, and these are now also allowed to affirm instead of swear. But the law remains as before, that atheists and persons who admit that they have no religious belief whatever, are excluded from giving evidence in courts of justice.

When a witness, after being duly sworn, gives false evidence in a court of justice or in a judicial proceeding, and his evidence so falsely given is material, he commits the offence of perjury; but it is necessary, in England, not only that two witnesses

shall be able to prove the falsity of such evidence, but also that the party should be proceeded against, in the first instance, before a justice of the peace, or by order of a judge, or the attorney-general, it being found that frivolous and unfounded indictments were often preferred against witnessess & y disappointed or hostile parties. As a general rule, perjury cannot be committed except in some judicial proceeding, or rather the giving of false evidence cannot be punished except it has been given in some judicial proceeding. The practice formerly existed of persons voluntarily taking oaths in various matters not connected with any judicial proceeding; and creditors often in this manner sought to add to other securities by insisting on a formal oath before a justice of the peace, in some isolated matter of fact. This practice was put an end to by the statute 5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 62, by which justices of the peace were prohibited from administering or receiving such oaths touching any matter or thing whereof such justice has not jurisdiction or cognizance by some statute. It is left to some extent to the discretion of the justice whether the particular matter is one as to which it is proper to administer an oath; but when it is considered proper, the declaration may be made in the form given by that statute; and if the party make a false declaration, he commits a misdemeanor. Unlawful oaths generally mean oaths taken by members of secret and illegal societies of a treasonable description; and statutes long ago passed to inflict penalties on all who took or administered such oaths.

**OATH OF CALUMNY**, in Scotch Law, means an oath taken by a party at the instance of his opponent, that the allegations were well founded. Oaths of verity and credulity are oaths that debt or claim is well founded.

**OATHS, Military.** The taking of the oath of fidelity to government and obedience to superior officers was, among ancient armies, a very solemn affair. A whole corps took the oath together, sometimes an entire army. In modern times, when so many other checks are used for maintaining discipline, the oath has become little more than a form. In the United Kingdom, a recruit enlisting into the army or militia, or a volunteer enrolling himself, swears to be faithful to the sovereign, and obedient to all or any of his superior officers; also to divulge any facts coming to his knowledge which might affect the safety of his sovereign, or the stability of that sovereign's government. The members of a court-martial take an oath to try the cases brought before them justly, according to the evidence, to keep secret the finding until confirmed by the crown, and to keep secret always the opinions given by the members individually. The only other military oath is the common oath of a witness before a court-martial to tell the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.

**OB, or Obi**, the great river of Western Siberia, rises in two branches, the Bis and the Katune or Katunga, both of which have their origin in the Altai Mountains, within the frontier of the Chinese dominions, about lat.  $49^{\circ}$  n., and long.  $90^{\circ}$  e. These branches, flowing in a north-west direction, unite to form the Ob at the town of Blisk in lat.  $52^{\circ} 30'$  n., long.  $85^{\circ}$  e. Pursuing a winding course, with a general north-west direction, the Ob reaches the meridian of  $75^{\circ}$  e., when it turns west, and maintains that direction to its confluence with the Irtish, the greatest of its tributaries. It then flows north-west, north, and north-east, to its mouth in the Gulf of Ob, which it reaches after a course of 2000 miles. Its chief affluents on the right are the Tom—a swifter stream than the Ob, 400 miles in length, and navigable for the last 280 miles from the beginning of May till July—the Tchulim, and the Ket. The principal affluent on the left is the Irtish, which, rising within the frontier of the Chinese territories, traverses the Altai Mountains, and after a course longer than that of the Ob itself, joins that river 250 miles below Tobolsk. The trade of the Irtish, of which the centre is Tobolsk, is important. The principal towns on the banks of the Ob are Narim, Sargent, Berezow, and Obdorsk.—The Gulf of Ob is a long inlet of the Arctic Ocean, 450 miles in length by about 100 miles in breadth. At present, only a few steamers ply on the great water-system of the Ob; but that system, communicating as it does between Siberia, the Chinese territories, and European Russia, is, without doubt, destined to become a great commercial thoroughfare. This river is one of the richest in fish, of all the rivers belonging to the Russian empire. Its waters are swelled in May by the melting of the snows of the plains, and again in June and July by the melting of the mountain snows. Below its junction with the

Irtish, it divides itself into several parallel streams; and in the flood season it inundates great tracts of country, and presents the appearance of a waste of water, its desolate uniformity broken only by the occasional tree-tops that rise above the surface. At Obdorsk, about 20 miles south of the southern border of the Gulf of Ob, the river freezes in the middle of October, and breaks up about the middle of May.

**OBADI'AH**, one of the "minor prophets" of the Old Testament, regarding whom absolutely nothing is known. His book or "vision"—the shortest of the Jewish Scriptures—appears, from internal evidence, to have been composed after the destruction of Jerusalem by the Chaldeans, 588 B.C., and consists of two parts. The first is a prophecy of the downfall of Edom. The second foretells the future redemption and glory of the house of Jacob, in which Edom—for his unbrotherly conduct—shall not share, but, on the contrary, be burned up as "stubble."

**O'BAN**, a parliamentary burgh and seaport, Argyllshire, Scotland, on a bay of the same name, 20 miles (in direct line) north-west of Inveraray. The bay is protected from every wind by the island of Kerrera on the west, and by the high shores of the mainland, and is overlooked on the north by the picturesque ruins of Dunolly Castle. It is from 12 to 24 fathoms deep, and although the girdle of hills that seems to surround it gives it the appearance of a lake, it is easily accessible, and could afford anchorage to 300 sail. O. is the great rendezvous for tourists in the West Highlands. Its importance dates chiefly from the beginning of the present century. The burgh now contains a number of churches, several hotels and inns, schools, banks, &c. Within three miles of O. is Dunstaffnage Castle, which is said to have been the seat of the Scottish monarchy previously to its transference to Scone. The Stone of Destiny, which now supports the coronation chair in Westminster Abbey, and was carried thither from Scone by Edward I., was obtained, in the first instance, according to tradition, from Dunstaffnage Castle. Pop. of parliamentary burgh (which is one of the Ayr (q. v.) group) was 1940 in 1861; in 1871, 2426.

**OBÉ**, or *Obi* (etymology unknown), the name given to the magical arts or witchcraft practised by a class of persons among the negroes of the West Indies. The practitioner is called an *Obeah-man* or *Obeah-woman*. It differs in no essential respect from the corresponding superstitions all the world over. See MAGIC, WITCHCRAFT.

**OBEDIENCE**, in Canon Law, means the duty by which the various gradations in ecclesiastical organisation are held subject, in all things consistent with the law of God or of the church, to the several superiors placed immediately above each, respectively, in the hierarchical scale. Thus priests and inferior clergy owe canonical obedience to the bishop, and priests are bound thereto by a solemn promise administered at ordination. The bishop primitively took a similar oath to the metropolitan; but by the modern law, the jurisdiction of the metropolitan is confined to the occasions of his holding a visitation, or presiding in the provincial synod. Bishops, by the present law of the Roman Catholic Church, take an oath of obedience to the pope. This obedience, however, is strictly limited by the canons, and is only held to bind in things consistent with the divine and natural law. In ecclesiastical history the word Obedience has a special signification, and is applied to the several parties in the church, which, during the great Western Schism (q. v.), adhered to the rival popes. Thus we read of the "Roman Obedience," which included all who recognised the pope chosen at Rome, and the "Avignon Obedience," which meant the supporters of the Avignon pope. So, again, historians speak of "the Obedience of Gregory XIII," and "the Obedience of Benedict XIII," &c. Applied to the monastic institute, obedience means the voluntary submission which all members of religious orders vow, at the religious profession, to their immediate superiors, of whatever grade in the order, as well as to the superior general, and still more to the rules and constitutions of the order. This forms in all orders one of the essential vows. It is, however, expressly confined to lawful things; and although it is held that a superior can command certain things under pain of sin, yet Roman Catholics repudiate the notion that the command of a superior can render lawful, much less good, a thing which is of its own nature, or by the law of God, sinful or bad. The name Obedience is sometimes given to the written precept or other formal instrument by which a superior in a religious order communicates to one of his subjects any special precept or instruction—as, for example, to undertake a certain office, to proceed upon a particular mission, to relinquish a certain appointment, &c. The

instruction, or the instrument containing it, is called an *obedience*, because it is held to bind in virtue of religious obedience.

O'BELISK, a word derived from the Greek *obelos* and *obeliskos*, signifying a spit, applied to prismatic monuments of stone and other materials, terminating with a pyramidal or pointed top. These monuments, called *tekhon*, were placed upon bases before gateways of the principal temples in Egypt, one on each side of the door. They served in Egyptian art for the same purposes as the stele of the Greeks and columns of the Romans, and appear to have been erected to record the honors or triumphs of the monarch. They have four faces, are cut out of one piece, and are broader at the base than at the top, at a short distance from which the sides form the base of a pyramidion in which the obelisk terminates. They were placed upon a cubical base of the same material, which slightly surpassed the breadth of their base. Each side of the obelisk at the base measures 1-10th of the height of the shaft, from the base line to that where the cap, or pyramidion commences. The cap is also 1-10th of the same height. Their sides are slightly concave, to increase their apparent height. Their height varies from upwards of 100 feet to a few inches, the tallest known being that of Karnak, which rises to 105 feet 7 inches. The sides are generally sculptured with hieroglyphs and representations, recording the names and titles of kings, generally in one line of deeply-cut hieroglyphs down each side. The pyramid of obelisks was sometimes decorated with subjects. The mode by which they were made appears to have been to hew them first in the rough out of a solid piece in the quarries, and one unfinished specimen thus prepared still remains in the quarries of Syene. They were transported down the Nile during the inundation, on rafts to the spot where they were intended to be placed, and raised from their horizontal position by inclined planes, aid'd by machinery. Some obelisks, before their erection, had their pyramid capped with bronze gilded, or gold, the marks of such covering still being evident on their surfaces. Under the Roman empire, they were raised by pulleys and heavy tackle. The difficulty of erecting the fallen ones in the ages of the renaissance, as also the mechanical appliances for the lowering from its original site the obelisk of Luxor in 1881, and erecting it in the Place de la Concorde in 1883 by Le Bas, shew the difficulties experienced by the ancients. The use of obelisks is as old as the appearance of art itself in Egypt; these grand, simple, and geometric forms being used in the 4th dynasty, and continued till the time of the Romans. Their object is enveloped in great obscurity. At the time of the 18th dynasty, it appears that religious ceremonies and oblations were offered to the obelisks, which were treated as divinities. Their sepulchral use is evinced by their discovery in the tombs of the 4th dynasty, and the vignettes of early papyri. No large obelisk is older than that of Matarish or Heliopolis, erected by Osortesen I. about 1900 B.C.; and that of Beggig or Crocodilopolis is, in reality, only a stele. Thothmes I. placed two of large size before the granite sanctuary of Karnak, and his daughter Hatassu, two others of above 90 feet high, before the second propylaeon. Additional sculptures were made on these obelisks by Sethos I., who restored them. Thothmes III. appears to have erected many obelisks. The oldest is that of the Atmelian or Hippodrome of Constantinople, erected to record his conquest of Naharania or Mesopotamia. Two others, which formerly stood at Heliopolis, were subsequently re-erected by Rameses II. at Alexandria. One of these still remains erect, and is popularly known as Cleopatra's Needle, the other lies prostrate. Both have greatly suffered from the effects of sea breezes. The highest of all obelisks, that of St John of the Lateran, appears to have been removed from Thebes, and set up by Thothmes IV. 85 years after the death of Thothmes III. A small obelisk of Amenophis II., said to have been found in the Thebaid, apparently from Elephantine, is in the collection of the Duke of Northumberland at Slou. Sethos I. commenced the Flaminian obelisk, subsequently completed by Rameses II., and placed at the temple of Heliopolis. It was removed to Rome by Constantine, and found 16 feet under the surface in the pontificate of Gregory XIII., and erected in that of Sextus V. by the architect Fontana. The other obelisks of Rameses II. are, the one at the Luxor quarter of Thebes, the companion of which was removed to the Place de la Concorde at Paris in 1883; the two obelisks of San or Tamer of the Boboli Gardens of Florence, transported from the circus of Flora at Rome; the

obelisk of the Rotonda at Rome, erected by Clement XII., 1711 A.D.; and that of the Villa Madalena, which decorated the Ara Cæli of the Capitol. A fragment of another obelisk was in the Collegio Romano. No obelisks are known of other monarchs till the 26th dynasty. That of the Monte Citorio at Rome, erected by Psammetichus II. at Heliopolis, was transported by Augustus to the Campus Martius, having been exhumed 1748 A.D., and erected by the architect Antinori in that of Pius VI. Two other obelisks of small size, made of black basalt, dedicated by Nekhthorheb or Nectanebo II. at Hermopolis, commonly known as the obelisks of Cairo, are in the British Museum. Ptolemy Philadelphus is said to have erected in the Arsinoeum at Alexandria a plain obelisk of 80 cubits, cut in the quarries by Nectanebo. It was set up by the architect Satyrus. Two obelisks, erected by Ptolemy Euergetes II. and his wife Cleopatra, stood before the temple of Philae, one of which was removed to Corfe Castle by Mr. Bankes. The so-called Pamphiliano obelisk at Rome, erected by E. Bernini in 1651, in the Piazza Navona, under the pontificate of Innocent X., was removed from the Circus of Maxentius, having, as their hieroglyphical legends testify, been originally erected by Domitian before the Scarpeneum at Rome. The last of the Roman obelisks was the Barberini, which was found in 1683 on the site of the Circus of Aurelian, and finally erected in 1822 on the Monte Pincio. It was placed by the Emperor Hadrian before the mausoleum or cenotaph either of himself or Antinous, between 132–138 A.D. Barbarous hieroglyphs, found on the Sallustian obelisk, are copied from the Flaminian obelisk. It is supposed to have been transported to Rome, unadorned with hieroglyphs, by Sallustius Crispus, prefect of Numidia, and to have been set up in the gardens of Sallust, in the reign of Vespasian. It was erected by Antinori, 1789, before the Church of Trinità del Monte. It has been seen how, on the renaissance of the arts, the obelisks were restored and applied to the embellishments of modern Rome, either as columns in the centres of piazzas or squares, or else as the ornaments of fountains; one obelisk being set up alone in the centre of the piazzas and places of Italy and France, while in antiquity they always stood in pairs before the pylons.

Two small obelisks, and the apex of a third, have been found in Assyria, in shape of truncated prisms, the apices step-shaped. The most interesting is that of the north-west palace of Nimrud, of black marble, is 5 feet 9 inches high. Each side has five compartments of bas-reliefs, representing the tribute and offerings made to the Shalmaneser. It is covered with a cuneiform inscription, recording the annals of the king's reign, from his 1st to his 31st year. On it is represented the tribute of Jahu, king of Israel. A second obelisk, of white marble, measures 8 feet 2 inches high, is covered with bas-reliefs, representing scenes of war and tributes, winding round it like those of a Roman triumphal column. On it is an inscription of Shamash-Pul. The broken apex of the third has a dedication from Ashur-izir-pul II. An obelisk of Semiramis at Babylon is mentioned by Diodorus, and another of Arcturus was interpreted by Democritus. Under the Roman empire, obelisks were used as gnomons, placed in the public spaces, or erected in the *spina* of the circus. The first removal of obelisks to Rome took place in the reign of Augustus, who placed one in the circus, said to have been originally erected in the reign of Semenepatens, 85½ feet high; and another of 9 feet less, in the Campus Martius, and had it adjusted as a gnomon by the mathematician Faecundus Novus; a third obelisk was erected in the Circus of Caligula and Nero in the Vatican, and originally dedicated to the sun by Nuncorens, the son of Seosis, on the recovery of his sight. Two other small obelisks, which decorated the mausoleum of Augustus, and were erected by Claudius or Vespasian and his sons, have been found. Other obelisks are known, to have been removed by Constantius, 354 A.D. P. Victor, in his description of the quarters of ancient Rome, reckons 6 of the largest size and 42 others. The Romans added to them brazen spheres and other decorations. Some were removed to Constantinople by Theodosius the younger, and Valentinian, 390 A.D. The translation of the inscription of one of the Roman obelisks made by a Greek or Egyptian, named Hermapion, has been preserved by Ammianus Marcellinus.—Kircher, "Eduimus Egyptiacus" (tom. III. Rom. 1652–1654); Zoega, "De Origine et Usu Obeliscorum" (fo. Rom. 1797); Cipriani, "Sui Dodici Obelisci di Roma" (fo. Rom. 1828); L'Hoste, "Notice Historique sur les Obélisques Egyptiens" (8vo, Paris, 1836); Birch, "Notes upon Obelisks, in the Museum of Classical Antiquities" (8vo, Lond. 1858), pp. 208—

230; Layard, "Nineveh and its Remains," vol. i. p. 346; Sir H. Rawlinson, "A Commentary on the Cuneiform Inscriptions" (12mo, Lond. 1850).

OBERLIN, Johann Friedrich, distinguished for his active benevolence and usefulness, was born at Strasburg, 81st August 1740; and in 1765 became Protestant pastor of Waldbach, in the Ban de la Roche or Steinthal, a wild mountainous district of Alsace. Here he spent the remainder of his life, combining an affectionate diligence in the ordinary duties of the pastorate, with wise and earnest endeavors to promote the education and general prosperity of the people. The district had suffered terribly in the Thirty Years' War, and the scanty population which remained was sunk in poverty and ignorance. O. introduced better methods of cultivating the soil, and various branches of manufacture. The population, which was scarcely 500 when he entered on his labors, had increased to 6000 at the close of the century. Yet, though animated in all his actions by the most pure and disinterested piety, it may be questioned if he did not carry his moral supervision too far when he kept a register of the moral character of his parishioners, and searched with the minuteness though not the motives of an inquisitor, into the most insignificant details of their private life. O. was ably assisted in his reformatory labors by his pious housekeeper, Luise Schepler, who survived her master eleven years. He died 1st June 1826. Notwithstanding the humble sphere in which his days were spent, his fame as a philanthropist has extended over the world, and his example has stimulated and guided many. See "Brief Memorials of Oberlin," by the Rev T. Sims, M.A. (Lond. 1830), and also "Memoirs of Oberlin, with a short notice of Louisa Schepler" (Lond. 1838 and 1852).

O'BERON, the king of the Elves or Fairies, and the husband of Titania. The name is derived by a change of spelling from *Auberon*, more anciently *Alberon*, and that from the German *Alberich*, i. e., king of the Elves. O. is first mentioned as "Roi du royaume de la féerie" in the old French poem of "Huon de Bordeaux, pair de France," which was afterwards made the basis of a popular prose romance. From the French, O. was borrowed by the English poets, Chaucer, Spenser, and others, but he is most familiarly known from his appearance in Shakespeare's "Midsummer Night's Dream." From old French sources, also, Wieland derived part of the materials of his poem of "Oberon."

OBE'SITY, or Corpulence, may be defined to be "an accumulation of fat under the integuments or in the abdomen, or in both situations, to such an amount as to embarrass the several voluntary functions." A certain degree of fatness is not only quite compatible with health, but, as has been shewn in the article **FAT**, **ANIMAL**, the fatty tissue is of considerable use in the animal body, partly in consequence of its physical, and partly in consequence of its chemical properties; and it is only when the fatness begins to interfere with the discharge of any of the vital powers, that it can be regarded as a morbid condition. Obesity may occur at any period of life, but it is most commonly after the fortieth year that the tendency to an inordinate accumulation of fat begins to shew itself. After that time, in the case of men, the pleasures of the table are usually more attractive than in earlier life, and much less muscular exercise is taken; while in women, the cessation of the power of child-bearing induces changes which tend remarkably to the deposition of fat. The extent to which fat may accumulate in the human body is enormous. Daniel Lambert, who died at the age of forty years, weighed 739 lbs.; his exact height is not recorded, but, according to the investigations of the late Dr Hutchinson (the inventor of the spirometer), the normal weight of a man six feet high should not exceed 178 lbs. Dr Elliottson has recorded the case of a female child, a year old, who weighed 60 lbs; and those who are interested in the subject will find a large collection of cases of obesity in Wadd's "Cursory Remarks on Corpulence."

The predisposing causes of obesity are a peculiar habit of body, hereditarily transmitted; inactivity; sedentary occupations, &c.; while the more immediate or exciting causes are a rich diet, including fatty matters, and matters convertible in the body into fats, such as saccharine and starchy foods, and the partaking of such a diet to a greater extent than is necessary for balancing the daily waste of the tissues. "Fat meats, butter, oily vegetable substances, milk, saccharine and farinaceous substances are the most fattening articles of food; whilst malt liquors, particularly rich

and sweet ale are, of all beverages, the most conducive in promoting obesity. The fattening effect of figs and grapes, and of the sugar-cane, upon the natives of the countries where these are abundant, is well known. In various countries in Africa and the East, where obesity is much admired in females, warm baths, indulgence, and living upon saccharine and farinaceous articles, upon dates, the nuts from which palm-oil is obtained, and upon various oily seeds, are the means usually employed to produce this effect."—Copland's "Dictionary of Medicine," article "Obesity." The knowledge of the means of inducing obesity affords us the best clue to the rational treatment of this affection. It is a popular belief that the administration of acids—vinegar, for example, or one of the mineral acids—will check the deposition of fat; but if the desired effect is produced, it is only at the cost of serious injury to the digestive, and often to the urinary organs. The employment of soap and alkalies, as advocated a century ago by Dr Flaming ("A Discourse on the Nature, Causes, and Cure of Corpulency," 1760), is less objectionable than that of acids, but the prolonged use even of these is usually prejudicial. The efficacy of one of our commonest sea-weeds, sea-wrack (*Fucus vesiculosus*), in this affection has also been strongly advocated. It is prescribed in the form of an extract, and its value is probably dependent on the iodine contained in it.

A very interesting "Letter on Corpulence," published in 1863 by Mr Banting, in which he records the effect of diet in his own case, after all medicinal treatment had failed, is well worthy of the attention of those who are suffering from the affection of which this article treats. The following are the leading points in his case. He was 66 years of age, about 5 feet 5 inches in stature (and therefore, according to Dr Hutchinson's calculations, ought to have weighed 142 lbs.), and in August 1862 weighed 202 lbs. "Few men," he observes, "have led a more active life . . . so that my corpulence and subsequent obesity were not through neglect of necessary bodily activity, nor from excessive eating, drinking, or self-indulgence of any kind, except that I partook of the simple alimenta of bread, milk, butter, beer, sugar, and potatoes, more freely than my aged nature required. . . . I could not stoop to tie my shoe, nor attend to the little offices humanity requires without considerable pain and difficulty; I have been compelled to go down stairs slowly backward, to save the jar of increased weight upon the ankle and knee joints, and been obliged to puff and blow with every slight exertion" (pp. 10 and 14).

By the advice of a medical friend, he adopted the following plan of diet: "For breakfast I take four or five ounces of beef, mutton, kidneys, broiled fish, bacon, or cold meat of any kind except pork; a large cup of tea (without milk or sugar), a little biscuit, or one ounce of dry toast. For dinner, five or six ounces of my fish except salmon, any meat except pork, any vegetable except potato, one ounce of dry toast, fruit out of a pudding, any kind of poultry or game, and two or three glasses of good claret, sherry, or Madeira; champagne, port, and beer forbidden. For tea, two or three ounces of fruit, a rusk or two, and a cup of tea without milk or sugar. For supper, three or four ounces of meat or fish, similar to dinner, with a glass or two of claret (p. 18). I breakfast between eight and nine o'clock; dine between one and two; take my slight tea meal between five and six; and sup at nine" (p. 40). Under this treatment he lost in little more than a year (between the 26th of August 1862 and the 13th of September 1863) 46 lbs. of his bodily weight, while his girth round the waist was reduced 12½ inches. He reported himself as restored to health, as able to walk up and down stairs like other men; to stoop with ease and freedom; and safely to leave off knee-bandages, which he had *necessarily* worn for twenty years past. He made his own case widely known by the circulation of his pamphlet (which has passed through several editions); and "numerous reports sent with thanks by strangers as well as friends," shew that (to use his own words) "the system is a great success;" and that it is so we do not doubt, for it is based on sound physiological principles.

O'BIT (Lat. *obitus*, a "going down," "death"), literally means the decease of an individual. But as a certain ecclesiastical service was fixed to be celebrated on the day of death (*in die obitus*), the name came to be applied to the service itself. Obit therefore signifies, in old church language, the service performed for the departed. It consisted, in the Roman Church, of those portions of the *Officium Defunctorum* which are called Matins and Lauds, followed by a Mass of the Dead, chanted, or occasionally read. Similar services are held on the day of the funeral, and on the 30th

day, and the anniversary; and although the name *obit* was primitively applied only to the first, it has come to be used of them all indiscriminately.

OBJECT, in the language of Metaphysics, is that of which any thinking being or Subject can become cognizant. This subject itself, however, is capable of transmutation into an Object, for one may think about his thinking faculty. To constitute a metaphysical object, actual existence is not necessary; it is enough that it is conceived by the subject. Nevertheless, it is customary to employ the term objective as synonymous with real, so that a thing is said to be "objectively" considered when regarded in itself, and according to its nature and properties, and to be "subjectively" considered, when it is presented in its relation to us, or as it shapes itself in our apprehension. Scepticism denies the possibility of objective knowledge; i.e., it denies that we can ever become certain that our cognition of an object corresponds with the actual nature of that object. The verbal antithesis of objective and subjective representation is also largely employed in the fine arts, but even here, though the terms may be convenient, the difference expressed by them is only one of degree, and not of kind. When a poem or a novel, for example, obtrudes the peculiar genius of the author at the expense of a clear and distinct representation of the incident and character appropriate to itself, we say it is a subjective work; when, on the contrary, the personality of the author retires into the background, or disappears altogether, we call it objective. The poems of Shelley and Byron; the novels of Jean Paul Richter, Bulwer Lytton, and Victor Hugo; and the paintings of the Pro-Raphaelites belong essentially to the former class; the dramas of Shakespeare, the novels of Scott, and the poems of Goethe, to the latter.

OBJECT-GLASS, the glass in a Telescope (q. v.) or Microscope (q. v.), which is placed at the end of the tube nearest the object, and first receives the rays of light reflected from it.

OBLATES (Lat. *oblatus*, *oblata*, "offered up"), the name of a class of religious bodies in the Roman Catholic Church, which differ from the religious orders strictly so called, in not being bound by the solemn vows of the religious profession. The institute of oblates was one of the many reforms introduced in the diocese of Milan by St Charles Borromeo, towards the close of the 16th century. The members consisted of secular priests who lived in community, and were merely bound by a promise to the bishop to devote themselves to any service which he should consider desirable for the interest of religion. St Charles made use of their services chiefly in the wild and inaccessible Alpine districts of his diocese. This institute still exists, and has been recently introduced into England. Still more modern are the "Oblates of the blessed Virgin Mary," a body of French origin, which arose in the present century, and has been very widely extended; and whose chief object is to assist the parochial clergy, by holding missions for the religious instruction of the people in any district to which they may be invited. This body also has been established in England and in Ireland. Other similar institutes might be enumerated, but the constitution of all is nearly the same. There is also a female institute of oblates, which was established in Rome, about 1440, by St Francisca of Rome, and which consists of ladies associated for charitable and religious objects, and living in community, but bound only by promise, and not by vow.

OBLIGATION is a term used in Scotch Law to denote the binding effect of any legal contract, and is often used synonymously with contract or promise. An obligation is said to be pure when it may be instantly demanded (called in England an absolute contract). An obligation is conditional when it depends, for its legal effect, on some event which may or may not happen. Obligations are also divided into verbal and written.

OBLIGATO, in Music. When a musical composition is constructed in more than one part, any part is said to be obligato which is not merely employed to strengthen the others, but is necessary to the melodic perfection of the whole. An accompaniment is said to be obligato which does not consist of mere chords, but has its own melody.

O'BOE. See HAUTBOY.

O'BOLUS (Gr. *oboles* or *oboles*, a spit), the smallest of the four common Greek

**coins and weights,** was originally, as is generally supposed, a small piece of iron or copper, similar in form to the head of a spit, or spear head, whence its name. In this form it was used as a coin, and a handful of "oboli" was equivalent to a Drachma (q. v.). It was subsequently coined of silver, and in the ordinary round form, but still retained its original name; its value, both as a coin and a weight, was now fixed as the 1-6th part of a drachma, so that in the Attic system it was equivalent to 1½d. and 15 2-5 Troy grains respectively; while the Ægineitan obolus was worth 2½d. as a coin, and 25½ Troy grains as a weight. Multiples and submultiples of this coin were also used, and pieces of the value of 5, 4, 3, 2, 1½ oboli, and of ¾, ½, ¼, and ⅛ of an obolus respectively, are to be found in collections of coins.

O'BRIEN, William Smith, born in 1803, was the second son of the late Sir Edward O'Brien, Bart. of Dromoland, in the county of Clare, Ireland, and uncle of the present Lord Inchiquin; that ancient barony having recently passed to the Dromoland O'Briens on the failure of the elder branch. W. S. O. was educated at Harrow School, whence he passed to Trinity College, Cambridge. He entered parliament for the borough of Ennis in 1826, and was a warm supporter of Catholic emancipation. In 1836, he was returned on advanced liberal principles for the county of Limerick, and for several years strongly advocated the claims of Ireland to a strictly equal justice with England, in legislative as well as executive measures. Professing his inability to effect this in the united legislature, and having embroiled himself with the Speaker by refusing to serve on committees (for which refusal he was committed to prison in the House by the Speaker's order), he withdrew from attendance in parliament in 1841, and joined actively with Daniel O'Connell (q. v.) in the agitation for a repeal of the legislative union between England and Ireland. In the progress of that agitation, a division having arisen on the question of *moral* as against *physical force* between O'Connell and the party known as "Young Ireland," O. sided with the latter; and when the political crisis of 1848 eventuated in a recourse to arms, he took part in an attempt at rebellion in the south of Ireland, which in a few days came to an almost ludicrous conclusion. He was in consequence arrested, and having been convicted, was sentenced to death. The sentence, however, was commuted to transportation for life; and after the restoration of tranquillity in the public mind in Ireland, he, in common with the other political exiles, was permitted to return to his native country. From that date (1856) he spent much of his time in foreign travel; and although he wrote more than once in terms of strong disapproval of the existing state of things, he invariably abstained from all active share in the political proceedings of any party. He died June 1864.

**OBSCENE PRINTS.** Books or Pictures, exhibited in public render the person so doing liable to be indicted for a misdemeanor. Persons exposing them in streets, roads, or public places, are also liable to be punished as rogues and vagabonds with hard labor. An important change in the law was effected by Lord Campbell's Act (20 and 21 Vict. c. 83), which was passed to suppress the traffic in obscene books, pictures, prints, and other articles. Any two justices of the peace, or any police magistrate, upon complaint made before him on oath that such books, &c., are kept in any house, shop, room, or other place, for the purpose of sale, or distribution, or exhibition for gain or on hire, and that such things have been sold, &c., may authorise a constable to enter in the daytime, and, if necessary, use force by breaking open doors, or otherwise to search for and seize such books, &c., and carry them before the magistrate or justices, who may, after giving due notice to the occupier of the house, and being satisfied as to the nature and object of keeping the articles, cause them to be destroyed.

**OBSCURANTISTS.** the name given, originally in derision, to a party who are supposed to look with dislike and apprehension on the progress of knowledge, and to regard its general diffusion among men, taken as they are ordinarily found, as prejudicial to their religious welfare, and possibly injurious to their material interests. Of those who avow such a doctrine, and have written to explain and defend it, it is only just to say that they profess earnestly to desire the progress of all true knowledge as a thing good in itself; but they regard the attempt to diffuse it among

men, indiscriminately, as perilous, and often hurtful, by producing presumption and discontent. They profess but to reduce to practice the motto—

A little learning is a dangerous thing.

It cannot be doubted, however, that there are fanatics of ignorance as well as fanatics of science.

**OBSE'RVANTISTS**, or Observant Franciscans. Under the head **FRANCISCANS** (q. v.) has been detailed the earlier history of the controversies in that order on the interpretation of the original rule and practice established by St Francis for the brethren, and of the separate organisation of the two parties at the time of Leo X. The advocates of the primitive rigor were called *Observantes*, or *Stricioris Observantes*, but both bodies were still reputed subject, although each free to practise its own rule in its own separate houses, to the general administrator of the order, who, as the rigorists were by far the more numerous, was a member of that school. By degrees, a second reform arose among a party in the order, whose zeal the rigor of the O. was insufficient to satisfy, and Clement VII. permitted two Spanish friars, Stephen Molena and Martin Guzman, to carry out in Spain these views in a distinct branch of the order, who take the name of *Reformati*, or Reformed. This body has in later times been incorporated with the O. under one head. Before the French Revolution, they are said to have numbered above 70,000, distributed over more than 8000 convents. Since that time, their number has, of course, been much diminished; but they still are a very numerous and widespread body, as well in Europe as in the New World, and in the missionary districts of the East. In Ireland and England, and for a considerable time in Scotland, they maintained themselves throughout all the rigor of the penal times. Several communities are still found in the two first-named kingdoms.

**OBSERVATION AND EXPERIMENT** are the leading features of modern science, as contrasted with the philosophy of the ancients. They are indispensable as the bases of all human knowledge, and no true philosophy has ever made progress without them, either consciously or unconsciously exercised. Thus, by Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle, no less than by Archimedes and the ancient astronomers, observation and experiment are extensively though not prominently or always obviously employed; and it was by losing this clue to the spirit of them must we teach, that the later disciples in these schools of philosophy missed the path of real progress in the advancement of knowledge. It was in the latter half of the 16th c. that the minds of philosophers were first *consciously* awakened to the importance of observation and experiment, as opposed to authority and abstract reasoning. This result was first occasioned by the discoveries and controversies of Galileo in Florence; and to the same end were contributed the simultaneous efforts of a number of philosophers whose minds were turned in the same direction—Tycho Brahe in Holland, Kepler in Germany, William Gilbert in England, who were shortly afterwards followed by a crowd of kindred spirits. The powerful mind of Francis Bacon lent itself to describe the newly-awakened spirit of scientific investigation, and though he ignored or affected to despise the results achieved by the great philosophers just mentioned, he learned from them enough to lay the foundation of a philosophy of inductive science, which, if we look at the course of scientific progress since his day, seems to have been almost prophetic. The difference between observation and experiment may be said to consist in this, that by observation we note and record the phenomena of nature as they are presented to us in their ordinary course; whereas by experiment we note phenomena presented under circumstances artificially arranged for the purpose. Experiment is thus the more powerful engine for discovery, since one judiciously conducted experiment may provide the data which could only result from a long course of observations.

**OBSE'RVATORY**, an institution supplied with instruments for the regular observation of natural phenomena, whether astronomical, meteorological, or magnetic. In some observatories all three classes of observation are carried on, but in most cases special attention is paid to astronomy alone, and only such meteorological observations are taken as are required for the calculation of the effect of atmospheric refraction on the position of a heavenly body; there are, however, a few observatories which are devoted solely to meteorological or magnetic observations.

Confining our attention to astronomical observatories, it will be convenient to divide them into two classes—public and private observatories—the former being devoted to those observations which from their nature require to be continued on the same system for long periods of time, whilst the latter are usually founded for some special object, which may be attained with a comparatively small expenditure of time and labor.

The most important work which is carried out in public observatories is the determination of the movements of the sun, moon, and planets among the stars; and, as a corollary to this, the relative positions of the stars to which the other heavenly bodies are referred. In early times the Greek astronomers fixed these positions by means of armillary spheres and astrolabes, having concentric graduated circles, on which the latitudes and longitudes could be read off, when a pair of sights was pointed to the heavenly body. Ptolemy made use of a quadrant, with which he measured zenith distances on the meridian; and many centuries after, Tycho Brahe converted this form of instrument into an altazimuth by mounting it on a vertical axis in connection with a horizontal or azimuth circle. With this instrument Tycho Brahe made a long series of observations of the altitudes and azimuths of the heavenly bodies at the observatory which the king of Denmark erected for him, and he also measured with great assiduity their angular distances from each other by means of a sextant, a method of observation which Flamsteed afterwards employed with a much improved form of the instrument, and which is now extensively used with the reflecting sextant, for finding the longitude at sea. It was not till the middle of the last century that the improvement of the clock by Graham enabled astronomers to rely on it for the determination of right ascensions by the times of passage across the meridian, instead of by measuring them with a graduated circle. The quadrant was then fixed in the meridian, and being attached to a massive wall, its dimensions were increased, and greater accuracy thereby secured in the determination of meridian zenith distances. Two such instruments pointing respectively north and south were erected at the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, and used by Bradley and his successors from 1750 till they were displaced by the mural circle (see CIRCLE, MURAL), an instrument vastly superior in principle, since the troublesome errors of centring of the quadrant were got rid of by combining the readings of opposite parts of a graduated circle, whilst the effect of division errors was much reduced by taking the mean of the readings at six or eight equidistant points of the circle. At the same time, the accuracy of the readings was greatly increased by the invention of the micrometer-microscope, which made it possible to measure spaces to 1-100,000 of an inch. Neither the quadrant nor the mural circle, however, could be relied upon for accurate motion in the plane of the meridian, but Römer remedied this defect by inventing a separate instrument, the Transit (q. v.), which enabled astronomers to observe the times of meridian passage or transit with great accuracy, and thus to determine the differences of right ascension of the heavenly bodies by means of the apparent diurnal movement. With the transit and quadrant Bradley commenced that series of observations of the positions of the sun, moon, and planets, and of stars for reference, which have been continued ever since at Greenwich, and on which, in combination with less extensive series at Paris and Königsberg, all our tables of the motions of the heavenly bodies are founded. In modern observatories, the transit and mural circle are combined into one instrument, the transit-circle, a change which has been rendered possible chiefly by the improvement in graduated circles since the invention of Trroughton's dividing engine, the unwieldy size of the old quadrants and mural circles necessitating an attachment to a massive wall. Although Reichenbach made transit-circles at the beginning of this century for several foreign observatories, including that of Dorpat, the lightness of their structure and their want of stability prevented their being introduced generally, and the mural circle held its place in the principal observatories till Sir George Airy designed the Greenwich transit-circle in 1851, an instrument of a most massive character, which has served as model for nearly all that have been constructed in recent years. The main features of the modern transit-circle are: (1) that it is not reversible, its collimation error being determined by means of two collimators, or reversed telescopes pointing at each other and at the transit telescope, north and south respectively; (2) that a spirit-level is not used, the level error being found by means of the reflection of the wires from the horizontal surface of mercury. These two negative characteristics, while admitting of great

massiveness in construction (the Greenwich instrument weighs more than a ton), have removed three troublesome sources of error—inequality in the pivots, lateral flexure of the telescope in the process of reversion, and the effects of currents of heated air on a spirit-level. An important auxiliary to the transit-circle is the chronograph, an American invention, which, in various forms, is now found in all well-equipped observatories, the principle in all cases being the same—viz., the registration on a revolving cylinder of paper of the times of transit across the system of spider-lines of the transit-circle, as well as of the seconds of the sidereal clock, by means of electric currents which pass through electro-magnets, when the circuit is closed either by the observer or the clock, thus causing a momentary attraction of a piece of soft iron, and producing a corresponding mark on the paper either with a pen or a steel point. This system, while improving somewhat the accuracy of the individual observations, admits of a large number being made at intervals of two or three seconds, and leaves the observer free to make several observations of zenith distance during the passage of a star across the field of view. Allusion has been made to the importance of the sidereal clock in modern astronomy. Considerable improvements have been made in its construction since Graham's time, the original gridiron pendulum having been replaced successively by the mercurial and the zinc and steel, and the dead-beat escapement by Denison's gravity and Airy's detached escapement. Recently an apparatus depending on the attraction of a movable magnet connected with a float in a siphon barometer has been applied by Sir George Airy to the sidereal clock at Greenwich, to correct for the effect of variations in the atmospheric pressure on the motion of the pendulum. This clock is placed in a basement which is kept at a nearly uniform temperature, an important condition, which has contributed to make its performance very far superior to that of any other clock hitherto constructed, and fully equal to the requirements of the methods of observation now in use. With instruments such as have just been described, regular observations of the sun, moon, and planets, and of fundamental stars, are made at Greenwich, Paris, Washington, and Oxford, supplemented at the first-named observatory by extra-meridian observations of the moon with a massive altazimuth, which can be employed when the moon is too near new moon to be seen on the meridian in full daylight, and which is in fact used to secure an observation on every night when the moon is visible. The observations of stars at these four observatories are directed to the most accurate determination of the places of a limited number, and the deduction of their proper motions by comparison with the results obtained by Bradley, Piazzi (with an altazimuth by Rimoldi at Palermo), and Groombridge; but at other observatories differential or zone observations of large numbers of stars have been made, with the object of making a complete and tolerably accurate survey of the heavens, the rhomb or ring micrometer being used for this purpose. Among those who have devoted themselves to this work may be mentioned Lénaïle at the Cape of Good Hope, Lalande at Paris, Bessel at Königsberg, and Argelander at Bonn. These zone-observations are now being repeated with the transit-circle at a number of observatories, associated together for the purpose of getting far more accurate places than was possible with the equatorial. A large number of observatories, chiefly in Germany and America, are devoted to a very different class of observations—viz., differential observations with the Equatorial (q. v.) of comets and small planets as referred to comparison-stars, and the search for such objects; whilst at other observatories, among which that of Pulkowa may be mentioned, the measurement of double stars with the micrometer is laid down as the chief object. Of late years two new subjects have been introduced in the routine of observatory work—photography and spectroscopy. The former was carried on for many years at Kew Observatory under Mr De La Rue's auspices, and at his private observatory at Cranford, and the work is now being continued at Greenwich; the latter has been taken up at a number of Italian observatories, and particularly at Rome by P. Secchi, and it now forms part of the regular system at Greenwich, whilst the observatories at Paris, Berlin, and Vienna are equipped for these physical observations, and in America and Australia they are vigorously carried on at several observatories—Melbourne, in particular, being provided with a four-foot equatorial reflector for this purpose, as well as for the examination of nebulæ. The most important work of an observatory, however, consists, not in

making observations which are easily multiplied, but in reducing and publishing them—a task of far greater labor, and requiring far higher qualifications. However various may be the observations, the method of eliminating their errors is the same in all cases, and similar mathematical considerations apply to their reduction, whether they be meridian observations, micrometer measures, measures of photographs, or spectroscopic observations; and it is when such treatment is required in any inquiry that it should be undertaken at a public observatory, where this rigorous method will be applied.

The work of private observatories hardly admits of being specified, though its general character has already been indicated; it may suffice to mention the observations of double stars and nebulae by the two Herschels, Groombridge's catalogue of circum-polar stars, Smyth's double-star measures, Carrington's Railroad catalogue and solar observations, the nebular observations of Lord Rosse and Mr. Lassell, De La Rue's long series of photographs, and the spectroscopic observations of Huggins and Lockyer.

In addition to regular astronomical observations of all kinds, national observatories are usually charged with the distribution of time signals, and the rating of chronometers for the navy—matters of great practical importance, especially in this country, where Greenwich time is communicated directly by telegraph to more than six hundred towns.

**OBSIDIAN**, a mineral accurately described by Pliny under the name which it still bears. It is a true kind of native glass, composed of silica (from 70 to 80 per cent.), alumina, lime, soda, potash, and oxide of iron. It is hard and brittle, with remarkably vitreous lustre, and perfectly conchoidal fracture, the edges of the fractures very sharp and cutting like glass. It varies from semitransparency to translucency only on the edges. It is often black, or very dark gray; sometimes green, red, brown, striped, or spotted; and sometimes *chatoyant* or *avanturine*. It occurs in volcanic situations, and often in close connection with pumice, in roundish compact pieces, in grains and in fibres. It is capable of being polished, but is apt to break in the process. It is made into boxes, buttons, ear-drops, and other ornamental articles; and before the uses of the metals were well known, it was employed, in different parts of the world, for making arrow and spear heads, knives, &c. It is found in Iceland, the Lipari Isles, Vesuvius, Sarlilia, Hungary, Spain, Teneriffe, Mexico, South America, Madagascar, Siberia, &c. Black O. was used by the ancients for making mirrors, and for this purpose was brought to Rome from Ethiopia. It was used for the same purpose in Peru and Mexico. Mirrors of Black O. are indeed still employed by artists. Chatoyant or Avanturine O. is very beautiful when cut and polished, and ornaments made of it are sold at a comparatively high price.

**O'BVERSE**, or face, the side of a coin or medal which contains the principal device or inscription, the other side being in contradistinction called the reverse. See **NUMISMATICS**.

**OCCAM**, William of, surnamed *Doctor Singularis et Invincibilis*, a famous schoolman, was born in England, at the village of Occam, in the county of Surrey, about the year 1270. We do not possess any precise or satisfactory knowledge of his early life. He is said to have been educated at Merton College, Oxford, and to have held several benefices in his native country, but soon after resigned them on entering the Franciscan order. Early in the 14th c., it is supposed he proceeded to Paris, where he attended the lectures of Duns Scotus, of whose philosophy he was afterwards the most formidable opponent. Here he soon became prominent by the boldness of his ecclesiastical views. Philippe, le Bel, king of France, having forbidden Pope Boniface VIII. to levy contributions in his dominions, the latter, by way of retaliation, excommunicated him. O. rushed to the defence of the monarch, and in his "Disputatio inter Clericum et Militem super Potestate prelati Ecclesiae in que I'incipibus Terrarum Commissa," denies that the popes have any authority in temporal affairs, and boldly declares that all who favored such a doctrine ought to be expelled from the church as heretics. Meanwhile, from being a listener, he had become a lecturer in philosophy. The system which he advocated—for he was not properly its originator—is known by the name of *Nominalism* (q. v.), but it had never before received so rigorously logical and rational a treatment; hence his epithet of

**Invincibilis.** The work in which his views are set forth is entitled "Expositio Aeterea, et adinodium utilis super totam Artem Veterem." It contains a series of commentaries upon the "Isagoge" of Porphyry, and on the "Categories" and "Interpretation of Aristotle, with a special treatise headed "Tractatus Communianum Porphyrii," and a theological opusculum on Predestination. It is intended as a demolition of the moderns—i. e., the scholastics—and shews that in their method they have completely departed from the principles and methods of the great Stagyrite, for whom, like every sound and solid thinker, he shews the deepest respect and admiration. About 1320 or 1321, he again plunged into ecclesiastical controversy. A certain Narbonese priest, having affirmed that Jesus Christ and his apostles held everything in common, and that every ecclesiastical possession is a modern abuse, was pounced upon by the inquisitors, and defended by a certain Berenger Talon, a Franciscan monk of Perpignan. But Berenger's defence of apostolical poverty was naturally enough very disagreeable to the pope, John XXII., who therefore condemned it. Berenger was, however, vigorously supported by his order, and among others by Michael de Cesena, the general-superior, Bonagratia of Bergamo, and William of Occam, who attacked the pope with great vehemence and trenchant logic. Shortly after they were arrested as favorers of heresy, and imprisoned in Avignon. But while their trial was proceeding, Michael de Cesena and O., knowing what little mercy or justice they had to expect from their accusers and judges, made their escape to the Mediterranean, and were received at a little distance off shore on board a galley of Ludwig, king of Bavaria, the patron of the Franciscan anti-pope, Peter of Corbaro, and one of the most powerful sovereigns in Europe. The remainder of O.'s life was spent at Munich, where, safe from the machinations of his enemies, he continued to assail at once the errors of papistry in religion, and of realism in philosophy. He died 7th April 1347. It is impossible to praise O. too highly. He was the first logician, and the most rational philosopher among the whole body of schoolmen. We are often reminded by his clear and vigorous common sense and wholesome incredulity, that he was the countryman of Locke and Hobbes, and that he came of a people ever noted for the solidity of their understanding. Besides the works already mentioned, O.'s principal writings are—"Dialogus in tres Partes distinctus, quarum prima de Haereticis, secunda de Erroribus Joannis XXII., tertia de Potestate Papae, Conciliorum et Imperatoris;" "Opus Nonaginta Dram contra Errores Joannis XXII." "Compendium Errorum Joannis Papae XXII.;" "Decisiones Octo Quæstionum de Potestate summi Pontificis;" "Super Quatuor Libros Sententiarum Subtilissimæ Quæstiones earumque Decisiones" (based on Peter the Lombard's famous "Sententie," and containing nearly the entire theology of Occam). These "Decisiones" were long almost as renowned as the "Sententie," which gave them birth; "Antilogiam Theologicum;" "Summa Logices ad Adamum;" and "Major Summa Logices."—See Luke Wadding's "Scriptores Ordinis Minorum" (1650); Cousin's "Histoire de la Philosophie" (2d ed. 1840); and B. Hauréau's "De la Philosophie Scholastique" (1843).

OCCASIONALISM, or the doctrine of Occasional Causes (see CAUSE), is the name given to the philosophical system devised by Descartes and his school, for the purpose of explaining the action of mind upon matter, or, to speak more correctly, the combined, or at least the synchronous action of both. It is a palpable fact that certain actions or modifications of the body are accompanied by corresponding acts of mind, and *vise versa*. This fact, although it presents no difficulty to the popular conception, according to which each is supposed to act directly upon the other—body upon mind, and mind upon body—has long furnished philosophers a subject of much speculation. But on the other hand, it is difficult to conceive the possibility of any direct mutual interaction of substances so dissimilar, or rather so disparate. And more than one system has been devised for the explanation of the problem, as to the relations which subsist between the mind and the body, in reference to those operations, which are clearly attributable to them both. According to Descartes and the Occasionalists, the action of the mind is not, and cannot be *the cause* of the corresponding action of the body. But they hold that whenever any action of the mind takes place, God directly produces, in connection with it, and by reason of it, a corresponding action of the body; and in like manner conversely, they explain the coincident or synchronous actions of the body and the mind. It was in opposition to this view that Leibnitz, believing the Cartesian system to be open to nearly equal difficulties with that of the direct action, devised his system of *Pre-established Harmony*.

mony." See LEIBNITZ. His real objection to the Occasionalist hypothesis is, that it supposed a perpetual action of God upon creatures, and, in fact, is but a modification of the system of "direct assistance."

OCCULTATIONS (Lat. *occultatio*, a concealment) are neither more nor less than "eclipses;" but the latter term is confined by usage to the obscuration of the sun by the moon, and of the moon by the earth's shadow, while the former is restricted to the eclipses of stars or planets by the moon. Occultations are phenomena of frequent occurrence; they are confined to a belt of the heavens about  $10^{\circ} 17' \frac{1}{2}$  wide, situated parallel to, and on both sides of, the equinoctial, and extending to equal distances north and south of it, being the belt within which the moon's orbit lies. These phenomena serve as data for the measurement of the moon's parallax; and they are also occasionally employed in the calculation of longitudes. As the moon moves in her orbit from west to east, the occultation of a star is made at the moon's eastern limb, and the star emerges on the western limb. When a star is occulted by the dark limb of the moon (a phenomenon which can only occur between new moon and full moon), it appears to an observer as if it were suddenly extinguished, and this appearance is most deceptive when the moon is only a few days old. When an occultation occurs between full moon and new moon, the reappearance of the star at the outer edge of the dark limb produces an equally startling effect. "It has often been remarked," says Herschel, "that when a star is being occulted by the moon, it appears to advance actually upon and within the edge of the disc before it disappears, and that sometimes to a considerable depth." This phenomenon he considers to be an optical illusion, though he admits the possibility of its being caused by the existence of deep fissures in the moon's substance. Occultations of stars by planets and their satellites are of rarer occurrence than lunar occultations, and still more infrequent are the occultations of one planet by another. Occultations are calculated in the same way as eclipses, but the calculation is simplified in the case of the fixed stars, on account of their having neither sensible motion, semi-diameter, nor parallel.

OCEAN, a term which, like SEA, in its general acceptation, denotes the body of salt water that separates continent from continent, and is the receptacle for the waters of rivers. The surface of the ocean is about three-fifths of the whole surface of the earth. Although no portion of it is completely detached from the rest, the intervening continents and islands mark it off into divisions, which geographers have distinguished by special names: the *Atlantic Ocean* (q. v.), between America and Europe and Africa; the *Pacific Ocean* (q. v.), between America and Asia; the *Indian Ocean* (q. v.), lying south of Asia, and limited on the east and west by Australasia and South Africa; the *Arctic Ocean* (q. v.), surrounding the north pole; and the *Antarctic Ocean* (q. v.), surrounding the south pole. The general features and characteristics of the ocean will be described under SEA.

OCEANIA, the name given to the fifth division of the globe, comprising all the islands which intervene between the south-eastern shores of the continent of Asia and the western shores of the American continent. It naturally divides itself into three great sections—Malay Archipelago (q. v.), Australasia (q. v.), or Melanesia and Polynesia (q. v.).

O'CELOT, the name of several species of *Felidae*, natives of the tropical parts of South America, allied to the leopard by flexibility of body, length of tail, and other characters, but of much smaller size. They are usually included in the genus *Leopardus* by those who divide the Felidae into a number of genera. They are inhabitants of forests, and very expert in climbing trees. Their prey consists in great part of birds. They are beautifully marked and colored. The best known species, or COMMON O. (*Felis pardalis*), a native of the warm parts of America, from Mexico to Brazil, is from two feet nine inches to four feet long, exclusive of the tail, which is from eleven to fifteen inches, and nearly of uniform thickness. The ears are thin, short, and pointed. The muzzle is rather elongated. The colors vary considerably, but the ground tint is always a rich red or tawny color, blending finely with the dark brown on the margins of the open spots, of which there are chains along the sides; the head, neck, and legs being also variously spotted or banded with dark brown or black. The O. is easily tamed, and is very gentle and playful, but excessively mischievous. It may be fed on porridge and milk, or other such food, and is said to be

then more gentle than if permitted to indulge in carnivorous appetites.—Very similar to the Common O. are several other American species, as the LINKED O. (*F. catenata*), the LONG-TAILED O. (*F. macrourus*), the CHATI (*F. mitis*), &c. The similarity extends to habits and disposition, as well as form.

O'CHIL HILLS, a hilly range in Scotland, occupying parts of the counties of Perth, Clackmannan, Stirling, Kinross, and Fife, and extending from the vicinity of Stirling north-east to the Firth of Tay. The range is 24 miles in length, and about 12 miles in breadth. The highest summit is Beucleugh (2352 feet), near the southwest extremity. The hills, which are formed chiefly of green-stone and basalt, contain silver, copper, and iron ores, and afford excellent pasturage.

OCHNA-CÆÆ, a natural order of exogenous plants, containing not quite 100 known species, natives of tropical and subtropical countries. Some of them are trees, most of them under-shrubs; all are remarkable for their smoothness in all parts. Bitter and tonic qualities prevail in this order, and some species are medicinally used in their native countries. The seeds of *Gonophia jacobinia* yield an oil, which is used in salads in the West Indies and South America.

O'CHRES, the name usually applied to clays colored with the oxides of iron in various proportions, giving to the clay a lighter or deeper color. Strictly speaking, the term belongs only to a combination of peroxide of iron with water. From many mines large quantities of water charged with ferruginous mud are being continually pumped up, and from this water the colored mud or ochre settles. In this way large quantities are procured from the tin mines of Cornwall, and the lead and copper mines of North Wales and the Isle of Man. Ochres occur also ready formed, in beds several feet thick, in the various geological formations, and are occasionally worked, as at Shotover Hill, Oxford, in Holland, and many other places in Europe and America. Very remarkable beds are worked in Canada. The ochres so obtained are either calcined for use or not, according to the tint wanted. The operation adds much to the depth of color, by increasing the degree of oxidation of the contained iron. The most remarkable varieties of ochre are the Siena Earth (Terra di Siena) from Italy; the so-called red chalk, with which sheep are marked; Dutch Ochre; Armenian Bole or Lemnian Earth; Italian Rouge, and Bitry Ochre. They vary in color from an Isabella yellow, through almost every shade of brown, up to a tolerably good red. The finest kinds are used by painters, the coarsest by carpenters for marking out their work, by farmers for marking cattle, &c.

O'CHRO. See HIBISCUS.

OCKMU'LGE, a river in Georgia, U. S., which rises in the northern centre of the state by three branches, and after a course of 200 miles south-south-east, joins the Oconee, to form the Altamaha. It is navigable to Macon, 130 miles above its mouth.

OCCO'NEE, a river of Georgia, U. S., rises in the north-east part of the state, and flows southerly 250 miles, where it unites with the Ockmulgee to form the Altamaha; it is navigable to Milledgeville, 100 miles.

O'CONNELL, Daniel, eldest son of Mr Morgan O'Connell of Darrynane, near Cahirciveen, in the county of Kerry, Ireland, was born August 9, 1775. His family was ancient, but straitened in circumstances. O'C. received his first education from a hedge-schoolmaster, and after a further training under a Catholic priest in the county of Cork, was sent in 1790 to the English College at St Omer. His school reputation was very high; but he was driven home prematurely by the outbreak of the Revolution, and in 1794, entered as a law-student at Lincoln's Inn. In 1793, he was called to the bar; and it was the boast of his later career as an advocate of the Repeal of the Union with England, that his first public speech was delivered at a meeting in Dublin, convened for the purpose of protesting against that projected measure. He devoted himself assiduously, however, to the practice of his profession, in which he rose steadily. By degrees, the Roman Catholic party having begun to rally from the prostration into which they had been thrown through the rebellion of 1798 and its consequences, O'C. was drawn into public political life. In all the meetings of his co-religionists for the prosecution of their claims, he took a part, and his unquestioned ability soon made him a leader. He was an active

member of all the successive associations which, under the various names of "Catholic Board," "Catholic Committee," "Catholic Association," &c., were organised for the purpose of procuring the repeal of the civil disabilities of the Catholic body. Of the Catholic Association he was himself the originator; and although his supremacy in its councils was occasionally challenged by some aspiring associates, he continued all but supreme down to its final dissolution. By means of this association, and the "Catholic Rent" which it was enabled to raise, he created so formidable an organisation throughout Ireland, that it gradually became apparent that the desired measure of relief could no longer be safely withheld; and the crisis was precipitated by the bold expedient adopted by O'C. of procuring himself to be elected member of parliament for Clare in 1828, notwithstanding his well-known legal incapacity to serve in parliament, in consequence of his being obliged to refuse the prescribed oaths of abjuration and supremacy, which then formed the ground of the exclusion of Roman Catholics from the legislature. This decisive step towards the settlement of the question, although it failed to procure for O'C. admission to parliament, led to discussions within the House, and to agitations outside, so formidable, that in the beginning of the year 1829, the Duke of Wellington and Sir Robert Peel found it expedient to give way; and, deserting their former party, they introduced and carried through, in the spring of that year, the well-known measure of Catholic Emancipation. O'C. was at once re-elected, and took his seat for Clare, and from that date until his death continued to sit in parliament. He was elected for his native county in 1830, for the city of Dublin in 1836, for the town of Kilkenny in 1838 (having been unseated for Dublin on petition), for Dublin again in 1837, and for the county of Cork in 1841. During all these years, having entirely relinquished his practice for the purpose of devoting himself to public affairs, he received, by means of an organised annual subsidy, a large yearly income from the voluntary contributions of the people, by whom he was idolised as their "Liberator;" and who joined with him in all the successive agitations against the act of Union, against the Protestant Church establishment, and in favor of reform, in which he engaged. In the progress of more than one of these political agitations, his associations were suppressed by the government; and the agitation for a Repeal of the Union, recommenced in 1841, and carried on by "monster meetings" throughout Ireland, at which O'C. himself was the chief speaker, assumed proportions so formidable, that he, in common with several others, was indicted for a seditious conspiracy, and after a long and memorable trial, was convicted, and sentenced to a year's imprisonment, with a fine of £2000. This judgment was reversed by the House of Lords; and O'C., on his discharge, resumed his career; but his health had suffered from confinement, and still more from dissensions and opposition in the councils of his party; and as, on the return of the Whigs to power in 1846, he consented to support their government, the malcontents of the Repeal Association openly separated from him, and a bitter feud between "Young" and "Old" Ireland ensued. In this quarrel, O'C. steadfastly maintained his favorite precept of "moral force," and was supported by the great body of the Catholic bishops and clergy; but his health gave way in the struggle. He was ordered to try a milder climate; and on his journey to Rome in the spring of 1847, he was suddenly seized with paralysis, and died at Genoa on the 15th May of that year. His eminence as a public speaker, and especially as a master of popular eloquence, is universally admitted. Into the controversies as to his public and political character, it is not our place to enter here. His speeches unfortunately were for the most part extempore, and exist but in the reports (uncorrected by himself) taken at the time. He published but a single volume, "A Memoir of Ireland, Native and Saxon," and a few pamphlets; the most important of which, as illustrating his personal history and character, is "A Letter to the Earl of Shrewsbury."—See "Life and Times of Daniel O'Connell," by his son, John O'Connell; also "Recollections of Daniel O'Connell," by John O'Neill Daniel; Fugan's "Life of Daniel O'Connell;" and "The Liberator," by L. F. Cusack (1872).

OCTAGON, a plane closed figure of eight sides. When the sides are equal, and also the angles, the figure is called a "regular octagon;" in this case, each angle is 135°, or equal to three half right angles. If the alternate corners of a regular octagon be joined, a square is constructed; and as the angle contained between the sides of

the square and of the octagon is one-fourth of a right angle, the octagon may easily be constructed from the square as a basis.

OCTAHE'DRON, (Gr. *okto*, eight, *hedra*, base) is a solid figure bounded by eight triangles, and having twelve edges and six angles. A *regular* octahedron has its eight triangular faces all equilateral, and may, for convenience, be defined as a figure composed of two equal and similar square pyramids with equilateral triangles for their sides placed base to base. This solid is symmetrical round any angle, and is one of Plato's five regular solids. The octahedron appears in nature as one of the forms of crystals of sulphur.

O'CTAVE (Lat. *octava*, eighth), the interval between any musical note and its most perfect concord, which is double its pitch, and occupies the position of the eighth note from it on the diatonic scale. The name octave is often given to the eighth note itself as well as to the interval. There is between a note and its octave a far closer relation than between any other two notes; they go together almost as one musical sound. In combination, they are hardly distinguishable from one another, and their harmonics agree invariably, a coincidence which occurs in the case of no other interval.

OCTA'VIA, the sister of the Roman emperor Augustus, and wife of Mark Antony. She was distinguished for her beauty, her noble disposition, and won many virtues. Her first husband was C. Marcellus, to whom she was married 58 B.C. He died 41 B.C., shortly after which she consented to marry Antony, to make secure the reconciliation between him and her brother. The event was highly ~~rejoice~~ by all classes. In a few years, Antony became tired of his gentle and virtuous spouse, and forsook her for Cleopatra. When the Parthian War broke out, O. wanted to accompany her husband, and actually went as far as Corcyra, whence Antony sent her home, that she might not interrupt his guilty interview with the Egyptian queen. In 35 B.C., O. made an effort to rescue him from a degradation that was indifferent even to the honor of the Roman arms, and sailed from Italy with reinforcements; but a message reached her at Athens ordering her to return home. She proudly obeyed, but, with a magnanimity that reminds us of the Roman character in earlier and better days, she forwarded the supports to her husband. Her brother, Octavian, was indignant at the treatment she received, and would have had her quit her husband's house, and come and live with him; but she refused. In 33 B.C., war, long inevitable, broke out between Antony and Octavian; and the former crowned his usurpation by sending O. a bill of divorce. But no injury was too great to be forgiven by this "patient Grizel" of the ancient world; and after her husband's death, she brought up with maternal care not only her own children, but also Cleopatra's bastards. Her death took place 11 B.C.

OCTO'BER (Lat. *octo*, eight) was the eighth month of the so-called "year of Romulus," but became the tenth when (according to tradition) Numa changed the commencement of the year to the first of January, though it retained its original name. It has since maintained its position as the tenth month of the year, and has 31 days. October preserved its ancient name notwithstanding the attempts made by the Roman senate, and the emperors Commodus and Domitian, who substituted for a time the terms Faustinus, Invictus, Domitianus. Many Roman and Greek festivals fell to be celebrated in this month, the most remarkable of which was the sacrifice at Rome of a horse (which was called *October*) to the god Mars. The other festivals were chiefly bacchanalian. Among the Saxons, it was styled *Wyn moneth* or the wine month.

OCTO'PODA (Gr. eight-footed), a section of dibranchiate cephalopods (see CEPHALOPODA), having the body in general very short, the head very distinct; eight arms, not very unequal, furnished with simple suckers; with or without a shelly covering. To this section belong Argonauts, Poulpees, &c.

OCTO'PUS. See POULPE.

O'C'TOSTYLE, the name given in classic architecture to a portico composed of eight columns in front.

OCTROI (Lat. *auctoritas*, authority), a term which originally meant any ordinance authorised by the sovereign, and thence came to be restrictively applied to a

toll or tax in kind levied from a very early period in France and other countries of Northern Europe, on articles of food which passed the barrier or entrance of a town. The right to levy this toll was often delegated to subjects, and in order to increase its amount, a device was resorted to of raising the weight of the pound in which the octroi was taken. The large pound, an ounce heavier than that in ordinary use, was called the *livre d'octroi*, whence the expression *pound troy*. The octroi came eventually to be levied in money, and was abolished in France at the Revolution. In 1793, it was re-established, under the pretext that it was required for purposes of charity and called the *octroi de bienfaisance*, and it has been reorganized in 1816, 1842, and 1852. Of the octroi duty which is at present levied at the gates of the French towns, one-tenth goes to the national treasury, and the rest to local expenses. The octroi officers are entitled to search all carriages and individuals entering the gates of a town. From the octrois of Paris, government derived, a few years ago, a revenue of 56 million francs. In 1860, the Belgian government acquired popularity by abolishing the octroi.

The epithet *octroyé* is applied by continental politicians to a constitution granted by a prince, in contradistinction to one which is the result of a pact between the sovereign and the representatives of the people. Any public company possessing an authorized monopoly like that held by the East India Company, is said to be *octroyé*.

OD (from the same root as Odin, and supposed to mean all-pervading), the name given by Baron Reichenbach (q. v.) to a peculiar physical force which he thought he had discovered. This force, according to him, pervades all nature, and manifests itself as a flickering flame or luminous appearance at the poles of magnets, at the poles of crystals, and wherever chemical action is going on. This would account for the luminous figures said to be sometimes seen over recent graves. The od force has positive and negative poles, like magnetism. The human body is od-positive on the left side, and od-negative on the right. Certain persons, called "sensitives," can see the odic radiation like a luminous vapor in the dark, and can feel it by the touch like a breath. As the meeting of like odic poles causes a disagreeable sensation, while the pairing of unlike poles causes a pleasant sensation, we have thus a sufficient cause for those likings and antipathies hitherto held unaccountable. Some sensitive persons cannot sleep on their left side (in the northern hemisphere), because the north pole of the earth, which is od-negative, affects unpleasantly the od-negative left side. All motion generates od; why, then, may not a stream running underground affect a sensitive water-finder, so that the divining-rod in his or her hand shall move without, it may be, any conscious effort of will? All the phenomena of mesmerism are ascribed to the workings of this od-force. Reichenbach does not pretend to have had the evidence of his own senses for any of those manifestations of his assumed od-force; the whole theory rests on the revelations made to him by "sensitives." It may be added, that few if any really scientific men have any belief in the existence of such a force.—Those curious in such matters are referred for the details of the subject to Reichenbach's large work, translated into English by Dr Ashburner, under the title of "The Dynamics of Magnetism," or to a briefer account in his "Odisch-Magnetische Briefe" (Stutt. 1852).

O'DAL or Udal Right (Celtic *od*, property), a tenure of land which was absolute, and not dependent on a superior, and prevailed throughout Northern Europe before the rise of feudalism. It was founded on the tie of blood which connected freeman with free man, and not on the tie of service. It was the policy of the sovereign authority everywhere to make it advantageous for the freemen to exchange the odal tie for the tie of service—a change which paved the way for the feudal system. The odallers of Orkney were allowed to retain or resume their ancient privileges on paying a large contribution to the erection of St Magnus's Cathedral at Kirkwall; and the Odal tenure prevails to this day to a large extent in the Orkney and Shetland Islands, the right to land being completed without writing by undisturbed possession proved by witnesses before an inquest.

ODD-FELLOWS, the name assumed by one of the most extensive self-governed provident associations in the world. The institution was originated in Manchester in 1812, although isolated "lodges" had existed in various parts of the country for some time previously. These latter were generally secret fraternities, humble imi-

tations of Freemasonry—adopting a similar system of initiatory rites, phraseology, and organisation—instituted for social and convivial purposes, and only occasionally extending charitable assistance to members. On its institution in Manchester, the main purpose of Odd-fellowship was declared by its laws to be, “to render assistance to every brother who may apply through sickness, distress, or otherwise, if he be well attached to the Queen and government, and faithful to the order;” and this continues to be the basis of all its operations. It still, however, retains some of the characteristics of Freemasonry, in possessing pass-words and peculiar “grips,” whereby members can recognise one another. The headquarters of the society are at Manchester, where the Grand Master and Board of Directors meet quarterly to hear appeals, and transact the general business of the order. In January 1852, the total number of members was 224,441; in January 1873, the number was 470,043; and during 1872, 34,699 new members joined. The lodges number 4003, spread over 453 districts; the annual income being about £595 000, with an expenditure of nearly £396,000. Should any lodge fail to meet its legitimate obligations, the district becomes liable; failing the district, the responsibility falls upon the entire Unity. The order is widely spread over the whole of England and Scotland. It exists independently in America, Australia, New Zealand, and the West Indies; but there are “lodges” in Philadelphia, New York, in all the British colonies, and one in Constantinople (originated in 1802), which are affiliated to and in connection with the Manchester Board. These wide-spread ramifications of this society enable emigrant members to be at once received into fellowship in those countries. In the American States, Odd-fellowship is said to exercise considerable political influence. A quarterly periodical, called the “Odd-fellows’ Magazine,” devoted to its interests, is published in Manchester. In an early number of this publication, an Oddfellow is described as “like a fox for cunning, a dove for tameless, a lamb for innocence, a lion for boldness, a bee for industry, and a sheep for usefulness.”

**ODE** (Gr. a song) originally meant any lyrical piece adapted to be sung. In the modern use of the word, odes are distinguished from songs by not being necessarily in a form to be sung, and by embodying loftier conceptions and more intense and passionate emotions. The language of the ode is therefore abrupt, concise, and energetic; and the highest art of the poet is called into requisition in adapting the metres and cadences to the varying thoughts and emotions. Hence the changes of metre and versification that occur in many odes. The rapt state of inspiration that gives birth to the ode, leads the poet to conceive all nature as animated and conscious, and, instead of speaking *about* persons and objects, to address them as present.

Among the highest examples of the ode are the “Song of Moses” and several of the psalms. Dryden’s “Alexander’s Feast” is reckoned one of the first odes in the English language. We may mention, as additional specimens, Gray’s “Bard,” Collins’s “Ode to the Passions,” Burns’s “Scots wha ha’e,” Coleridge’s “Ode to the Departing Year and Dejection,” Shelley’s “Ode to the Skylark,” and Wordsworth’s “Ode on the Recollections of Immortality in Childhood.”

**O'DENKIRCHEN**, a town of Rhine-h Prussia, 15 miles west-south-west from Düsseldorf, near the right bank of the Niers. It has manufactures of velvets, paper, leather, &c., and like many of the other manufacturing towns in the same district, has recently much increased in size and population. Pop. (1871) 7631.

**O'DENSEE** (anciently known as Odin's-Ey, or Odin's Oe (i. e., Odin's Island), the chief town of the Danish island of Funen, and the oldest city of the kingdom, situated in the amt or district of the same name, in  $55^{\circ} 25'$  n. lat., and  $10^{\circ} 20'$  e. long. Pop. (1870) 16,970. O., which is the seat of the governor of the island and the see of a bishop, has a gymnasium, several literary societies, and is an active, thriving, provincial town. A bishopric was founded here in 988, prior to which time O. bore the reputation of being the first city established by Odin and his followers. The cathedral, founded in 1086 by St Knud, whose remains, like those of several of the early Danish kings, were deposited here, is a fine specimen of the early simple Gothic style. The lay convent or college for ladies contains an extensive library, furnished with copies of all printed Danish works. At O. a diet was held in 1527, in which the Reformed or Lutheran doctrines were declared to be the established creed of Den-

mark, and equality of rights was granted to Protestants; while another diet held here in 1539 promulgated the laws regulating the affairs of the Reformed Church.

**O'DENWALD.** See **HESSE-DARMSTADT.**

**O'DER** (Lat. *Vindrus*, Slavon. *Vjodr*), one of the principal rivers of Germany, rises in the Leselberg on the table-land of Moravia, more than 1000 feet above the level of the sea, and enters Prussian Silesia at Odersberg, after a course of some 60 miles. After traversing Brandenburg in a north-west direction, it crosses Pomerania, and empties itself into the Stettiner Haff, from whence it passes into the Baltic by the triple arms of the Dievenow, Peene, and Swine, which enclose the islands of Wollin and Usedom. The O. has a course of more than 500 miles, and a river-basin of 50,000 square miles. The rapid flow of this river, induced by its very considerable fall, is accelerated by the affluence of several important mountain-streams, and thus contributes, together with the silting at the embouchures of these streams, to render the navigation difficult; great expense and labor being, moreover, necessary to keep the embankments in order, and prevent the overflowing of the river. The O. has numerous secondary streams, the most important of which are the Oppa, Neisse, Orlau, Klodnitz, Bartsch, Warte, and the Ihna; and is connected with the Havel and thence with the Elbe by the Finow Canal, and with the Spree by the Friedrich-Wilhelms Canal. The chief trading port of the O. is Swinemunde, which constitutes an important centre for the transfer of colonial and other foreign goods to Northern Germany and Poland. At Rathor, 17 miles below Oderberg, the river becomes navigable, and is upwards of 100 feet in breadth; at Oppeln, in Prussian Silesia, it has a breadth of 238 feet. As a boundary river, it is of considerable importance in a military point of view, and is well defended by the fortresses of Kosl, Grossglogau, Küstrin, and Stettin.

**ODESSA**, an important seaport and commercial city of South Russia, in the government of Kherson, stands on an acclivity sloping to the shore, on the north-west coast of the Black Sea, 82 miles north-east of the mouth of the Dniester. Lat.  $46^{\circ} 29' n.$ , long.  $30^{\circ} 44' e.$  The harbor is formed by two large moles defended by strong works, and is capable of containing 200 vessels. The bay is deep enough even close in shore to admit the approach of the largest men-of-war, and is frozen only in the severest winters, and then only for a short time. The promenade along the face of the cliff, descending to the shore by a broad stone stair of 200 steps, is the favorite walk of the inhabitants. Here also stands the monument of the Duc de Richelieu, to whom in great part the town is indebted for its prosperity. In the pedestal of the monument is preserved the ball by which he was shot during the bombardment of the town by the allied fleet in 1854. The university of O., founded in 1853, had, in 1877, 48 professors and 252 students; and the library possessed over 150,000 volumes. The city contains many fine edifices, as the Cathedral of St. Nicholas, the Admiralty, the Custom-house, &c. Owing to the intensity of the heat in summer (rising occasionally to  $120^{\circ}$ ), and the dryness of the soil, vegetation in the vicinity of O. is very poor. In the neighborhood are quarries of soft stone, which is used for building purposes in O. and in the surrounding towns. One of the great deficiencies of O. used to be its want of good water; but works for securing an ample supply from the Dniester were completed in 1873. Gas was first used in O. in 1861; and the theatre, the hotels, and all the larger houses now use this handier of the artificial lights. A railway, opened in 1872, has added enormously to the commercial success and importance of O., as it connects it, and of course Kherson, with the governments north and east of it in Russia. The estimated value of the various quantities of grain, wool, hides, tallow, and other articles of export for the year 1871, was £7,110,000, of which amount, the value of goods shipped to the United Kingdom and its colonies, or for other parts of Europe, in British vessels, was £2,372,000—about a third of the whole outward trade. The rapid strides O. has made in commerce within the last few years, will be seen when this latter sum is compared with the corresponding ones of 1858 and 1869; the former year shewing the sum of £670,000; and the latter exhibiting a fall down to £465,000. The population of O. in 1867 was 121,335.

In ancient times O. (Gr. *Odessa*) was inhabited by a Greek colony, and later by Tatar tribes. In the beginning of the 15th c., the Turks constructed a fortress here, which was taken by the Russians in 1789. In 1793, a Russian fortress was built

here, and became the nucleus of a town and port, which two years after received the name of Odessa. The Duc de Richelien, a French emigrant in the Russian service, was appointed governor here in 1803, and during the eleven years of his wise administration, the town prospered rapidly. Since 1823, the city has formed part of the general governorship of South Russia; is the seat of its administration, and is the residence of the governor-general and of an arch-bishop. The advantageous commercial position of the city, and the privileges granted to it by government, but chiefly the privileges of a free port between 1817 and 1858 (in place of which it now receives an annual subsidy) have developed this city from a mere Turkish fortress into the chief commercial town of the Russian empire after St Petersburg and Riga. On the outbreak of the Crimean War, April 1854, the British steamer *Various* went to O. for the purpose of bringing away the British consul. While under a flag of truce, she was fired upon by the batteries of the city. On the failure of a written message from the admirals in command of the fleet to obtain explanations, twelve war-steamsers invested O., 22d April, and in a few hours destroyed the fortifications, and took a number of Russian vessels.

**ODEYPOOR**, Oodypore, or Udalpur, the name of several territories in India.—1. The principal is a Rajput state, also called Meywa; area about 11,600 sq. m., and pop. (1871) 1,160,000.—2. A tributary state in Chota Nagpore, with an area of 1051 sq. m.; pop. 27,703.—3. Chota O. is a tributary state in Gujarat; area 650 m.; pop. 62,913.

**O'DIN**, the chief god of Northern Mythology. According to the sagas, O. and his brothers, Vile and Ve, the sons of Boer, or the first-born, slew Ymer or Chaos, and from his body created the world, converting his flesh into dry land; his blood, which at first occasioned a flood, into the sea; his bones into mountains; his skull into the vault of heaven; and his brows into the spot known as *Midgaard*, the middle part of the earth, intended for the habitation of the sons of men. O., as the highest of the gods, the *Afader*, rules heaven and earth, and is omniscient. As ruler of heaven, his seat is Valaskjalf, from whence his two black ravens, Huginn (Thought) and Muninn (Memory), fly daily forth to gather tidings of all that is being done throughout the world. As god of war, he holds his court in Valhalla, whither come all brave warriors after death to revel in the tumultuous joys in which they took most pleasure while on earth. His greatest treasures are his eight-footed steed Sleipner, his spear Gungner, and his ring Draupner. As the concentration and source of all greatness, excellence, and activity, O. bears numerous different names. By drinking from Mimir's fountain, he became the wisest of gods and men, but he purchased the distinction at the cost of one eye. He is the greatest of sorcerers, and imparts a knowledge of his wondrous arts to his favorites. Frigga is his queen, and the mother of Baldur, the Scandinavian Apollo; but he has other wives and favorites, and a numerous progeny of sons and daughters. Although the worship of O. extended over all the Scandinavian lands, it found its most zealous followers in Denmark, where he still rides abroad as the wild huntsman, rushing over land and water in the storm-beaten skies of winter.

The historical interpretation of this myth, as given by Snorre Sturleson, the compiler of the "Heimskringla, or Chronicles of the Kings of Norway prior to the introduction of Christianity," and followed in recent times by the historian Snhm, is, that O. was a chief of the *Æsir*, a Scythian tribe, who, fleeing before the ruthless aggressions of the Romans, passed through Germany to Scandinavia, where, by their noble appearance, superior prowess, and higher intelligence, they easily vanquished the inferior races of those lands, and persuaded them that they were of godlike origin. According to one tradition, O. conquered the country of the Saxons on his way; and leaving one of his sons to rule there, and introduced a new religion, in which he, as the chief god Wuotan, received divine honors, advanced on his victorious course, and making himself master of Denmark, placed another son, Skjold, to reign over the land, from whom descended the royal dynasty of the Skjoldingar. He next entered Sweden, where the king, Gyli, accepted his new religion, and with the whole nation worshipped him as a divinity, and received his son Yugni as their supreme lord and high-priest, from whom descended the royal race of the Yuglingars, who long reigned in Sweden. In like manner he founded, through his son Steinling, a new dynasty in Norway; and besides these, many sovereign families of Northern Germany, includ-

ing our own Saxon princes, traced their descent to Odir. As it has been found impossible to refer to one individual all the mythical and historical elements which group themselves around the name of O., Wodin, or Wnotan, it has been suggested by Sulm and other historians, that there may have been two or three ancient northern heroes of the name; but notwithstanding the conjectures which have been advanced since the very dawn of the historical period in the north in regard to the origin and native country of the assumed O., or even the time at which he lived, all that relates to him is shrouded in complete obscurity. It is much more probable, however, that the myth of O. originated in nature-worship. See SCANDINAVIAN MYTHOLOGY.

ODOA'cer (also Odovacer, Odobagor, Odovachar, Otachar, &c., and, according to St. Martin, the same as Ottochar, a name frequent in Germany during the middle ages), the ruler of Italy from the year 476 to 493, was the son of Edecon, a secretary of Attila, and one of his ambassadors to the court of Constantinople. This Edecon was also captain of the Scyri, who formed the bodyguard of the king of the Hung. After the death of Attila, he remained faithful to the family of his master, but perished about 468 in an unequal struggle with the Ostrogoths. He left two sons, Onnulf and Odoacer, the former of whom went to seek his fortune in the East; while O., after leading for some time the life of a bandit chief among the Noric Alps, determined to proceed to Italy, whither barbarian adventurers were flocking from all Europe. According to a monkish legend, a pious hermit, St. Severinus, whom he went to visit before his departure, prophesied his future greatness. O. entered the military service of the Western Roman Empire, and rapidly rose to eminence. He took part in the revolution by which Orestes (476) drove the Emperor Julius Nepos from the throne, and conferred on his son Romulus the title of Augustus, which the people scoffingly changed into Augustinus. He soon perceived the weakness of the new ruler, and resolved to profit by it. He had little difficulty in persuading the barbarian soldiery, who had effected the revolution, that Italy belonged to them, and in their name demanded of Orestes the third part of the land, as the reward of their help. This Orestes refused; and O., at the head of his Herulians, Rugians, Tureilingians, and Scyri, marched against Pavia, which Orestes had garrisoned, stormed the city, and put his opponent to death (476). Romulus abdicated, and withdrew into obscurity. What became of him, is not known. Thus perished the Roman empire. O. shewed himself to be a wise, moderate, and politic ruler, quite unlike our general notion of a barbarian. In order not to offend the Byzantine emperor Zeno, he took the title of king only, and caused the senate to despatch to Constantinople a flattering letter, in which it declared one emperor to be enough for both East and West; renounced its right of appointing the emperors, expressed its confidence in the civil and military talents of O., and begged Zeno to confer upon him the administration of Italy. After some hesitation, the Byzantine emperor yielded to the entreaties of the senate, and O. received the title of *Patricius*. He fixed his residence at Ravenna. According to his promise, he divided among his companions the third part of the land of Italy—a measure far less unjust than at first sight may seem, for the peninsula was then almost depopulated, and many domains were lying waste and ownerless. This barbarian ruler did everything in his power to lift Italy out of the deplorable condition into which she had sunk, and to breathe fresh life into her municipal institutions—those venerable relics of nobler days! He even re-established the consulate, which was held by eleven of the most illustrious senators in succession, maintained peace throughout the peninsula, overawed the Gauls and Germans, and reconquered Dalmatia and Noricum. In religion, though an Arian himself, he acted with a kingly impartiality that more orthodox monarchs have rarely exhibited. Gibbon remarks, with his usual pointed sarcasm, that the *silence* of the Catholics attests the toleration which they enjoyed. The valor, wisdom, and success of O. appear to have excited the jealousy and alarm of Zeno, who encouraged Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths, a still greater warrior and sovereign than O. himself, to undertake an expedition against Italy. The first battle was fought on the banks of the Isontius (mod. Isonzo), 28th August 489. O. was beaten, and re-treated. During his retreat, he hazarded another battle at Verona, and was again beaten. He now hastened to Rome to rouse the inhabitants, but the gates of the city were closed against him. Returning northwards to his capital, Ravenna, he reassembled the wrecks of his army, and in 490 once more marched against the Ostrogoths, whose advance-guard

he defeated and pursued to the walls of Pavia. Another great battle now took place on the banks of the Adda, when O. was vanquished for the third time. He now shut himself up in Ravenna, where Theodoric besieged him for three years. O. then capitulated, on condition that the kingdom of Italy should be shared between him and Theodoric. This agreement was solemnly sworn to by both parties, 27th February 498; but on the 5th of March, O. was assassinated at a feast, either by Theodoric himself, or by his command.

**ODO'METER** (Gr. *odos*, a road, *mētrōn*, a measure), also called *Perambulator*, or *surveying-wheel*, is an instrument attached to a carriage or other vehicle, for the purpose of registering the distance it has travelled. Such machines have been in use from an early period, and one is described by Vitruvius in that part of his work "De Architectura" which is devoted to machines. The instrument, as commonly employed, consists of a train of wheel-work, which communicates motion from the axle of the carriage wheel to an index which moves round the circumference of a dial fixed in one side of the carriage over the axle. The wheel-work is arranged so as to produce a great diminution of the velocity impressed by the axle of the vehicle, and the dial is so graduated that the index can shew the number of miles, furlongs, yards, &c., traversed. The instrument is also constructed to work independently, being in this case provided with wheels and an axle of its own; when this is done, the wheel is made of such a size that its circumference is an aliquot part of a mile, an arrangement which greatly simplifies the calculation of the distance traversed. The complete odometer can then be drawn along by a man on foot, or attached behind a carriage. See **PEDOMETER**.

**O'DONNELL**, Leopold, Duke of Tetuan, Marshal of Spain, born in 1809, was descended from an ancient Irish family. He entered the Spanish army when young, and bravely espoused the cause of the infant Queen Isabella against her uncle, Don Carlos. When the Carlists were overthrown, he was created Count of Lucea, made General of Brigade, and Chief of the Staff to Espartero. He took the side of the Queen-mother in 1840; emigrated with her to France, at the time when her cause seemed desperate; and took up his residence at Orleans, where he planned many of the political risings and disturbances which took place under the rule of Espartero. He headed in person a revolt of the Navarrese against the minister, but on its failure returned to France. In 1843, his intrigues against Espartero (q. v.) were successful; and he was rewarded by the governor-generalship of Cuba, where he amassed a large fortune by favoring the iniquitous trade in slaves. When he returned to Spain (1845) he intrigued against Bravo Murillo and Narvaez; and when the latter was succeeded by Sartorius, O'D. was proscribed by the government, headed a military insurrection. Defeated, and driven into Andalusia in 1854, he issued a liberal manifesto. The profligacy of the court, and the despotism of the government, favored the appeal; and when Espartero gave in his adhesion, the Spaniards rose *en masse*, and replaced the ex-regent at the helm. Espartero reversed the confiscation against O'D., and made him a marshal and minister of war. O'D. again plotted against his old benefactor, and in July 1856, supplanted him by a *coup d'état*. Blood was shed in the streets of Madrid, but O'D. remained president of the council. He was in three months' time succeeded by Narvaez; but in 1858 he returned to power again; and in 1859, while still holding the position of prime minister, he assumed the command of the army sent to Morocco. The campaign continued for many months, without leading either to reverses or glory. The Moors displayed an entire absence of military qualities; and O'D., though successful in obscure skirmishes, occupied three months in the march from Ceuta to Tetuan. A battle took place, February 4, 1860; O'D. gained a complete victory, took the Moorish camp, and the city of Tetuan surrendered to the Spaniards. The Emperor of Morocco submitted to a loss of territory, and O'D. was raised to the first rank of the Spanish nobles as Duke of Tetuan. He remained prime minister till 1866, when his cabinet was upset by Narvaez. He then received leave of absence—that is to say, was exiled, and spent the most of his time in Paris. He died at Biarritz in 1867. The O'D. ministry improved the finances, army, and administration of Spain.

**ECOLAMPADIUS**, Joannes—a name Latinised, according to the fashion of the age, from the German JOHANN HAUSCHEN—one of the most eminent of

the coadjutors of Zwingli in the Swiss Reformation, born in 1482 at Weinsberg, in Swabia. His father destined him for the profession of the law, and he studied for it in Heidelberg and Bologna; but yielding to his own strong inclination, he relinquished this study for that of theology, which he prosecuted at Heidelberg. He then became tutor to the sons of the Elector Palatine, and subsequently preacher in Weinsberg. This office he resigned in order to study the Greek language under Reuchlin at Stuttgart. He also learned Hebrew from a Spanish physician, Matthew Adrian. Being appointed preacher at Basel, he formed the acquaintance of Erasmus, who highly appreciated his classical attainments, and employed his assistance in his edition of the New Testament. In 1516, he left Basel for Augsburg, where also he filled the office of preacher, and where he entered into a convent. But Luther's publications exercised so great an influence on him that he left the convent, and became chaplain to Franz Von Sickingen, after whose death he returned to Basel in 1522, and in the capacity of preacher and professor of theology, commenced his career as a reformer. He held disputations with supporters of the Church of Rome in Baden in 1526, and in Bern in 1528. In the controversy concerning the Lord's Supper, he gradually adopted more and more the views of Zwingli, and at last maintained them in 1525, in a treatise, to which the Swabian ministers replied in the "Syngramma Suevicum." In 1529 he disputed with Luther in the conference at Marburg. He died at Basel, 23d November 1531, not long after the death of his friend Zwingli. He was remarkable for his gentleness of character. His treatise, "De Ritu Paschali," and his "Epistola Canonicorum Inductorum ad Eccliam," are the most noted of his works.—See Herzog, "Das Leben des Joh. Oecolampadius" (1848); and Hagenbach's "Oecolampadius" (1859).

OECUMENICAL (Gr. *oikoumenike*, "of, or belonging to, the *oikoumene*," "the world"), the name given to councils of the entire church, and synonymous with the more ordinary name "general." See COUNCIL. The conditions necessary to constitute an ecumenical council are a subject of much controversy. As the subject is of less importance in Protestant divinity, it will be enough to explain here that a council is said by Roman Catholic divines to be ecumenical in three different ways: viz., in convocation, in celebration, and in acceptance. For the first, the summons of the pope, direct or indirect, is held to be necessary; this summons must be addressed to all the bishops of the entire church. To the second, it is necessary that bishops from all parts of the church should be present, and in sufficient numbers to constitute a really representative assembly: they must be presided over by the pope, or a delegate or delegates of the pope; and they must enjoy liberty of discussion and of speech. For the third, the decrees of the council must be accepted by the pope, and by the body of the bishops throughout the church, at least tacitly. The last of these conditions is absolutely required to entitle the decrees of a council to the character of ecumenical; and even the decrees of provincial or national councils so accepted, may acquire all the weight of infallible decisions, in the eyes of Roman Catholics.

ODEMA (Gr. *a swelling*) is the term applied in Medicine to the swelling occasioned by the effusion or infiltration of serum into cellular or areolar structures. The subcutaneous cellular tissue is the most common, but is not the only seat of this affection. It is occasionally observed in the submucous and subserous cellular tissue, and in the cellular tissue of the parenchymatous viscera; and in some of these cases, it gives rise to symptoms which admit of easy recognition during life. Thus oedema of the glottis (see LARYNX) and oedema of the lungs constitute well-marked and serious forms of disease; while oedema of the brain, though not easily recognised during life, is not uncommonly met with in the *post-mortem* examination of insane patients.

Edema may be either passive or active, the former being by far the most common. Passive Edema arises from impeded venous circulation (as from obstruction or obliteration of one or more veins; from varicose veins; from standing continually for long periods, till the force of the circulation is partly overcome by the physical action of gravitation; from deficiency in the action of the adjacent muscles, which in health materially aids the venous circulation, &c.); from too weak action of the heart (as in dilatation or certain forms of valvular disease of that organ); or from a too watery or otherwise diseased state of the blood (as in chlorosis,

scurvy, Bright's disease, &c.). By means of the knowledge derived from pathological anatomy, we can often infer the cause from the seat of the swelling; for example, œdema of the face, usually commencing with the eyelids, is commonly caused by obstruction to the circulation through the left side of the heart, or by the diseased state of the blood in Bright's disease; and œdema of the lower extremities most commonly arises from obstruction in the right side of the heart, unless it can be traced to the pressure of the gravid uterus, or of accumulated faeces in the colon, or to some other local cause.

*Active Ödema* is associated with an inflammatory action of the cellular tissue, and is most marked in certain forms of erysipelas. It is firmer to the touch, and pressure with the finger produces less pitting than in the passive form.

From the preceding remarks, it will be seen that œdema is not a disease, but a symptom, and often a symptom indicating great danger to life. The means of removing it must be directed to the morbid condition or cause of which it is the symptom.

O'DENBURG (Hung. Sovrony; anc. Sempronium), a town of Hungary, capital of a county of the same name, situated in an extensive plain, about two miles west from the Neusiedler See, on the Ilkva, a branch of the Raab. It is connected by railway with Vienna. O. is one of the most beautiful towns in Hungary. It has manufactures of cotton and woollen goods, potash, nitre, tobacco, sugar, earthenware, glass, cutlery, &c.; and a considerable trade in wine, corn, tobacco, wax, honey, and cattle, the products of the neighborhood, which is rich and well cultivated. The wine of Rust, a small town eight miles north of O., on hills sloping to the Neusiedler See, is one of the best wines of Hungary, and inferior only to Tokay. The Roman station of Sempronium was one of considerable importance; and numerous Roman remains are found near Oedenburg. The inhabitants of O. are mostly of German race. Pop. (1869) 21,108.

OEDIPUS (Gr. *Œdipous*), the hero of a celebrated legend, which, though of a most revolting nature in itself, has supplied both Euripides and Sophocles with the subject-matter of some of their most celebrated tragedies. The story, as generally related, is as follows: O. was the son of Laius, king of Thebes, by Jocaste; but his father having consulted the oracle to ascertain whether he should have any issue, was informed that his wife would bring forth a son, by whom he (Laius) should ultimately be slain. Determined to avert so terrible an omen, Laius ordered the son which Jocaste bare him to have his feet pierced through, and to be exposed to perish on Mount Citheron. In this helpless condition, O. was discovered by a herdsman, and conveyed to the court of Polybus, king of Corinth, who, in allusion to the swollen feet of the child, named him *Œdipus* (from *œido*, to swell, and *pous*, the foot); and along with his wife, Merope, brought him up as his own son. Having come to man's estate, O. was one day taunted with the obscurity of his origin, and in consequence proceeded to Delphi, to consult the oracle. The response which he received was, that he would slay his father, and commit incest with his mother. To escape this fate, he avoided returning to Corinth, and proceeded to Thebes, on approaching which he encountered the chariot of his father; and the charioteer ordering him out of the way, a quarrel ensued, in which O. ignorantly slew Laius, and thus unconsciously fulfilled the first part of the oracle. The famous Sphinx (q. v.) now appeared near Thebes, and sealing herself on a rock, propounded a riddle to every one who passed by, putting to death all who failed to solve it. The terror of the Thebans was extreme, and in despair they offered the kingdom, together with the hand of the queen, to the person who should be successful in delivering it from the monster. O. came forward; the Sphinx asked him, "What being has four feet, two feet, and three feet; only one voice; but whose feet vary, and when it has most, is weakest?" O. replied that it was "Man;" whereupon the Sphinx threw itself headlong from the rock. O. now became king, and husband of his mother, Jocaste. From their incestuous union sprung Eteocles, Polynices, Antigone, and Ismene. A mysterious plague now devastated the country, and when the oracle declared that before it could be stayed, the murderer of Laius should be banished from the country, O. was told by the prophet Tiresias that he himself had both murdered his father and committed incest with his mother. In his horror he put out his own eyes, that he might no more look upon his fellow-creatures, while Jocaste hanged herself. Driven from his throne by

his sons and his brother-in-law, Creon, GE. wandered towards Attica, accompanied by Antigone, and took refuge in the grove of the Eumenides, who charitably removed him from earth; but the latter part of his life is differently told.

**EHLENSCHLÄGER**, Adam Gotlob, the greatest poet of Northern Europe, was born in 1779 at Copenhagen. His early years were spent at the palace of Fredericksborg, in the neighborhood of the Danish capital, where his father was employed, first as organist, and afterwards as steward or bailiff. During the absence of the royal family in the winter, GE. and his sister amused themselves in roaming over the palace, and examining the paintings and works of art which it contained, and in improvising private theatricals, for which he supplied original pieces. After an irregular and desultory course of education, GE.'s love of the drama led him to offer his services to the manager of the Copenhagen theatre; but discovering soon that he had no chance of rising above the rank of a mere supernumerary, he entered the university of Copenhagen as a student of law. For a time, he seems to have pursued his studies with tolerable assiduity, under the direction of his friend, A. S. Oersted, who, together with his distinguished brother, H. C. Oersted (q. v.) had cemented a lifelong friendship with him. GE.'s studies were interrupted in 1801, when, on the bombardment of Copenhagen by Nelson and Parker, he and his friends served in the student-corps of volunteers. After this event, which roused the dormant patriotism of the nation, GE. found the study of law too irksome, and devoted all his energies to the cultivation of the history and mythology of his own country. In 1803, appeared his first collection of poems, including one longer dramatic piece, "St Hans Aften-Spil," which attracted favorable notice for the lively fancy with which national habits and local characteristics were portrayed. The "Vanhunders Saga" in the "Poetiske Skrifter," published in 1805, and his "Aladdin's forunderlige Lampe," completed his success, and raised him to the rank of the first of living Danish poets; the former of these works having shewn a marvellous capacity for reflecting the dark and stern coloring of the old northern Sagas, while the latter gave evidence of a rich and genial poetic fancy. These early efforts were rewarded by the acquisition of a travelling pension, which enabled him to spend some years in visiting various parts of the continent, and becoming acquainted with the great literary celebrities of the day, such as the Weimar circle of whom Goethe was the head. During this period, GE. wrote his "Hakon Jarl," the first of his long series of northern tragedies, at Halle (1807; Eng. trans. by F. C. Lascelles, 1875), and his "Correggio," at Rome (1809; Eng. trans. by Theodore Martin, 1854). In 1810, GE. returned to Denmark, where he was hailed with acclamation as the greatest tragic poet Denmark had ever known; and having soon afterwards obtained the chair of aesthetics at the university, and received various substantial proofs of royal favor, he married, and settled in the capital, where his peace was, however, rudely disturbed by a literary feud with Baggesen, the Danish poet and critic, whose poetical supremacy had been superseded by that of EHLENSCHLÄGER. In 1819 appeared one of GE.'s most masterly productions, "Nordens Guder," and this and the numerous dramatic compositions written about the same period, shew that the severe criticism to which his writings had been exposed during the celebrated Baggesen quarrel, had corrected some of the faults, and lessened the self-conceit which had characterised his earlier works. His reputation spread with his increasing years both abroad and at home; and after having repeatedly visited the more southern parts of Europe, he went in 1829 to Sweden, where his arrival was welcomed by a public ovation; and after having received repeated marks of friendship from various sovereigns, he was honored in his own country by the celebration, in 1849, of a grand public festival held in the palace at Copenhagen. But this ovation was unfortunately followed in less than two months by his death, which took place in January, 1850. His funeral was kept as a national solemnity, and he was followed to the grave by a civic procession, which included members of every class of society, from princes to artisans. The fame of GE. will rest principally on his tragedies, of which he wrote 24, 19 of the number being on northern subjects. These were all composed originally in Danish, and re-written by himself in German. Besides those already referred to, the best are: "Knud den Store," "Palnatoke," "Axel og Walborg," "Væringerne i Miklagord." His poems are for the most part indifferent, and his numerous prose writings deserve little notice. His Danish and German works amount in all to 62 volumes, to which must

be added 4 volumes of his "Erindringer," or "Autobiographical Recollections," published after his death.

ŒIL DE BOEUF, a French term literally signifying ox's eye, applied in architecture to those small round or oval openings in the frieze or roof of large buildings, which serve to give light to spaces otherwise dark. The most famous is that in the anteroom (where the courtiers waited) of the royal chamber at Versailles, which gave name to the apartment. Hence the expression, *Les Fades de l'Œil-de-Bœuf*—i. e., the history of the courtiers of the Grand Monarque, and by extension, of courtiers in general.

Œ'LAND, a long and narrow island in the Baltic, lying off the eastern coast of Sweden, opposite to, and forming part of, the län of Knimur, and at a distance of from 4 to 17 miles from the shore. It is 85 miles in length, and from 2 to 8 miles in breadth. The area is 588 square miles, and the pop. 46,000. The island, which is scarcely more than a line cliff, is scantily covered with soil, but in some parts it is well wooded, and has good pasture-ground, which is turned to account by the islanders, who rear cattle, horses and sheep. In favorable seasons, barley, oats and flax yield good crops. The fishing is excellent all round the coasts. There are large alum-works on the island, and an extensive line of wind-mills along the range of the Alvar Hills, near which stands Borgholm (pop. 829), the only town on the island, the first foundations of which were laid in 1817. To the north of the island lies the steep but wooded island-cliff, the Jungfruen, or Blaaknilla, which bears the mythical reputation of having been the scene of various deeds of witchcraft, and the favorite resort of wizards and witches.

ŒLS, a small town of Prussian Silesia, stands on a plain on the Oelsn, or Oebe, 16 miles east-north-east of Breslau. Its castle, built in 1558, is surrounded by ramparts and ditches. It contains a gymnasium, several churches, and other public edifices. Pop. (1871) 6124, who carry on manufactures of linens and cloth goods.

CENANTHY'LIC ACID ( $C_{14}H_{18}O_3 \cdot HO$ ) is one of the volatile fatty acids of the general formula  $C_{2n}H_{2n}O_4$ . It is a colorless oily fluid, with an aromatic odor, lighter than water, and insoluble in that fluid, but dissolving readily in alcohol and ether. According to Miller ("Organic Chemistry," 2d ed. p. 355), it may be exposed to a cold of  $0^{\circ}$  without becoming solid; while it boils and may be distilled (with partial decomposition) at  $298^{\circ}$ . It is (like many of the allied fatty acids) one of the products of the oxidation of Oleic Acid (q. v.) by nitric acid, and is likewise yielded by the action of nitric acid on castor oil, wax, and various fats. Its most characteristic salt is the cenanthylate of copper, which crystallises in beautiful green needles.

CENOTHERA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Onagraceæ* (q. v.), having four petals and eight stamens, the calyx-limb 4-cleft, the segments reflexed; the capsule 4-valved, with many naked seeds. The EVENING PRIMROSE (*O. biennis*), a native of Virginia, has been known in Europe since 1614, and is now naturalised in many parts of Europe and in some parts of Britain, on the banks of rivers, in thickets, on sandy grounds, &c. It is a biennial plant, and produces in the first year elliptic or obovate obtuse leaves, and in the second year a stem of  $1\frac{1}{2}$ —4 feet high, which bears at its summit numerous yellow flowers in a leafy spike. The flowers are fragrant in the evening. The root somewhat resembles a carrot in shape, but is short; it is usually red, fleshy, and tender; it is eaten in salads or in soups, and as a boiled vegetable. The plant is often cultivated for the sake of its large yellow flowers. Several other species of *Oenothera*, natives of North America, are occasionally cultivated in our gardens, and have eatable and pleasant roots.

OERE'BRO, an inland town of Sweden, capital of a län of the same name, is situated at the entrance of the Swart-Elf into the Heilmur Lake, 100 miles west of Stockholm. Pop. about 10,000. The town still retains many memorials of its earlier prosperity, when it was frequently the residence of the Swedish rulers, who found its central position in the more fertile southern portion of the kingdom favorable both in regard to safety and pleasantness of site. The old castle was built by Berger Jarl in the 18th c., and was in after-times frequently chosen as the seat of the national diets. O. has manufactories of wax-cloth, carpets, woollen goods, stock-

ings, guns, and mirrors; and these industrial products, together with the minerals obtained from the neighboring silver, copper, and iron mines, are conveyed to Gothenburg and Stockholm by means of the extensive system of canals which connects the lakes of the interior with the maritime ports.

OERSTED, Hans Christian, one of the most distinguished scientific discoverers and physicists of modern times, was born in 1777 at Kudkjobing, on the Danish island of Langeland, where his father practised as an apothecary. In 1794 he entered the university of Copenhagen, where he took the degree of doctor of philosophy in 1799, and soon afterwards became assistant to the professor of medicine, in which capacity he gave lectures on chemistry and natural philosophy. In 1806, after having enjoyed a travelling scholarship for several years, and visited Holland, the greater part of Germany and Paris, he was appointed extraordinary professor of natural philosophy in the university of Copenhagen. In 1812 he again visited Germany and France, after having published a manual under the title of "Videnskaben our Naturen's Almindelige Love," and "Förste Indledning til den Almindelige Naturkære" (1811). During his residence at Berlin, he wrote his famous essay on the identity of chemical and electrical forces, in which he first developed the ideas on which were based his great discovery of the intimate connection existing between magnetism and electricity and galvanism—a treatise which, during his residence in Paris, he translated into French, in conjunction with Marcel de Serre. In 1819, he made known these important truths in a Latin essay entitled "Experimenta circa Efficaciam Conficitus Electrici in acum Magneticon," which he addressed to all the scientific societies and the leading savans of Europe and America, and thus made good his claim to be regarded as the originator of the new science of electro-magnetism. This discovery, which formed one of the most important eras in the history of modern physical science, obtained for O. the Copley Medal from the Royal Society of England, and the principal mathematical prize in the gift of the Institute of Paris. The original and leading idea of this great discovery had been in his mind since 1800, when the discovery of the galvanic battery by Volta had first led him to enter upon a course of experiments on the production of galvanic electricity. The enunciation of his theory of electromagnetism was followed by many important experiments in regard to the compression of water, and by numerous other chemical discoveries, among which we may instance his demonstration of the existence of the metal aluminium in alumina. The influence which O. exerted on the science of the day by his discoveries, was recognised by the learned in every country, and honors increased upon him with increasing years. He was corresponding member of the French Institute, perpetual secretary to the Royal Society of Sciences in Copenhagen, a knight of the Prussian Order of Merit, of the French Legion of Honor, and of the Danish Order of the Dannebrog, and a councillor of state. O.'s great object through life was to make science popular among all classes, in furtherance of which he wrote numerous works, contributed scientific papers to the newspapers and magazines of his own country and Germany, and in addition to his regular prelections in the university, gave courses of popular scientific lectures to the public including ladies. Among the works specially written to promote the diffusion of scientific knowledge, those best known are "Aanden i Naturen" (Kop. 1845), and "Natur-læren's Mechanische Deel" (Kop. 1847), both of which have been translated into several other European languages. The majority of his more important physical and chemical papers are contained in Poggendorff's "Annalen," and were written by him in German or French, both of which he wrote with the same facility as his own language. At the close of 1850, a national jubilee was held in honor of the 50th anniversary of his connection with the university of Copenhagen—a festival which he did not long survive, as his death occurred at Copenhagen 9th March 1851. A public funeral, attended by all persons distinguished by rank or learning in the Danish capital, bore testimony to the respect and esteem with which he was regarded by his fellow-citizens, among whom his memory is cherished, not merely as one of the greatest scientific benefactors of his times, but as a man who contributed largely, by his eloquent and earnest advocacy of liberal principles, to the attainment of the high degree of constitutional freedom which Denmark now enjoys.

OESEL, an island of Russia, in the Baltic, belonging to the government of Livonia, and lying across the mouth of the Gulf of Riga. It is about 80 miles in

length from north-east to south-west, and about 40 miles in greatest breadth, but the south-western end consists of a comparatively narrow peninsula. A narrow strait separates the north-eastern end from the island of Dago. The surface is undulating, broken by low hills, marshy, watered by numerous small streams, and well wooded. The coast is generally formed by high cliffs. The climate is milder than that of the neighboring continental districts. The rocks are generally calcareous, and the soil is in many places gravelly; the chief crops are wheat, oats, rye, barley, and peas. The rearing of cattle, horses, and sheep, and fishing, are, however, the principal occupations of the inhabitants. The seal-fisheries are of some importance. Pop. 46,000, mostly Lutheran. The only town is Arensburg, on the south-east coast, with a pop. (1867) of 3256. Many of the inhabitants of Arensburg are of German descent, as are the nobles and clergy of the island; but the peasantry are Esthonian. The islanders of O. were in early times noted as pirates. The Danish king Waldemar conquered the island in the beginning of the 13th century. Albert von Buxhövden, Bishop of Leal in Livonia, obtained it from Denmark in 1227, in order that he might reduce its inhabitants to subjection, and convert them to Christianity. Being partly subdued by the Teutonic Knights, it remained for more than 300 years under its bishops, the seat of the bishopric being transferred to the island. The last bishop sold it to Denmark in 1569. It remained a Danish province till 1645, when it was given up to Sweden, and in 1721, fell into the hands of Russia.

**GEOSPAGHUS** (Gr. *oia*, to convey, and *phagein*, to eat), or Gullet, a membranous canal, about nine inches in length, extending from the pharynx to the stomach, and thus forming a part of the alimentary canal. It commences at the lower border of the cricoid cartilage of the larynx, descends in a nearly vertical direction along the front of the spine, passes through an opening in the diaphragm, and thus enters the abdomen, and terminates in the cardiac orifice of the stomach opposite the ninth dorsal vertebra. It has three coats—viz., an external or muscular coat (consisting of two strata of fibres of considerable thickness—an external, longitudinal, and an internal, circular); an internal or mucous coat, which is covered with a thick layer of squamous epithelium; and an intermediate cellular coat, uniting the muscular and mucous coats. In this tissue are a large number of oesophageal glands, which open upon the surface by a long excretory duct, and are most numerous round the cardiac orifice, where they form a complete ring.

The oesophagus is liable to a considerable number of morbid changes, none of which are, however, of very common occurrence.

The most prominent symptom of *Oesophagitis*, or *Inflammation of the Oesophagus*, is pain between the shoulders, or behind the trachea or sternum, augmented in deglutition, which is usually more or less difficult, and sometimes impossible. The affection is regarded as a very rare one, unless when it originates from the direct application of irritating or very hot substances, or from mechanical violence—as, for instance, from the unskillful application of the stomach-pump or probang. Dr Copland, however, is of opinion that it is not unfrequent in children, particularly during infancy, and observes that “when the milk is thrown up unchanged, we should always suspect the existence of inflammation of the oesophagus.” The ordinary treatment employed in inflammatory diseases must be adopted; and if inability to swallow exists, nourishing liquids, such as strong beef-tea, must be injected into the lower bowel.

*Spasm of the Oesophagus*—a morbid muscular contraction of the tube, producing more or less difficulty of swallowing—is a much more common affection than inflammation. The spasm generally comes on suddenly during a meal. Upon an attempt to swallow, the food is arrested, and is either immediately rejected with considerable force, or is retained for a time, and then brought up by regurgitation; the former happening when the contraction takes place in the upper part of the canal, and the latter when it is near the lower part. In some cases, solids can be swallowed, while liquids excite spasm; while in other cases the opposite is observed: but in general either solids or liquids suffice to excite the contraction, when a predisposition to it exists. The predisposition usually consists in an excitable state of the nervous system, such as exists in hysteria, hypochondriasis, and generally in a debilitated condition of the body. An attack may consist of a single paroxysm, lasting only a few hours, or it may be more or less persistent for months or even

years. The treatment must be directed to the establishment of the general health, by the administration of tonics and anti-spasmodics, by attention to the bowels and the various secretions, by exercise in the open air, the shower-bath, a nutritious diet, &c.; and by the avoidance of the excessive use of strong tea, coffee, and tobacco. Care must also be taken not to swallow anything imperfectly masticated or too hot; and the occasional passage of a bougie is recommended. Brodie relates a case that ceased spontaneously on the removal of bleeding piles. Strychnia is deserving of a trial when other means fail; and if the affection assume a decidedly periodic form, quinia will usually prove an effectual remedy.

*Paralysis of the Esophagus* is present in certain forms of organic disease of the brain or spinal cord, which are seldom amenable to treatment, and is often a very important part of the palsy that so frequently occurs in the most severe and chronic cases of insanity. In this affection there is inability to swallow, but no pain or other symptom of spasm; and a bougie may be passed without obstruction. The patient must be fed by the stomach-pump, and nutrient injections of strong beef-tea should be thrown into the lower bowel.

*Permanent or Organic Stricture of the Esophagus* may arise from inflammatory thickening and induration of its coats, or from scirrhous and other formations, situated either in the walls of or external to the tube. The most common seat of this affection is at its upper part. The symptoms are persistent and gradually increasing difficulty of swallowing, occasionally aggravated by fits of spasm; and a bougie, when passed, always meets with resistance at the same spot. When the contraction is due to inflammatory thickening, it may arise from the abuse of alcoholic drinks, or from swallowing boiling or corrosive fluids; and it is said that it has been induced by violent retching in sea-sickness. If unrelieved, the disease must prove fatal, either by ulceration of the tube around the seat of the stricture, or by sheer starvation. When the affection originates in inflammation, some advantage may be derived from a mild course of mercury, occasional leeching, and narcotics; and especially from the occasional passage of a bougie, of a ball-probong (an ivory bail attached to a piece of whalebone), or of a piece of sponge impregnated with a weak solution of nitrate of silver. If it is dependent upon malignant disease, and the tissues have become softened by the infiltration of the morbid deposit, the bougie must be directed with the greatest care through the stricture, as a false passage may be easily made into important adjacent cavities.

*Foreign bodies* not very unfrequently pass into the esophagus, and become impacted there, giving rise to a sense of choking and fits of suffocative cough, especially when they are seated in its upper part. They may not only cause immediate death by exciting spasm of the glottis, but if allowed to remain, may excite ulceration of the parts, and thus cause death by exhaustion. If the body is small and sharp (a fish-bone, for example), it may often be got rid of by making the patient swallow a large mouthful of bread; if it is large and soft (such as too large a mouthful of meat), it may generally be pushed down into the stomach with the probong; while large hard bodies (such as pieces of bone) should be brought up either by the action of an emetic, or by long curved forceps. If the offending body can neither be brought up nor pushed down, it must be extracted by the operation of *Gastrostomy*—an operation which can only be performed when the impacted body is not very low down, and which it is unnecessary to describe in these pages.

**OESTRIDÆ**, a family of dipterous insects, having a mere rudimentary proboscis or none, the palpi also sometimes wanting, and the mouth reduced to three tubercles; the antennæ short and enclosed in a cavity in the forepart of the head; the abdomen large. They are generally very hairy, the hair often colored in rings. They resemble flesh flies in their general appearance, and are nearly allied to *Muscidae*. The perfect insect is very short lived. The females deposit their eggs on different species of herbivorous mammalia, each insect being limited to a particular kind of quadruped, and selecting for its eggs a situation on the animal suitable to the habits of the larva, which are different in different species, although the larvae of all the species are parasites of herbivorous quadrupeds. The characters and habits of some of the most notable species are described in the article *BOT*. Animals seem generally to have a strong instinctive dread of the O. which infest them.

**OFFA'S DYKE**, a remarkable relic of antiquity, an entrenchment extending along the whole border of England and Wales, from the north coast of Flintshire,

on the estuary of the Dee, through the counties of Denbigh, Montgomery, Salop, Radnor, and Hereford, into Gloucestershire, where its southern termination is near the mouth of the Wye, in the grounds of Sedbury Park, which overlook the estuary of the Severn. In some places, it is nearly obliterated by cultivation; in others, it is of considerable height, although its appearance nowhere indicates that it can ever have been of much value as a rampart. It is therefore generally supposed to have been chiefly intended as a line of demarcation. Nearly parallel with it, but at a distance varying from a few hundred yards to three miles, on the eastern or English side of it, is *Watt's Dyke*, a similar relic of antiquity, which, however, seems never to have been so great a work, and is now in many places much obliterated. It has been conjectured that the space between them was neutral ground where the Anglo-Saxons and Welsh met for trading or other purposes. The principal dyke is ascribed by tradition to Offa, king of Mercia, who reigned in the 8th c.; but this is matter of tradition, and not of history.

**OFFENBACH**, Jacques, a composer of dramatic music, who enjoys high popularity over the continent, of German birth, but a naturalised Frenchman. He was born in 1819, became *chef d'orchestre* in the Théâtre Français in Paris in 1847, and afterwards manager of the Théâtre des Bonnes-Parisiennes. He has composed a vast number of light, lively operettas, "Le Mariage aux Lanternes," "La Fille d'Elzondo," &c., perfect as musical trifles; but the productions by which he is best known are a series of *bouffonneries musicales*, or burlesque operas, including "Orphée aux Enfers," "La Belle Hélène," "La Barbe Bleu," "La Grande Duchesse," "Geneviève de Brabant," and "Roi Carotte," composed with the rather questionable aim of parodying music of a more serious description. The high public favor accorded to his works has of late years extended to England.

**OFFENBACH**, a manufacturing town of Hesse-Darmstadt, on the south bank of the river Main, within the domains of the Princes of Isenburg-Birstein, 4 miles south-east of Frankfurt. Pop. (1870) 22,691. O. is pleasantly situated in one of the richest parts of the valley of the Main, and is one of the most important manufacturing towns in the province. Among the industrial products, its carriages have acquired a pre-eminent character for excellence; and next to these, stand its book-bindings, articles of jewellery, gold and silver goods, carpets, and silk fabrics. It has also good manufactories of wax-cloth, papier-mâché snuff-boxes, tin-lacquered wares, umbrellas and parasols, wax-candles, leather, hats, tobacco, sugar, and gingerbread and spiced cakes. O. has several churches, and a Jewish synagogue. The palace is the winter residence of the Isenburg-Birstein family, to whom the old castle, now in ruins, also belongs. A pontoon-bridge across the river, and a railway to Frankfurt, facilitate intercommunication, and tend materially towards the maintenance of its active trade.

**OFFENCES AGAINST RELIGION, Public Peace, &c.** See **RELIGION, PEACE, &c.**

**OFFER AND ACCEPTANCE** is one mode of entering into a contract of sale. At an auction, the highest offer is generally accepted as a matter of course; and when accepted, the contract is completed. An offer is often made by letter from one merchant to another to buy or sell goods. In such a case, the party offering is bound to wait until he gets an answer by return of post or messenger; for until then the offer is supposed to be continuously made. But if A offer to B personally to sell, and B ask time to consider for a day, or any given time, A is not bound to wait a single moment, according to English law, and may withdraw at any time from the offer, because he had no legal consideration for waiting; whereas, in Scotland, in the same circumstances, A would be bound to wait the time agreed upon.

**OFFERING.** Under the head **FIRST-FRUITS** (q. v.) have been described the various offerings prescribed in the Jewish law. We shall have occasion to consider, under the head of **SACRIFICE** (q. v.), some further questions connected with the subject of off-rings in public worship. In the Christian community there appears to have existed, from the earliest times, a practice of making voluntary offerings, for purposes not directly connected with public worship. See **OFFERTORY**.

**O'FFERTORY** (Lat. *offertorium*, from *offerō*, I offer) is the name given to that portion of the public liturgy of the Roman Catholic Church with which the eucharistic service, strictly so called, commences. In the Roman Liturgy, it consists of one

or two verses from some book of Scripture, generally from the Old Testament, but sometimes also from the Epistles. In the Ambrosian Liturgy it consists of a prayer, similar in form to the *collect* or *secret* of the mass; and in both, this recital is followed by the preparatory offering up of the bread and wine, accompanied by certain ceremonies and forms of prayer.

This offering of the bread and wine in the public service became, from a very early period, the occasion of a voluntary offering, on the part of the faithful; originally, it would seem, of the bread and wine designed for the eucharistic celebration and for the communion of the priest and the congregation, sometimes even including the absent members, and also for the *agape*, or common sacred feast, which accompanied it. That portion of the offerings which remained in excess of what was requisite for these purposes was applied to the relief of the poor, and to the support of the clergy. These offerings were ordinarily made by the faithful in person, and were laid upon the altar; and the Ambrosian rite still preserves this usage in a ceremonial which may be witnessed in the cathedral of Milan. By degrees, other gifts were superadded to those of bread and wine—as of corn, oil, wax, honey, eggs, butter, fruits, lambs, fowl, and other animals; and eventually of equivalents in money or other objects of value. The last-named class of offerings, however, was not so commonly made upon the altar and during the public liturgy, as in the form of free gifts presented on the occasion of other ministerial services, as of baptism, marriages, funerals, &c.; and from this has arisen the practice in the Roman Catholic Church of the mass-offering, or *honorarium*, which is given to a priest with the understanding that he shall offer the mass for the intention (whence the honorarium itself is often called an "intention") of the offerent. In some places, however, and among them in some parts of Ireland, offerings "in kind" are still in use, not indeed in the form of the ancient offertory, but in the shape of contributions of corn, hay, &c., at stated seasons, for the use of the parochial clergy. At weddings also, and in some places at funerals, offerings in money are made by the relations and friends of the newly married or of the deceased. In the Liturgy of the English Church allusion is made to the practice of oblations, and some of the recent controversies have turned upon the revival of the "offertory," which has found some advocates.

**OFFICE**, The Divine (Lat. *officium*, duty), is the name popularly given to the CANONICAL HOURS (q. v.) prescribed to be read each day by bishops, priests, deacons, and sub-deacons in the Roman Catholic Church. Under the head BREVIARY will be found a general description of the contents and the arrangement of that great service-book. The special portions assigned for any particular day constitute what is called the divine office for that day; and each person who is bound in virtue of his order to recite the Breviary, is obliged, under pain of sin, to read, not merely with the eye, but with distinct, although it may be silent, articulation, each and all these portions. The adjustment of the portions of the office of each day, the combination of the "ordinary" portions which are read every day in common, with the parts "proper" for each particular day, is a matter of considerable difficulty, and is regulated by a complicated system of RUBRICS (q. v.).

**OFFICE**, Holy, Congregation of the. In the article INQUISITION (q. v.) it has been explained that that tribunal is sometimes called by the name Holy Office. That title, however, properly belongs to the "Congregation" at Rome, to which the direction of the tribunal of the Inquisition at Rome is subject. This Congregation was established by Paul III. in 1542, and its organisation was completed by S. xius V. It consists of twelve cardinals, a commissary, consulters, and qualifiers, whose duty it is to examine and report on each case for the information of the cardinals. In the most solemn sessions of the Holy Office the pope himself presides in person. The Holy Office decides questions of heresy, inquires into crimes against faith, and judges ecclesiastical offences, especially in the administration of the sacraments. In the present condition of the papal court, the action of the H. O. is much restricted.

**OFFICE COPY** is a copy made of a document by some officer of a court in whose custody the document is; and in general such copies are receivable in evidence, without further proof in the same court, but not in other courts, unless some statute makes them evidence.

**OFFICERS**, Military and Naval.—*Military Officers* are combatant and non-combatant, the latter term including paymasters, medical officers, commissariat, and

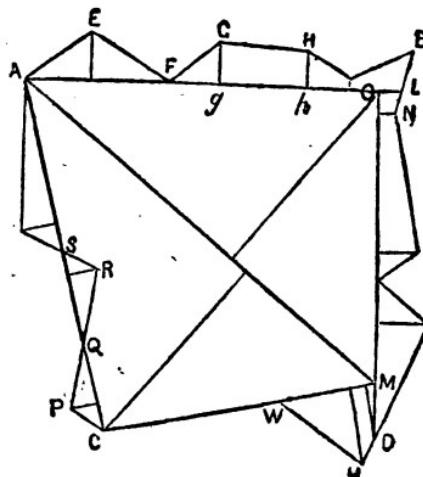
other civil officers. The great divisions of rank are commissioned, warrant, and non-commissioned officers. Commissioned officers are those holding commissions from the crown, or a lord-lieutenant, and comprise all holding the rank of ensign, or corresponding or superior rank. Divided by duties, they are Staff Officers (see STAFF), or Regimental Officers (see REGIMENT); divided by rank, General Officers (q. v.), Field-Officers (q. v.), and troop or company officers. The last are captains, lieutenants, and sub-lieutenants, and, except, in the cavalry, are unmounted. The different systems of promotion for officers, and especially the intricacies of the late purchase system, will be explained under PROMOTION, ARMY, and PURCHASE SYSTEM. The only warrant officers in the army are Master-gunnery (see GUNNER) and Schoolmasters. Non-commissioned officers are described under that heading.

*Officers, Naval*, are commissioned, warrant, and petty officers. Commissioned officers are admirals, captains, commanders, lieutenants, and sub-lieutenants, described under their respective titles. Warrant Officers (q. v.) are boatswains, carpenters, gunners, and one class of engineers. Petty officers will be described under that heading, and constitute a very important portion of the management in a ship-of-war.

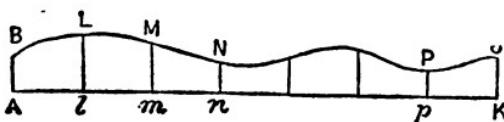
OFFICIAL ASSIGNEE, in English Law, is an officer of the Bankruptcy Court, in whom a bankrupt's estate vests the moment an adjudication of bankruptcy is made. He is the manager of the property, and can sell the estate under the directions of the court in urgent cases, such as where the goods are perishable; but in general, he is assisted in the management by the creditors' assignees, who are selected from the body of creditors by the other creditors' votes. The official assignee is appointed by the Lord Chancellor, being selected from the body of merchants, brokers, or accountants. He is bound to find security to the extent of £1000. He is prohibited from carrying on trade on his own account. The salary is £1000.

OFFICIAL PLANTS (Lat. *officina*, a shop) are those medicinal plants which have a place in the pharmacopoeias of different countries, and which are therefore sold—or some of their products or preparations of them—by apothecaries and druggists. The medicinal plants cultivated to any considerable extent are all officinal, but many are also officinal which are not cultivated. See MEDICINAL PLANTS.

OFFSETS. Let AEF..... B..... D ..... C be a field with very irregular sides;



take the points A, O, M, C at or as near the corners as convenient, the object being to enclose as much of the field as possible within the quadrilateral AOMC; and for this purpose it is sometimes necessary, as in the present case, to include a corner (as SRQ) which is outside the field. The area AOCD is found by means of the diagonal AM, and the perpendiculars on it from C and O. The area AEFG ..... BL is found by dividing it into triangles and trapezoids by means of perpendiculars (to which the term *offsets* was originally applied, though it now denotes the irregular area before mentioned) from the corners E, G, H, &c. (see TRIANGLE and TRAPEZOID) and adding together the areas of the separate figures AEF, FGg, GHgh, &c. Similarly the areas of OLN....D and MDUW are found. To the sum of these must be added the areas of the triangles ATS, QPC, diminished by the area of SRQ, and the result is the whole area of the field. If the offset have no distinct corners, as (fig. 2)



ABLMN....OK, then the base AK is divided into equal parts by perpendiculars AB, BL, LM, MN, &c., and the area of the offset is found approximately as follows: the whole offset =  $AB \cdot L + L \cdot M + M \cdot N + \dots + P \cdot K = AL \times \frac{1}{2} (AB + L) + L \cdot m \times \frac{1}{2} (L + Mm) + m \cdot n \times \frac{1}{2} (Mm + Nn) + \dots + p \cdot K \times \frac{1}{2} (pP + OK) =$  (since the divisions of the base are equal)  $AL \times \frac{1}{2} (AB + 2L + 2M + 2N + \dots + 2p + OK)$

$$= AL \times \left\{ \frac{AB + OK}{2} + L + Mm + Nn + \dots + Pp \right\}; \text{ i.e., the area of an offset is}$$

found approximately by adding the intermediate perpendiculars to the semi-sum of the first and last, and multiplying the sum total by the length of a division of the base, the divisions being equal; and the greater the number of perpendiculars, the nearer the result is to the true area.

**OFFSET**, or Set-Off, the splay or sloping part of a wall, &c., joining parallel surfaces when the upper face recedes from the lower. This frequently occurs on buttresses. The O. is usually protected with dressed stones, having a projection or drip on the lower edge to prevent the rain from running down the wall.

**OFFSETS**, a term used by gardeners to designate the young bulbs, which springing from the axis of the scales of a bulb (q. v.), grow beside it, exhausting its strength, but which serve for the propagation of the plant. A crop of shallots, or of potato onions, consists entirely of the offsets of the bulbs planted in spring; although the term is not commonly used except as to bulbous-rooted plants prized for the beauty of their flowers.

**O'GDENSBURG**, a city and port of entry in New York, U.S., on the south bank of the river St Lawrence, at the mouth of the Oswegatchie, 210 miles north-west of Albany, and at the western terminus of the Northern Railway. It has a large lake and river trade, mills and factories, custom-house, town-hall, &c., and a steam-ferry to Prescott, Canada. Pop. in 1860, 7410; in 1870, 10,076.

**OGEE'**, a moulding consisting of two curves, one concave and the other convex. It is called (in Classic Architecture) *Cymatium*, or *Cyma Reversa* (see MOULDING). The ogee is also much used in Gothic architecture. An arch having each side formed with two contrasted curves is called an ogee arch.

**O'GHAMS**. The name given to the letters or signs of a secret alphabet long in use among the Irish and some other Celtic nations. Neither the origin nor the meaning of the name has been satisfactorily explained.

The alphabet itself is called *Bethluisin*, or *Bethluis*, from its first two letters, "b," called "beith" (birch), and "l," called "luis" (quenchen). Its characters are lines, or groups of lines, deriving their significance from their position on a single

stem or chief line—over, under, or through which they are drawn either straight or oblique. In some cases, the edge of the stone or other substance on which the Oghams are incised, serves the purpose of the stem or chief line. About eighty different forms of the alphabet are known. The sign for the diphthong “ea” is said to be the only one which has been observed on ancient monuments. It is added that the sign for “ui” sometimes stands for “y,” that the sign for “ia” sometimes stands for “p,” and that the sign for “ae” stands also for “x,” for “cc,” for “ch,” for “ach,” and for “uch.”

Ogham inscriptions generally begin from the bottom, and are read upwards from left to right to the top, when they are carried over, and run down another side or angle. Most of those which have been read give merely a proper name with its patronymic, both in the genitive case. The stones on which Oghams are cut would seem, for the most part, to have been sepulchral. Oghams are of most frequent occurrence in Ireland, where they are found both written on books and inscribed on stones, metals, or bones. The Oghams on stones are most numerous in the counties of Kerry and Cork. A few Ogham inscriptions on stones have been discovered in Wales—as at St Dogmael’s, in Pembrokeshire; near Margam, in Glamorganshire; and near Crickhowel, in Brecknockshire. There are a few in Scotland, as on the Newton Stone and the Logie Stone in Aberdeenshire, on the Golspie Stone in Sutherland, and on the Bressay Stone in Shetland. One has been found in England—at Fardel, in Devonshire. Oghams have been observed on an ancient MS. of Priscian, which belonged to the famous Swiss monastery founded in the 7th c. by the Irish missionary, St Gall (q.v.).

The difficulties of deciphering Ogham inscriptions cannot be said to have been as yet altogether overcome. It is confessed by the most learned and judicious of Ogham scholars, the Rev. Charles Graves, D.D., of Trinity College, Dublin, that the nature of the character is such that it does not at once appear which, of four different ways of reading, is the right one; that the words being written continuously, as in ancient MSS., there is great chance of error in dividing them; and that the Celtic names inscribed are generally Latinised in such a manner as not readily to be recognised.

The old school of Irish antiquaries contended that the Oghams were of Persian or Phenician origin, and were in use in Ireland long before the introduction of Christianity. But this theory is now generally discarded, as not only unsupported but as contradicted by facts. A comparison of the Ogham alphabet, with the alphabets of Persepolis and Carthage, shews that there is no likeness between them. The great majority of Ogham monuments, it has been observed, bear more or less distinct marks of Christian hands. Several are inscribed with crosses, as old, to all appearance, as the Oghams themselves. Many stand in Christian burying-grounds, or beside Christian cells or oratories. Some still bear the names of primitive saints. At least one is inscribed with a Christian name; and some of the inscriptions betray an undoubted knowledge of Latin. At the same time, it has been argued by one of the most learned of Celtic philologists, Mr Whitley Stokes, that “the circumstance that genuine Ogham inscriptions exist both in Ireland and in Wales which present grammatical forms agreeing with those of the Gaulish linguistic monuments, is enough to shew that some of the Celts of these islands wrote their language before the 5th c., the time at which Christianity is supposed to have been introduced into Ireland.” It has been observed by Dr Graves, on the other hand, that there are many points of resemblance between the Oghams of the Celts and the Runes of the Norsemen; and, indeed, one Irish MS. asserts that the Oghams came to Ireland from Scandinavia:

“ Hither was brought, in the sword sheath of Lochlan’s king,  
The Ogham across the sea. It was his own hand that cut it.”

The Ogham is said to have been in use so recently as the middle of the 17th c., when it was employed in the correspondence between King Charles I. and the Earl of Glamorgan.

The best account of Oghams is in the papers in the “Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy,” by Dr Graves, now Bishop of Limerick, vol. iv. pp. 70, 173, 183, 254; vol. v. pp. 234, 401; vol. vi. pp. 71, 209, 248, where also are some papers of value on the same subject by Mr Samuel Ferguson; and the “Catalogue of the Manuscripts of the Royal Irish Academy,” pp. 134–149; and in Mr Whitley Stokes’s “Three

**Irish Glossaries**, pp. 55—57, compared with Thomas Innes's "Critical Essay on the Ancient Inhabitants of Scotland," vol. II, pp. 440—466. The reader may also consult with advantage Astle's "Origin and Progress of Writing," Petrie's "Essay on the Round Towers of Ireland," John Stuart's "Sculptured Stones of Scotland," and Ware's "Antiquities of Ireland." Ogham inscriptions may be seen in the Museum of the Royal Irish Academy at Dublin, in the Museum of the Society of Antiquaries of Scotland at Edinburgh, and in the British Museum at London.

O'GIVES, the arches in pointed Gothic vaulting which cross the vault diagonally from one angle to another.

O'GOBAI, a large river of Western Africa, which falls into the sea by many mouths, between s. lat.  $0^{\circ} 40'$  and  $1^{\circ} 20'$ . Its delta is very large, and forms a most complicated network of rivers, flowing amidst a dense forest. The most northern mouth of the O. has long been known as the river Nazareth, and falls into a bay of the Atlantic, on the north of Cape Lopez. Another principal mouth, to the south of that far-projecting cape, is known as the Mexian; and the southernmost, which seems to be the largest of all, is the river Fernand Vas. These were regarded as distinct and large rivers, till the explorations of Du Chaillu revealed their relation to each other, and to the main river Ogobai. The extent of the basin of the O., its sources, and the length of its course, are yet unknown, but it may be deemed certain that it is by far the largest river of Western Africa between the Niger and the Congo. For almost all our knowledge of the O., and the country through which it flows, we are indebted to Du Chaillu, although, in the interval between his first and second visits, the lower part of its course was partially explored by two French expeditions. Not far from its mouth, the Fernand Vas is joined by the Rembo, also a large river, although much inferior in size to the O., which, after flowing in a south-westerly course from the interior, bends northward, and pursues a course nearly parallel to the coast for about fifty miles, the narrow peninsula between the river and the sea being a sandy and grassy prairie, with scattered groups of fine trees, frequented by herds of the Niare (q. v.), or wild ox of Western Africa and of antelopes. The dense forests of the O. are the main haunts of the Gorilla (q. v.), and of several other anthropoid apes, discovered by Du Chaillu, among which are the Nest-building Apes (q. v.). Prodigious flocks of marabouts also come to lay their eggs on these prairies, and in the wet season, numerous pools are formed, which teem with fish. The forest-regions produce few of the mammals, herbivorous and carnivorous, so abundant in other parts of Africa; and even birds are few. About 150 miles from the mouth of the O., the main stream is formed by the junction of two rivers, the Okanda and the Ngouya—the former, which is said to be the larger of the two, coming from the north-east; the latter, which alone was explored by Du Chaillu, from the south-east. This river, after a long course through the table-lands of the interior, bursts through the mountain-range which separates them from the level country of the coast; the possibility of navigation being here cut off by a magnificent fall, and still more magnificent rapid, in which the river rushes down a steep declivity through a rocky chasm. Both above and below the fall, however, it is quite suitable for navigation by steamers; but a great impediment to commerce, when commerce shall spring up in that region, will be found in the difficult bar at the mouth of the Fernand Vas. The rainfall on the upper parts of the O. is supposed to be very great. The observations of Speke and Burton on the eastern side of tropical Africa, and of Du Chaillu on the western, concur in shewing that this must be the case. Rainy and dry seasons alternate on both coasts, but as the traveller proceeds inland, rain becomes more frequent, falling almost every day, and it would seem at all seasons alike.

OGY'GES, the earliest king of Attica and Boeotia named in Greek legend. In his time (according to Larcher, about 1759 B.C.) a great flood took place, called the Ogygian Flood, which desolated all the lower districts of both countries, and destroyed their inhabitants. The different legends lead to the supposition that under O. an Egyptian colony came to Boeotia, and thence to Attica. From him Boeotia took the name of Ogygia.

OGY'GIA, a genus of Trilobites peculiar to the Llandello flags of the Lower Silurian period. Six species have been described.

OHI' O, one of the United States of America, lies between lat.  $38^{\circ} 17'$ — $41^{\circ} 54'$  n., and long.  $80^{\circ} 34'$ — $84^{\circ} 40'$  w.; 225 miles in extent from east to west, and nearly 200 miles from north to south; containing 39,964 square miles, or 25,576,960 acres; bounded n. by Michigan and Lake Erie, e. by Pennsylvania and Virginia, from which it is separated by the Ohio River, which also forms its southern boundary, separating it from Virginia and Kentucky, and w. by Indiana. The Ohio River forms its boundary for 436 miles, and its lake shore is 230 miles. The high table-lands hilly, and in parts mountainous regions of O., are drained by numerous rivers, among which are the Great and Little Miami, Sciota, and Muskingum, affluents of the Ohio; and the Maumee, Sandusky, Huron, Vermillion, Cuyahoga, and Ashtabula, which empty into Lake Erie. Drift formations prevail in the north, alluvium in the south, with extensive coal-measures, and limestone strata, shales, marls, and gypsum, giving the whole state a wonderful fertility. The coal-beds of Eastern Ohio cover 10,000 square miles, with abundant deposits of iron ore. In the north are valuable deposits of burr-stone, a fossiliferous flinty quartz, used for millstones. The salt produced in 1878 was reported at 4,154,187 bushels. Oil wells have also been opened, and 1,815,660 barrels of oil were refined in the state in 1878. The soil, rich everywhere, is so fertile in the river bottoms as to have borne heavy cereal crops fifty successive years without manuring; the climate is temperate, with a liability to a cold in winter reaching sometimes to  $90^{\circ}$  below zero. It's healthy, except lowlands liable to fever and ague. The forests are rich in oak, black walnut, maple, &c.; the chief agricultural productions are Indian corn, wheat, rye, oats, hay, sorghum, tobacco, hemp, peaches, apples, grapes, cattle, sheep, swine, the latter being one of its chief exports. The chief manufactures are iron, clothing, furniture, spirits, wines, cotton, and woollen. The wine called Catawba, produced upon the southern shore of Lake Erie, compares very favorably with the similar wines of the Rhine. Farms occupy 21,712 420 acres, with an average size of 111 acres. A large commerce is carried on by the Ohio River, the lakes, canals, and numerous railways. The state is organised in 89 counties. The chief towns are Cincinnati, Cleveland, Columbus (the capital), Sandusky, Zanesville, &c. In 1874, there were 170 national and 243 private and other banks. The state revenue in the year ending Nov. 15, 1874, amounted to 5,768,789 dollars. Among the state institutions are 4 lunatic asylums, asylums for deaf and dumb, blind, idiots, penitentiary, reformatories, &c. In 1870, there were 11,952 establishments for education, including 9 universities, 33 colleges, 11 theological institutions, 10 medical, and 11,458 public schools. The total attendance was 790,795. The state possesses many extensive libraries, and has 395 newspapers. In 1874, 4374 miles of railway were open for traffic.

O. was organised and admitted as a state in 1803. The population in 1800 was 45,365; (1820) 531,434; (1840) 1,519,467; (1860) 2,339,599. of whom 111,257 were Germans, 51,562 Irish, 36,000 English and Scotch; (1870) 2,675,468.

OHIO, a river of the United States of America, called by the French explorers, after its Indian name, *la Belle Rivière*, next to the Missouri, the largest affluent of the Mississippi, is formed by the union of the Alleghany and Monongahela, at the western foot of the Alleghanies, at Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania, and flows west-south-west 975 miles, with a breadth of 1200 to 3000 feet, draining, with its tributaries, an area of 214,000 square miles. In its course it separates the northern states of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois from the southern states of Virginia, and Kentucky. The principal towns upon its banks are Cincinnati, Louisville (where there are rapids of 22 feet in a mile, with a steam-boat canal), Wheeling, Maysville, and Pittsburgh and Cairo at its source and mouth. It is navigable from Wheeling, 100 miles below Pittsburgh. The banks of the O. are generally high and terraced. It is often shallow and scarcely navigable, sometimes frozen, and subject to floods of 50 or 60 feet above low-water. Bordered by a rich country, and great deposits of coal and iron, it is the channel of a vast commerce, which it shares with its chief branches, the Tennessee, Cumberland, Wabash, Green, &c.

O'HLAU, Olau, or Olawa, a town of Prussian Silesia, 17 miles south-east from Breslau, on the right bank of the Ohlau, a branch of the Oder. O. is a station on the railway which connects Breslau and the north with Vienna. It is an ancient town, with a royal palace and an old castle. At the present day, it is a place of consider-

able industrial activity. Being the capital of a circle, it has numerous district courts and offices. Pop. (1875) 7963.

O'DIUM, an important genus of minute fungi of the section *Hyphomycetes*, growing on diseased animal and vegetable substances. They consist of minute tubular threads, forming flocks, white in some species, brightly colored in others, simple or irregularly branched, assuming in their upper part the form of strings of beads, which finally break up into elliptic spores. The species actually existing are probably much more numerous than those which have been fully ascertained. Among the most important of the vegetable parasites of man is *O. albicans*, which is found on the epithelium in the mouth and throat in the disease called *aphthæ*, or thrush, and on that of the throat in diphtheria, also sometimes in the nostrils, stomach, and intestines, on the nails, the nipples, and other places. It is more common in children and in aged persons, than in those who are in the prime of life. It occurs frequently in the last stages of many diseases, when the mucous membrane is covered with nitrogenous decomposable matter. Indeed, it would seem that whatever may be the case as to other vegetable parasites, no species of *O.* begins its attack upon a perfectly healthy surface, either animal or vegetable; a diseased state of the tissue being to these fungi a necessary condition of vegetation, "just as the yeast-plant will not vegetate save in a fermentable fluid, that is, in a solution which, in addition to sugar, contains some decomposable albuminous matter." *O. albicans* appears to the naked eye as a white pasty substance, slightly elevated above the mucous membrane to which it adheres; but under the microscope, its filamentous structure is easily perceived. Its seat is at first on the upper surface of the epithelial cells, but its filaments soon penetrate deeply between them, and the upper epithelial layers are soon worn out, and thrown off by the rapid growth from below. However incapable the *O. albicans* may be of attacking a healthy surface, there can be no doubt that it greatly contributes to the extension of disease, and that it is very readily communicated from one patient to another when there is catarrh or other inflammatory affection of the mucous membrane.

Another species of *O.* which has attracted great attention is *O. Tuckeri*, regarded by many as producing the grape disease, which, several years ago, injured the vineyards of many parts of the world, but in accordance with the views already expressed, perhaps rather to be regarded as merely accompanying and extending the disease. It may probably be the case that over-cultivation of particular varieties of grape, and too long continued cultivation on the same ground, have so impaired the vigor and healthfulness of the plants, as to make them liable to the attacks of this parasite. *O. Tuckeri* makes its appearance at first in the form of a mycelium of webby, creeping, branching filaments, which send out upright or decumbent jointed stems. The bead-like joints of the stems become successively filled with spores, which are finally discharged in little clouds for the multiplication of the species. The grape disease was first observed in Kent, England, in the spring of 1845, on vines in the viney of Mr. Tucker. The ends of the young shoots assumed a crispy appearance, began to wither, and then dried up. The unripe grapes were next attacked, becoming covered with a grayish-white bloom, the skin of the grapes being destroyed, and they rotted and dried up. The disease rapidly spread over other English vineyards; was observed about the same time in the vineyards of Paris, and soon in the vineyards of almost all parts of France, Italy, Greece, Tyrol, and Hungary; finally, and in a slighter degree, affecting the vineyards of the Rhine. Its ravages extended to Algeria, Syria, Asia-Minor, and many other countries, among which is particularly to be noticed the island of Madeira, where it proved almost completely destructive to the grapes, and nearly put an end to the production of the celebrated Madeira wine. The importation of Madeira wine to Britain in 1881 amounted to 209,127 gallons; and in 1861, only to 28,749 gallons. It is probable that the complete isolation of the Madeira vineyards made the progress of the disease more rapid, and its results more complete than elsewhere, by causing a prevalence of the conditions favorable for it. No kind of vine escaped. The grape disease is first perceived in the leaves, which become whitish, in consequence of a mycelium spreading over the upper surface of the leaf. The leaves sometimes curl up, or they become black at the centre, the blackness extending towards the circumference, and finally they drop off. The plant, through loss of its leaves, now becomes more unhealthy; the shoots are attacked by the disease, the stalks of the bunches of grapes, and the grapes them-

selves. The parasite penetrates into the young wood, the shoots are covered with spots and blotches of a reddish brown, or even black color, and look as if a red-hot iron had been applied to them. Sometimes they secrete a clammy inodorous fluid all over their surface; and in many cases they wither from the top down half their length. The affected grapes very often first exhibit the disease in a single whitish spot on a single grape of a bunch, which enlarges by radiating irregularly. If in a bunch there is one abortive grape, it often shews signs of the disease, whilst the rest remain free. The creeping branches of the mycelium are fixed upon the skin of the grape by rootlets, which do not penetrate into the juicy pulp. The mycelium sends up vertical fertile branches of nearly equal height, densely aggregated, and forming a velvet-like mass. The extremities of these become beaded; and at last the uppermost cell or bead increases in volume, becomes detached, and is carried off by some slight breath of air, to multiply the species by the dispersion of its spores. The other bead-like cells follow in succession.

Various means were resorted to for the prevention and cure of the grape disease. The application of pulverised sulphur was found useful, the fungus withering and drying up when brought into contact with a minute particle of sulphur. The application of sulphur must be frequent, as portions of the mycelium and some of the spores always escape. The use of sulphur was the chief means of checking the spread of O. in French and other European vineyards; it became general in the south of France and in Italy; and in consequence of its national importance, the duty on sulphur was reduced by the French government. Hydrosulphide of lime was also applied to vines with very beneficial effect. It is prepared by thoroughly mixing 68 ounces of flowers of sulphur with the same quantity of slaked lime, adding three or four quarts of water, boiling for about ten minutes, allowing it to settle, and decanting the clear liquor. When it is to be used, one quart is mixed with 100 quarts of water, and it is poured over the vines.

OIL-CAKE, the cake which remains in the press, when seeds are crushed to express the oil which they contain. Oil-cake still retains a portion of the oil of the seed, along with almost all its other constituents, and is valuable either for feeding cattle or for manure. Linseed-cake is so much more largely used in Britain than any other kind, that the name oil-cake is in general exclusively appropriated to it, the other kinds being known as *Rape-cake*, *Poppy-cake*, *Hemp-cake*, *Colza-cake*, &c., according to the plant from the seed of which they are produced. The use of oil-cake for feeding cattle has very much increased of late years, and it is an article of commercial importance. Large quantities are imported into Britain from different parts of the continent of Europe, and from North America. But English Linseed-cake—cake made at oil-mills in England, mostly from imported seed—is preferred to any other, because heat not being so freely applied during the expression of the oil, more oil is left in the cake, and also because foreign cake often suffers from dampness both before and during the sea passage. Besides the oil which remains in it, linseed-cake contains from 24 to 38 per cent. of nitrogenous substances or protein compounds, which make it very valuable both for feeding cattle and for manure. The value of linseed-cake for feeding is greater than that of any kind of grain or pulse.—*Rape-cake* is, next to linseed-cake, the kind of oil-cake best known in Britain. It is much cheaper than linseed-cake, but is not relished by cattle, having a hot taste, and a tendency to become rancid. Sheep, however, eat it readily, and it is often employed for fattening them. It is also often ground to a coarse powder (*rapedust*), and used as a manure. Its fertilising power is great, and it is used by the Flemish farmers as guano now is by those of Britain.—*Cotton Seed-cake* is much used as a manure in some parts of North America.—*Cocoa-nut-cake* is used in the south of India, both for feeding cattle and for manure.—Other kinds of cake are noticed, if sufficiently important, under the plants from which they are derived. Their properties are generally similar to those of linseed-cake, although the pungency of some, as *Mustard-cake*, renders them unsuitable for feeding cattle. See Oils.

OIL-FUEL. A great incentive has been given by the discovery of copious wells of petroleum (see OIL-WELLS AND OIL-TRADE) to the invention of some mode of using oil as a fuel for furnaces and stoves. Such attempts had often been made before; but they assume a new aspect now that oil has become so much cheapened. Nearly half the carrying capacity of European steam-ships, and more than half in those

which make long voyages, is taken up with the stowage of coal. Petroleum (q. v.), if wholly burned, and all the heat utilised, gives out much more heat than an equal weight of anthracite or steam coal.

Mr Richardson made some experiments for the government at Woolwich in 1866. His grate consisted of two iron boxes, one within the other; the inner contained oil, and the space between the two boxes contained water. When the water boiled by the application of heat, and the oil began to arise in vapor, a jet of steam was admitted to mix with the vapor. The steam was found to assist the perfect combustion, so as to avoid the production of smoke. One object was, to ascertain whether the refuse of the stills, resulting from the distillation of shale oil, could be made available as furnace-fuel. The government published a Report of the Experiments, with diagrams, in 1866. It was considered that petroleum, used instead of coal as fuel, (1) raises steam more rapidly; (2) requires a smaller furnace and boiler; (3) maintains a more continuous fire and heat; (4) affords means of varying the intensity of the fire more quickly; (5) is extinguished instantly by turning off the oil and keeping on the steam; (6) produces no smoke, ash, or dust; (7) dispenses with some of the staff of coalers and stokers; (8) economises space for coal-bunkers; (9) reduces the dead-weight carried by the ship; (10) occasions no loss of heat by opening furnace-doors; (11) keeps the engine-room clean and comparatively cool; and (12) admits of the furnace-fires being lighted much more quickly. A modified form of oil-furnace was tried at Woolwich by Mr Richardson, in 1867, not only with refined petroleum, but with the same oil in its crude form, shale-oil, naphthaline, creosote, grease, and residuum tar.

Experiments have been conducted with the same object in America. Mr Isherwood, chief of the Bureau of Steam-Engineering in the United States navy, conducted a series of experiments in 1867, on Colonel Foote's furnace for burning petroleum, and fitted up the iron gunboat *Palos* for this purpose, under the direction of a board of engineering officers. Most of the advantages claimed for Richardson's apparatus seem to be equally applicable to that of Foote.

There is a petroleum furnace by Messrs Wise and Field, patented in 1867, in which the oil is injected into the furnace by the pressure of superheated steam. There are many other forms of oil-furnace by Hill, Stevens, Sim, Barff, the American Petroleum Light Company, &c.

Many of the advantages of oil-fuel already mentioned are pretty generally conceded; but the questions of safety and cheapness are not yet settled.

OILLETS, or Oilelets, small openings, often circular, used in medieval buildings for discharging arrows, &c., through.

OIL MILL. See OILS.

OIL PALM (*Elaeis*), a genus of palms, of the same tribe with the cocoa-nut palm. The best known species, the O. P. of tropical Africa, sometimes attains the height of 60—80 feet. The stems are thickest in the middle, tapering chiefly upwards. The leaves are pinnate, their footstalks spiny. The flowers have a strong peculiar smell, like that of anise or chervil. The fruit forms an immense head, like a great pine-apple, consisting of a great number of bright orange-colored drupes, having a thin skin, an oily pulp, and a hard stone. The pulp of the drupes, forming about three-fourths of their whole bulk, yields, by bruising and boiling, an oil, which when fresh has a pleasant odor of violets, and when removed into colder regions acquires the consistency of butter. This oil is now very largely imported from tropical Africa into Britain, and is much used for many purposes, as for making candles, toilet soaps, &c., and for lubricating machinery and the wheels of railway carriages. When fresh, it is eaten like butter. See OILS. The nut was formerly rejected as useless after the oil had been obtained from the fruit; but from its kernel a fixed oil is now extracted, called PALM-NUT OIL; which is clear and limpid, and has become to some extent an article of commerce. The O. P. abounds in mangrove swamps, but is also a conspicuous feature of the landscape on sandy coasts in the tropical parts of Western Africa. It yields from its trunk abundance of a pleasant and harmless beverage, which, however, becomes intoxicating in a few hours; called *Ma'ova* in Angola, and much used there as an alcoholic stimulant. The unripe nuts of the O. P. are used in some parts of Africa for making an excellent kind of soup.

The O. P. has been introduced into some parts of America, and is now abundant in them.

**OIL-REFINING.** Several oils, from the mode of their extraction, are necessarily impure, and various means are taken for refining or purifying them: thus, the so-called *fish-oils*—that is, whale, seal, cod, &c.—are clarified either by mixing them with a chemical solution, or by passing steam through them and filtering through coarse charcoal. The chemical solutions employed are various. One method is, to use a strong solution of oak bark, the tannic acid in which combines with the albuminous matters present in the oil, and precipitates them; another plan is, to agitate bleaching-powder, formed into a milk with water, with the oil; and then, after subsidence of the chloride of lime and water, to wash the oil with water, or jets of steam passed through it. A more simple and very effective plan, invented by Mr Dunn, is to apply a steam heat not exceeding 200° F., and then pass a current of air of the same temperature through it continuously for some time: this effectually bleaches the oil.

• Olive, and some other vegetable oils, are refined by agitating them with a saturated solution of caustic soda. This renders the whole soupy; but after a time the oil precipitates a saponaceous deposit, and the remainder becomes quite clear and pure, and is then poured off. The value of several of the most important oils of commerce is so greatly increased by refining, that this art has now become a very important branch of business, and is carried out on a large scale.

**OILS (including Fats).** The fats and fixed oils constitute an important and well-marked group of organic compounds, which exist abundantly both in the animal and vegetable kingdoms. They are not simple organic compounds, but each of them is a mixture of several such compounds to which the term *glycerides* is applied; and the glycerides which by their mixture in various proportions from the numerous fats and oils are mainly those of palmitic, stearic, and oleic acids—if we adopt the recent view that Marguric Acid (q. v.) has no independent existence—and to a less extent those of other fatty acids, which will be presently noticed, such as butyric, caproic, caprylic, and capric acids, which are obtained from butter; myristic acid, which is obtained from coco-nut oil, &c. The members of this group may be solid and hard, like suet; semi-solid and soft, like butter and lard; or fluid, like the oils. The solid and semi-solid are, however, generally placed together and termed fats, in contradistinction to the fluid oils. The most solid fats are readily fusible, and become reduced to a fluid or oily state at a temperature lower than that of the boiling-point of water. They are not volatile, or, in other words, they cannot be distilled without decomposition, and it is not until a temperature of between 500° and 600° is reached that they begin nearly simultaneously to boil and to undergo decomposition, giving off acroleine (an acrid product of the distillation of glycerine) and other compounds. In consequence of this property, these oils are termed *fixed oils*, in contradistinction to a perfectly separate group of oily matters, on which the odoriferous properties of plants depend, and which, from their being able to bear distillation without change, are known as *volatile oils*. These, which are also known as *essential* or *etherial oils*, differ *in toto* in their chemical composition from the compounds we are now considering, and will be separately noticed in the latter part of this article. All the fats and oils are lighter than water, and are perfectly insoluble in that fluid. Their specific gravity ranges from about 0.91 to 0.94. They dissolve in ether, oil of turpentine (one of the volatile oils), benzol, and to a certain extent in alcohol; while, on the other hand, they act as solvents for sulphur, phosphorus, &c. If a fatty matter be shaken with a watery solution of albumen, gum, or some other substance that increases the density of the water, and renders it viscid, the mixture assumes a milky appearance, in consequence of the suspension of the fat or oil in the form of microscopic globules, and is termed an *emulsion*. These bodies possess the property of penetrating paper and other fabrics, rendering them transparent, and producing what is well known as a greasy stain. They are not readily inflammable unless with the agency of a wick, when they burn with a bright flame. In a pure and fresh state they are devoid of taste and smell, but on exposure to the air they become oxidised and acid, assume a deeper color, evolve a disagreeable odor and are acrid to the taste; or, in popular language, they become *rank*. The rapidity with which this change occurs is considerably increased by

the presence of mucilaginous or albuminous bodies. The rancidity may be removed by shaking the oil in hot water in which a little hydrated magnesia is suspended.

The general diffusion of fats and oils in the animal kingdom has been already described. (See FATS, ANIMAL.) In the vegetable kingdom they are equally widely distributed, there being scarcely any tissue of any plant in which traces of them may not be detected; but they are specially abundant in the seeds. The seeds of the *Cruciferæ* are remarkably rich in oil; linseed yielding fully 20 per cent., and rape-seed about 40 per cent. of oil; and some fruits, as those of the olive and oil-palm, yield an abundance of oil.

The uses of the oils and fats are numerous, and highly important, various members of this group being extensively employed as articles of food, as medicines, as lubricating agents, in the preparation of soaps, plasters, ointments, varnishes, pigments, candles and other means of illumination, for the purpose of dressing leather, &c. The following are the most important members of the group:

**1. Vegetable Fats.**—The chief solid fats of vegetable origin are cocoa-nut oil, nutmeg butter, and palm oil. The fluid vegetable fats or oils are divisible into the *non-drying* and the *drying oils*; the latter being distinguished from the former by their becoming dry and solid when exposed in thin layers to the air, in consequence of oxygenation; while the former do not absorb oxygen, but are converted by hyponitric acid or sub-oxide of mercury into elaidine (as described in the article OLEINE), a reaction which is not exhibited by the drying oils. Some of the drying oils, especially linseed oil, when mixed with cotton, wool, or tow, absorb oxygen so rapidly, and consequently become so heated as to take fire, and many cases of the spontaneous combustion of heaps of oily materials that have been employed in cleaning machinery have been recorded. The drying property may be much increased by treating the oils with a little litharge or oxide of manganese, and linseed oil thus treated is then known as *boiled oil*. The chief non-drying oils are olive oil, almond oil, and colza oil; while the most important drying oils are those of linseed, hemp, poppy, and walnut; castor oil seems to form a link between these two classes of oils, since it gradually becomes hard by long exposure to the air.

**2. Animal Fats.**—The chief solid fats are suet, lard, butter, goose grease, &c.; while among the fluid fats or oils, sperm oil, ordinary whale oil, cod-liver oil, and neat's-foot oil may be especially mentioned. In many of their characters, spermaceti and bees-wax resemble the solid fats, but, as will be shewn in the articles on these subjects, they are not glycerides. As a general rule, stearine and palmitine, both of which have comparatively high fusing points (between 15° and 114°), predominate in the solid fats; while oleine, which is fluid at 82°, is the chief constituent of the oils.

One or two of the most important of the decompositions of the fats must be noticed. When any of these bodies are heated with the hydrated alkalies, they undergo a change which has long been known as Saponification, or conversion into soap (q. v.), in which the fatty acid combines with the alkali to form a soap, while the sweet viscous liquid glycerine is simultaneously formed. The combination of a fatty acid with oxide of lead forms a *plaster*. For further details on these points, the reader is referred to the articles SOAP and PLASTERS.

The process of saponification affords a ready means of isolating the fatty acids, as the stearic or oleic acids may be at once separated from an alkaline stearate or oleate by the addition of hydrochloric or tauric acid. When the fatty acids are, however, required on a large scale, as for the manufacture of the so-called stearine candles, which in reality consist mainly of stearic and palmitic acids, sulphuric acid and the oil or fat are made to act upon each other at a high temperature. See CANDLE. The fatty acids may also be procured in a very pure form by the injection of superheated steam at a temperature of between 500° and 600° into heated fat—a process which, according to Professor Miller, "from its simplicity and from the purity of the products which it yields, bids fair to supersede those previously employed in the preparation of the fatty acids for illuminating purposes."

The only fatty acids which have been specially mentioned in this article are those which occur in natural glycerides, such as stearic, palmitic, and oleic acids. The term *fatty acid* has, however, in Chemistry a wide signification, and is applied to many acids homologous to stearic acid, but not occurring in any natural fats or oils. Thus stearic acid may be taken as the type of a group of acids (of which seventeen

are already known) represented by the general formula,  $C_2nH_{2n}O_4$ , commencing with formic acid ( $C_2H_2O_4$ ), including acetic, propionic, butyric, valeric (or valerianic), caproic, heptanoic, caprylic, pelargonic, caprie, lauric, myristic, palmitic, stearic, arachidic, and cerotic acids, and terminating with melissic acid ( $C_{60}H_{108}O_4$ ). These are divided into the volatile and the true (or solid) fatty acids; the volatile acids being those from formic to capric acid, while the remainder, beginning with lauric acid, are the true fatty acids. The *volatile fatty acids* are fluid, and for the most part oily at ordinary temperatures, may be distilled without change, possess a pungent odor, and are acid to the taste, and their solutions reddens litmus paper strongly. The *true fatty acids*, on the other hand, are solid at ordinary temperatures, are devoid of taste and smell, cannot be distilled except *in vacuo*, without decomposition, and only exert a slight action on litmus. The volatile acids occur in the animal and vegetable kingdoms (formic acid, for example, in red ants, and valeric acid, in the root of valerian), and they are likewise produced by the oxidation and spontaneous decomposition of numerous animal and vegetable products. The entire series, up to capric acid, may be obtained by oxidizing oleic acid with nitric acid. The true or solid acids only occur as constituents of animal and vegetable fats.

Professor Miller makes a second group of fatty acids, of which oleic acid is the type, and which have the general formula  $C_2nH_{2n-2}O_4$ ; but as oleic acid is the only member of this group which is of any practical importance, it is sufficient to refer the reader to the special article on that acid.

A complete list of even the chief fats and fixed oils would take up far more space than we can command. In the article "Fixed Oils," in "The English Cyclopaedia," the reader will find 64 of the most important of these substances mentioned, with in most cases a brief notice of the origin and properties of each. The British pharmacopoeia contains hog's-lard, mutton suet, cod-liver oil, concrete oil (or butter) of nutmeg, and almond, castor, croton, linseed, and olive oils, besides the closely allied substances spermaste and wax.

The *Volatile* or *Essential Oils* exist, in most instances, ready formed in plants, and are believed to constitute their odorous principles. They form an extremely numerous class, of which most of the members are fluid; a few (oil of aniseed, for example) being solid at ordinary temperatures, but all of them are capable of being distilled without undergoing change. They resemble the fixed oils in their inflammability, in their solubility in the same fluids, and in their communicating a greasy stain to paper or any other fabric; but the stain in this case soon disappears, and they further differ in communicating a rough and harsh rather than an agreeable feeling to the skin. Their boiling points are in almost all cases far higher than that of water, but when heated with water, they pass off with the steam—a property on which one of the chief modes of obtaining them depends. See *PERFUMERY*. The oils have characteristic penetrating odors, which are seldom so pleasant as those of the plants from which they are obtained, and their taste is hot and irritating. They vary in their specific gravity, but most of them are lighter than water, and refract light strongly. Most of them are nearly colorless when fresh, but darken on exposure to light and air; but a few are green, and two or three of a blue color. By prolonged exposure they absorb oxygen, and become converted into resins.

By far the greater number of them are products of the vital activity of plants, in which most of them exist ready formed, being enclosed in minute cavities, which are often visible to the naked eye. Although diffused through almost every part of a plant, the oil is especially abundant in particular organs of certain families of plants. In the *Umbelliferae*, it is most abundant in the seeds; in the *Rosaceæ*, in the petals of the flowers; in the *Myrtaceæ* and *Labiatae*, in the leaves; in the *Aurantiaceæ*, in the rind of the fruit. As in the case of the animal and vegetable fats and fixed oils, so most of the essential oils occurring in plants are mixtures of two or more distinct chemical compounds, one of which usually contains no oxygen, while the others are oxidized. Of these, the former, which is a pure hydrocarbon, is the more volatile, and acts as a solvent for the others. Most of these oils, when cooled, separate into a solid and a fluid portion, to which the terms *Stearopten* and *Elaeopten* have been applied.

In the comparatively few cases in which the oils are not formed naturally, they are produced by a species of fermentation, as in the case of Oil of Bitter Almonds and Oil of Mustard (q. v.), while others are the product of the dry distillation or of

the putrefaction of many vegetable bodies. Some of the natural oils, as those of cinnamon, spirea, and winter-green, have also been artificially produced.

The essential oils are much employed in the fabrication of Perfumery (q. v.), for the purpose of flavoring liqueurs, confectionary, &c., for various purposes in the arts (as in silvering mirrors), and in medicine. The special uses of the most important of these oils in medicine will be noticed subsequently.

The members of this group, which is an extremely numerous one (more than 140 essential oils being noticed in the article on that subject in "The English Cyclopædia"), admit of arrangement under four heads. 1. Pure Hydrocarbons; 2. Oxygenous Essential Oils; 3. Sulphurous Essential Oils; 4. Essential Oils obtained by Fermentation, Dry Distillation, &c.

1. The *Pure Hydrocarbons* are for the most part fluid, and have a lower specific gravity, a lower boiling point, and a higher refractive power than the oxygenous oils. They absorb oxygen, and are converted into oxygenous oils and resins. They may be separated from oxygenous oils, with which they are usually associated, by fractional distillation. They include oil of turpentine ( $C_{20}H_{16}$ ), and the oils of bergamot, birch, chamomile, caraway, cloves, elemi, hop, juniper, lemons, orange, parsley, savine, and valerian, most or all of which contain the same hydrocarbon as Oil of Turpentine (q. v.), and in addition to it an oxidised compound; oil of copaiva ( $C_{30}H_{44}$ ), attar of roses ( $C_{16}H_{16}$ ), &c.

2. The *Oxygenous Essential Oils* may be either fluid or solid, the latter being also termed *Camphora*. A steareopen separates from most of the fluid oils on cooling. They are more soluble in water and spirit of wine than the pure hydrocarbons. They may be divided into (1) those which are fluid at ordinary temperatures, such as those of aniseed, chamomile,\* cajeput, caraway,\* cinnamon, cloves,\* fennel, lavender, peppermint, rue, spirea, thyme,\* winter-green, &c. Those marked with a (\*) are associated with the pure hydrocarbons already described. (2) The camphors, such as ordinary camphor ( $C_{20}H_{16}O_2$ ), Borneo camphor ( $C_{20}H_{16}O_2$ ), &c.

3. The *Sulphurous Essential Oils* are chiefly obtained from the *Cruciferae*. They probably all contain the radical *allyl* ( $C_6H_5$ ). The oils of garlic and mustard of (both of which have been described in special articles), and those of horse-radish, scurvy-grass and asafoetida, are the best illustrative of this division.

4. Amongst the essential oils obtained by fermentation, dry distillation, &c., may be mentioned the oils of bitter almonds and of black mustard, the oils of miltfoil, plantain, centaury, &c. (whose leaves have no smell until they have been moistened for some time with water, when a kind of fermentation is set up, and oil is yielded in abundance), Furfuramide (q. v.), &c.

The British pharmacopœia contains the essential oils of anise, cajeput, caraway, chamomile, cinnamon, cloves, copaiva, coriander, cubeb\*, dill, juniper, lavender, lemon, nutmeg, peppermint, pimento, rosemary, rue, savine, spearmint, and turpentine. Of these, the oils of anise, cajeput, caraway, chamomile, coriander, dill, peppermint, pimento, and spearmint are used as stimulants and antispasmodics in cases of flatulence, griping, &c.; and to disguise the nauseous taste of various medicines. The oils of cajeput, cinnamon, and rue act similarly but more powerfully. The oils of copaiva and cubeb act in the same manner as the substances from which they are derived; oil of juniper is a powerful diuretic, and oil of savine (and to a less extent oil of rue) an emmenagogue. The oils of lavender and lemon are used to conceal the smell of sulphur ointment, and to give an agreeable odor to lotions, &c. The oil of rosemary is chiefly employed as a stimulating liniment, especially in cases of baldness; and the oil of nutmeg is seldom given medicinally except in the form of aromatic spirit of ammonia, into the composition of which it enters.

A very admirable paper on the essential oils, was read by Dr Gladstone before the Chemical Society, in the month of December 1863; and the reader who is anxious to pursue the subject further will find it advantageous to refer to this excellent production.

Bland oils—such, for example, as olive oil—were much used by the ancients as external applications in various forms of disease. Celsus repeatedly speaks of the use of oil applied externally with friction in fevers, and in various other diseases. Pliny says that olive oil warms the body and at the same time cools the head, and that it was used with these objects previously to taking cold baths. Aretæus recommends a sitz-bath of oil in cases of renal calculi, and Josephus relates that a similar mode of treatment was employed in the case of Herod. Galen prescribed "oil and

wine" for wounds in the head; and the parable of the good Samaritan affords additional evidence that this was a common mode of treating wounds. The use of oil preparatory to athletic exercises is referred to by numerous Greek and Latin writers.

As a cosmetic—that is to say, as a means of giving to the skin and hair a smooth and graceful appearance—its use has been prevalent in hot climates from the earliest times. There is abundant historical evidence of this usage of oil amongst the Egyptians, the Jews, the Greeks, and the Romans; and Pliny's statement that butter is used by the negroes, and the lower class of Arabs, for the purpose of anointing, is confirmed by the observation of all recent African travellers. In hot climates, there is doubtless a practical as well as an æsthetic object in anointing. The oil, being a bad conductor of heat, affords a certain amount of protection against the direct action of the solar heat; it is likewise serviceable as a protection against the attacks of insects, and as a means of checking excessive perspiration. The fact of oily and fatty matters being bad conductors of heat, serves also to explain why the Esquimaux and other dwellers in Arctic regions have recourse to the inunction of the blubber, &c. In their case the oily investment serves to prevent the escape of the bodily heat.

The Greeks and Romans not only employed oil for the purposes already mentioned, but in their funeral rites; the bodies of their dead being anointed with oil, with the view probably of postponing incipient decomposition. A similar practice existed amongst the Jews, and in the Gospels we find various passages in which our Lord referred to his own body being anointed by anticipation. It appears from the evidence of S. Chrysostom, and other writers, that this ancient usage of anointing the bodies of the dead was long retained in the Christian Church. See **UNCION**; **EXTREME UNCTION**.

In conclusion, we may remark that the ancient system of anointing, as a means of medical treatment, has to a certain extent been revived in modern times. Many physicians of the present day combine the inunction of cod-liver oil with its internal administration, a combination first recommended by Professor Simpson of Edinburgh; and Sir Henry Holland advocates the practice of anointing the harsh, dry skin of dyspeptic patients with warm oils. There can, we think, be little doubt that there are many forms of disease in which the local application of medicinal oils would prove advantageous; but the great drawback to their use is, that the time required for properly rubbing them into the skin is more than most patients are willing to concede. For much curious information on the subject of this article, the reader is referred to a very interesting paper by Mr Hunter, "On the External Application of Oils," in the second volume of "The Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal."

**OILS IN THEIR COMMERCIAL RELATIONS.**—The solid animal oils found in commerce are butter and lard, tallow, mares' grease, goose grease, neat's foot oil, and unrefined yolk of egg oils. The two first are fully described under their names. See **BUTTER**, **LARD**. Tallow is the fat of oxen and sheep, but more especially the fat which envelops the kidneys and other parts of the viscera, rendered down or melted. The qualities of this solid oil render it particularly well adapted for making candles, and until the end of the first quarter of the present century, candles for ordinary use were almost wholly made of it, the high price of wax and spermaceti preventing their employment except by the most wealthy and for ecclesiastical purposes. Besides its use in making candles, tallow is most extensively used in the manufacture of soap, and for the purpose of preserving machinery from rust. The trade in tallow with Russia, which produces the best, and with North and South America, and even with India and other countries, is very considerable; but it is declining, owing of course to the extension of gas and the enormous development of the Paraffin and Petroleum Oils (q. v.), and other light-giving materials. The quantities of tallow and stearine imported in five recent years into Britain were as follows:

|           | Tons.     |                  |
|-----------|-----------|------------------|
| 1871..... | 1,247,064 | Value £2,996,958 |
| 1872..... | 1,232,144 | " 2,792,570      |
| 1873..... | 1,537,321 | " 3,847,271      |
| 1874..... | 1,165,243 | " 4,172,118      |
| 1875..... | 967,896   | " 4,388,166      |

The chief use of tallow in this country is now in the manufacture of Soap (q. v.), and even in this it has yielded in importance to palm and cocoa-nut oils.

Mares' Grease is not nearly so solid as tallow, it is a yellowish-brown grease, imported extensively from Monte Video and Buenos Ayres, where vast numbers of horses are slaughtered for their hides, bones, and grease; it is particularly valuable as a lubricant for machinery, and is frequently employed for that purpose after much of its stearine has been removed for candle-making. The reason this material is called *mares'* grease, is said to be from the circumstance, that in South America horses are chiefly used alive, and mares are slaughtered as comparatively useless. Goose Grease is another soft fat, much valued by housewives for many purposes, but excepting that it is sold in some districts as a remedial agent, it has no commercial importance. Neats'-foot Oil is a soft fat procured in the preparation of the feet and intestines of oxen for food as sold in the tripe-shops. The quantity obtained is not very great, but it is in much request by carriers for dressing leather. Yolk of Egg Oil is a hard oil, which, though little known in Britain, is extensively used in other countries where eggs are cheaper. In Russia, for instance, it is manufactured on so large a scale as to supply some of the largest makers of fancy soaps, and it forms the principal material in the celebrated Kazan Soap; and certain pomades are made of it which have a great reputation, and realise very high prices. The oil is not unlike palm oil in color and consistency; but when refined is liquid, and has a reddish-yellow color. Its price at Moscow is as high as 8s. per pound.

The liquid animal oils are more numerous, and, excepting tallow, are far more important, the so-called fish-oils being the principal. These are whale, porpoise, seal, cod, herring, shark, &c. The whales which are pursued for their oil are: (1.) The Sperm Whale. This huge creature is from 60 to 70 feet in length, and yields generally from 5000 to 6000 gallons of oil. The finest oil is taken from the great reservoir on the head. The oil of this species is all of a quality superior to others, and is known as sperm oil. For the method of procuring this oil, see CACHOLOT. (2.) The Right Whale, which yields by far the largest proportion of whale oil. This, with that yielded by other less important species, is usually called train oil. The term *train* is supposed to be a corruption of *dram*, and applies to the circumstance of the oil being drained out of the blubber; and in this sense it is also applied to sperm oil from the blubber of the cachalot, in contradistinction to the finer oil from the head matter. The Right Whale forms the chief object of the northern fisheries, but other species of Baleen are pursued in different parts of the world for the sake of their oil. See WHALE.

Amongst the smaller Cetaceans, the porpoises—called also dolphins ("puffydummers" on the east coast of Scotland)—and grampus yield an excellent oil, second only in value to that of regular oil whales; and to obtain it, large numbers are occasionally killed in the British seas. The price of sperm oil ranges from £50 to £95 per tun, and that of ordinary train oil from £40 to 45 per tun of 252 gallons. The imports and consumption of the various kinds of whale oil for the five years 1871—1875 were as follows:

|           | Tuns.  |                  |
|-----------|--------|------------------|
| 1871..... | 24,679 | Value £1,087,734 |
| 1872..... | 18,719 | " 855,590        |
| 1873..... | 17,886 | " 766,927        |
| 1874..... | 17,051 | " 751,359        |
| 1875..... | 19,359 | " 917,701        |

A large quantity of very valuable oil is obtained from Seals, and the seal-fishery, as a means of obtaining oil, is only second in importance to that of the whale. It is carried on chiefly on the shores of Newfoundland, Greenland, and Labrador. Like the whales, the seals have a thick layer of blubber, in which the oil is contained. See SEAL. The first draining from the blubber is of a fine clear pale-straw color; the next, yellow or tinged; and the last is brown or dark. The price ranges in our markets at about £85 to £40 per tun for pale, £30 to £35 for yellow, and £28 to £30 for brown. The whale and the seal oils are nearly all used for burning in lamps, and for this purpose they are admirably adapted by their great illuminating power. They are also the best lubricants for machinery.

Of the true fish oils, that from the cod is most in importance, more especially since its medicinal properties were discovered. It is made only from the liver of the

fish; and the attempt which was made to induce a popular belief that the so-called cod-liver oil was different from the ordinary cod oil of commerce, was simply a cheat; no difference exists, and the oil is obtained just as good from the oil merchant, at a moderate price per gallon, as from the empiric at an exorbitant price per pint. Indeed, the purer the oil can be got, the better it is in a remedial point of view, notwithstanding the efforts made to convince the public that a certain color is better than any other.

Instead of the old and somewhat rude methods of preparing the oil (see COD-LIVER OIL), much more complete and efficient arrangements are now adopted. The livers, when taken from the fish are all examined, washed in clean water and placed in sieves to dry. Thence they are transferred to pans heated with steam, and after being exposed to a gentle heat for about three-quarters of an hour, the heat is discontinued; and when cold, the oil which has separated is skimmed off, and strained through flannel bags into tubs. Here certain impurities subside, and the clear oil is poured off from the dregs, and the contents of numerous tubs are transferred to galvanised iron cisterns in which a further settlement takes place. The oil is now ready for the filters, which are made of the strong cloth called molekin, through which it is forced by atmospheric pressure into the store-tanks, which are also of galvanised iron. Hence it is pumped into the casks for export, which are usually hogsheads, tierces, and barrels. The value of cod-liver oil is about £34 to £40 per tun. The imports vary much according to the success of the fishery; they have reached nearly 1000 tons per annum. Besides its consumption in lamps and for medicinal purposes, cod oil is used in making some kinds of soap. Oil is occasionally made from the herring, but not in very great quantities; it, however, forms a commercial article. It is made from the whole of the fish, the smell of which it retains to a very disagreeable extent.

The lightest of all the fixed oils is made from the liver of the common shark; it ranges from specific gravity 0.865 to 0.967. This, and the oil made from the livers of the Common Skate (*Raja batis*), the Thornback (*R. clavata*), and the White Skate (*Rhinobatos cerniculus*), are often substituted for the cod-liver oil used medicinally, but have not its valuable properties.

Under the name of lard oil, large quantities of the oleine of lard have been imported of late years from America. It is a secondary product, arising from the great manufacture of lard stearine for candle-making which has arisen in that country. Lard oil is worth about £45 to £58 per tun, and is principally used as a lubricant for machinery.

The solid vegetable fixed oils which find a place in commerce are palm oil, coconut oil, kokum or vegetable tallow, and carapa or carap oil. The palm oil is an oil of a bright orange-yellow color and an agreeable violet odor: it is obtained from the not very thick covering of the hard seeds of the Oil-palm (q. v.). The fruits, when gathered, are shaken out of the clusters, and are laid in heaps in the sun for a short time, after which the natives boil them slowly in water, when the oil separates and is skimmed off the surface, and carried in small quantities to the depots of the traders, who transfer it to casks which are prepared to receive it on board the ships. The quantity thus collected is enormous. The imports into Britain alone for the five years 1871-1875 were as follows, in tons weight: (1871) 52,394; (1872) 50,325; (1873) 5,897, (1874) 53,383; (1875) 45,228. Previous to 1840, the chief use of palm oil was in making soap, but it was about that time found that the palmitine or fat acid of this oil was admirably adapted for the manufacture of Candles (q. v.); and since then it has become of much greater importance.

Cocoa-nut Oil is a white fat, with the peculiar smell of the kernel; it is made by grinding or pounding the kernel of the cocoa nut. After it has been boiled in water for a short time, the paste is submitted to great pressure, and a large quantity of milky juice is obtained; this is slowly boiled, and the oil separates and rises to the surface in considerable quantity, and is skinned off. Twenty ordinary-sized units will yield as much as two quarts of oil. This oil is now very largely imported, and, treated in the same way as palm oil, forms a stearine, which greatly improves that of palm oil when mixed with it in proper proportions; neither does so well separately, and the consumption of cocoanut oil has consequently very greatly increased. Most of it comes from Ceylon, where the tree is largely cultivated on purpose. The imports in 1870 were 9930 tons; in 1872, 21,469 tons; and in 1875, 10,967 tons. By

far the greater proportion of this vast quantity is used by the candle manufacturers, and the remainder in making common soap, its disagreeable smell preventing it being employed for the better kinds.

Vegetable Tallow, or Kokum Oil, is also used by the candle-makers; only small quantities, however, are imported. It comes from Singapore, and is produced from the seed of *Garcinia purpurea*, a species of the same genus with the mangosteen. Another kind of vegetable tallow is made in China, from the seeds of *Stillingia sebifera*.

Carapa, Carap, Crab, or Andiroba Oil, is very extensively made in British Guiana and the West Indies, but it is nearly all used there, either as a pomade for preserving the hair, or as an unguent for rheumatic and neuralgic pains, for which purpose, it is said to be very useful. See CARAPA.

The Bassia Oil is beginning to attract attention, and several importations have taken place from India, and some rather large quantities have reached Liverpool from Bonbey, under the name of Muohwa Oil. This oil is of a soft butter-like consistency, and yellowish-green color, and is well adapted for soap-making and for machinery grease. See BASSIA.

The liquid vegetable oils are very numerous, and several are of great commercial importance. First in rank is Olive Oil, made from the ripe fruit of the Common Olive (*Olea Europea*). When good and fresh, it is of a pale greenish-yellow color, with scarcely any smell or taste, except a sweetish nutty flavor, much esteemed by those who use it. The finest qualities are the Provence Oil (rarely seen in Britain), Florence Oil, and Lucca Oil. These are all used for salads and for cooking. The Genoa is used on the continent for the same purposes; and Galipoli, which is inferior, constitutes the great bulk of what is received in this country for cloth dressing, Turkey-red dyeing, and other purposes; the continental soap-makers also employ it extensively. The high price of the best qualities leads to much adulteration with poppy and other oils, but it is generally pretty safe when in the original flasks as imported. The mode of obtaining the finest kinds is by gentle pressure of the fruit. The cake is afterwards treated with hot water, from the surface of which an inferior quality is skimmed. The Galipoli oil is obtained by allowing the olives to ferment in heaps, and then to press them in powerful oil-presses; the cake or *mara* is then treated with water once or twice, until all the oil is removed; this inferior oil is darker in color, being a yellowish or brownish green. We receive the finest from Italy, and the commoner qualities from the Levant, Mogador, Spain, Portugal, and Sicily. The present values range from £44 to £54 for common kinds, and the finest Lucca is £1 the half chest, or nearly £85 per tun measure. The total quantity imported during the four years 1872-1875 was as follows: (1872) 23,964 tuns; (1873) 35,121 tuns; (1874) 22,720 tuns; (1875) 85,458 tuns.

Nearly all the other liquid vegetable oils of this class are obtained from seeds, and as they are most of them treated in the same way, one description will suffice. First, the seeds are ground—and this in Britain is always done by vertical stones—into a kind of coarse meal, which is first warmed in pans, and then put in certain portions in wooll'n cloths or bags, so arranged as to be of uniform thickness; these are again wrapped in horse-hair cloths, and each parcel is placed between two flat boards slightly fluted on their inner sides, and then placed in the wedge-press. In this are two flannel bags filled with the meal and enclosed in horse-hair bags, each flattened between the flat boards. They are set upright, between the pressing-plates, one at each end of the press-frame, which is made of great strength, and often of cast iron. Next is placed the wedge; the other wedge is then suspended by a cord; the main wedge is lastly inserted, and the press is ready for action. The operation is very simple: a heavy wooden stamper, from 500 to 600 pounds-weight, is raised by machinery about two feet, and allowed to fall upon the wedge. This tightens all the other wedges and pressing-plates, and exerts a pressure of about 60 tons on each bag when fully driven home. The pressing-plates are pierced with holes; and through these holes the oil trickles and passes away by the pipe.

One of the chief seed oils is that of linseed (q. v.). Very little linseed oil is imported into Britain; the improved machinery, and the great demand for the oil-cake (see OIL-CAKE), cause it to be manufactured at home, and at present it is exported in considerable quantities; thus, from Hull alone there was exported in 1875, of seed-oil, expressed chiefly from foreign seed, no less than 6,846,725 gallons, and over

10,000 tons of oil-cake; and from London and Liverpool together about the same quantity. The total production of Great Britain for 1868 was estimated at £5,000 tons; for 1869, 61,000 tons; for 1871, 69,000 tons; and for 1872, 67,000 tons. In 1875, 15,628 £16 gallons of seed-oil were exported. It is worth about £36 per ton. Rape or Coiza Oil is a name which covers the product of several cruciferous seeds, as rape, turnip and other species of *Brassica*. radish, *Sinapis toria*, Gold of Pleasure, &c. The oil is clear brown and usually sweet, but with a mustard-like flavor; its illuminating powers are excellent, and it is also well adapted for wool-dressing. Very large quantities are made in Great Britain, chiefly from *Sinapis toria* and other Indian mustard seeds, which are imported under the name of Surzeo Seed. The imports of these seeds are occasionally as much as 60,000 quarters per annum. Hemp Seed yields a green oil which is much used in making soft soap, especially in Holland. In Russia it is eaten with various kinds of food, and is greatly liked by all classes.

The following are the names of a number of oils which are more or less used in this country: Cotton-seed Oil. Palm-nut Oil, a clear limpid oil from the hard nut of the oil-palm; this nut was formerly rejected as useless after the oil had been obtained from the fruit. Safflower-seed Oil, from the seeds of *Carthamus tinctorius*; it constitutes the real Macassar Oil. Sunflower-seed Oil, from seed imported from the Black Sea provinces of Russia; a rapidly increasing trade is springing up in this excellent oil. Poppy-seed Oil, from the seed of *Papaver somniferum*, largely imported from India; it is as sweet as olive oil, and is extensively substituted for it, especially in France, where it is also very largely cultivated. Gingelli-seed Oil, from the seed of *Sesamum orientale*, an important Indian staple of which we are large consumers; the oil is much used for wool dressing, &c. Gronud-nut Oil, from the seeds of *Arachis hypogaea*, imported from Western Africa and India; this oil is particularly adapted for fine machinery, as it is not affected by cold. Niger, Til, or Teel-seed Oil, from the seeds of *Guizotia oleifera*, much imported from Bombay. Croton Oil, from the seeds of *Jatropha curcas*, largely used in wool dressing. The Croton Oil used in medicine is from *Croton tiglium*, of which only small quantities are imported; whereas of the other 1200 or 1400 tons, besides a quantity of the seed, often reach us in one year. Another highly valuable medicinal oil, Castor Oil (q.v.), is of great commercial importance. Almond Oil, chiefly used for perfumery purposes, is made from the kernels of the sweet and bitter almond; it is the most free from flavor and odor of any oil in use, notwithstanding that the essential oil of bitter almonds is so strongly flavored.

Oils made from the seeds of the following plants have some commercial value in other countries: *Madia sativa*; *Argemone Mexicana*; various species of Gourds; Garden Cress (*Lepidium sativum*); tobacco, now extensively used in Southern Russia, Turkey, and Austria; hazel-nuts; walnuts; nuts of stone pine; pistachio nut; tea-seed; this in China is a common painter's oil; the grape, from the seeds or stones, as they are called, saved from the wine-presses, used in Italy; Brazil-nuts (*Bertholletia excelsa*); *Calophyllum inophyllum*, called Pinnacothyn Oil in India; *Melia azadirachta*, called in India by the names Neem and Margosa Oil; *Aleurites triloba*, called in India, Country Almond Oil, and much used for burning in lamps and torches; *Psoralea corylifolia*, called Baw-chee-seed Oil. The seed is sometimes imported to this country for pressing. Ben-seeds (*Moringa Pterygosperma*); Bonduc-nuts, the seeds of *Guitardina bondue* and *G. bonducella*.

The following oils, new to European commerce, were shewn in the International Exhibition of 1862. India.—Teorah Oil, from the seeds of *Brassica erucastrum*; Capita Oil, from the seeds of *Rottlera tinctoria*; Cardamom Oil, from the seeds of *Elettaria Cardamomum*; Hidgee Badham Oil, from the seeds of *Anacardium occidentale*, or Cashew-nut, now largely cultivated in India; Cassia-seed Oil; Chaulmoogra Oil, from the seeds of *Hydnocarpus odorata*; Cheerongee Oil, from the seeds of *Buchanania latifolia*; Chemmarum Oil, from the seeds of *Amoora rohituka*; Caucasian-bean Oil, from the seeds of *Adenanthera pavonina*; Hoorooya Oil, from the seeds of *Polanisia icosandra*; Custard Apple-seed Oil, from the seeds of *Anona squamosa*; Exile Oil, from the seeds of *Cerbera Thoretia*; Monela-grain Oil, from the seeds of *Dmitochia uniflora*; Kanari Oil, from the seeds of *Canarium commune*; Khalziri Oil, from the seeds of *Vernonia Anthelmintica*; Malkunngunner Oil, from the seeds of *Celadrus paniculatus*; Bakul Oil, from the seeds of *Mimus*

*sops elongi*; Rana Oil, from the seeds of *Mimosa Kaki*; Moodoora or Palas Oil, from the seeds of *Butea frondosa*; Nabor or Nageshur Oil, from the seeds of *Mesua ferox*; Honey-seed Oil, from seeds of *Caloxyllum calaba*; Poonga, Caron, or Kurru-mig Oil, from the seeds of *Pongamia glabra*; Vappanley Oil, from seeds of *Wrightia antidysepterica*; Babool Oil, from seeds of *Acacia Arabica*; Gamboge Oil, from seeds of the Gamboge-tree (*Garcinia pictoria*); Coodiri Oil, from the seeds of *Sterculia foetida*; Kiknel Oil, from the seed of *Salvadora persica*; Maratty, Surrat, or Neeradimootoo Oil, from the seeds of *Hydnocarpus inebrians*; and Fundi-kal Oil, from the nutmegs of *Myristica malabarica*.

From Brazil.—Oils from the seeds of *Festuella cardifolia*, *F. monosperma*, *Anisopelta*, *passiflora*, *Cucurbita citrullus*, *Mabea astuligera*, *Andira gomezi*, *Myristica biculibba*, *Carpotroche Brasiliensis*, *Dipterix odorata*, *Theobroma cacao*, *Acromia selero carpa*, *Nectandra cymbaram*, and from the fat of the Alligator and the Tapir, all for medicinal and perfumery purposes; and oils from the seeds of *Oenocarpus Bacaba*, *O. pataua*, *Caryocha Brasiliensis*, and *Euterpe edulis*, used for culinary and lighting purposes.

From British Guiana.—Oil drawn from the stem of *Oreodaphne opifera*; it resembles refined turpentine, and is suggested as a solvent for india-rubber. Wallaba Oil, from the wood of the Wallaba-tree (*Eperera falcalis*), medicinal.

The preparation of the essential oils is treated of under **PERFUMERY**.

The importance of the manufacture of oils is very great; in 1855 the value of the imports of the leading staples of this trade—viz., fish, palm, coco, and olive oils—was no less than £4,012,90. The aggregate of the other kinds was £2,471,590. In addition, oil seeds to the value of over £6,500,000 are imported for crushing in Great Britain; whilst the exports of oil amount in value to about £1,600,000. Thus, it will be seen that this trade represents a capital of above £14,000,000 sterling.

**OIL-WELLS AND OIL TRADE.** One of the most remarkable trades, suddenly sprung up into importance in modern times, is that in oil obtained from subterranean sources. See **NAPHTA**.

It is now known that oil-bearing mineral beds exist in various parts of America, as well as in the older continent; but the richest deposit hitherto discovered is in the United States, in Venango county, at a spot in Pennsylvania not far from the point of junction of that state and New York state with Lake Erie. Oil had for many years been seen floating on the surface of the water of a well near Titusville; it was taken up by absorption by means of flannel, and applied to medicinal purposes. Dr Brewer, in 1853, suggested that it might possibly be used for lubricating and for illumination; and in the following year was formed the Pennsylvania Rock-oil Company. This Company languished until 1858, when Colonel Drake, manager of the Company, and Mr Bowditch, resolved to sink a well purposely for oil. They were amply rewarded, for oil was pumped up at a rate varying from 400 to 1000 gallons daily. The news being spread abroad, adventurers quickly came to the district, which obtained the names of Oil Creek and Petrolia; and they experienced every degree of fortune from utter failure to splendid success, according to the spot at which they happened to sink their wells. So rapidly did the works proceed, that by 1860, it was known that oil existed beneath 100 square miles of country, at a depth varying from 70 to 500 feet. In 1861, the first large flowing well was struck—that is, a well up which the oil rose so profusely as to flow over the surface, yielding 1000 barrels (of 40 gallons each) per day; and another that yielded 2500 barrels. This new good fortune increased the excitement and the well-digging.

The uncertainty in this trade is something extraordinary. On one occasion, a well was bored with the usual centrefit to a considerable depth without any oil being found. On withdrawing the bit, and putting in the rimer or rimmer to widen the hole, a vein was struck at the side. The bit had just missed the vein, and the well would have been a failure had not the orifice been enlarged. This incident gives meaning to a phrase much used in America—that of “striking oil.” On another occasion, a well was bored which promised to be very productive, a large amount of oil flowing; the owner of the well not being ready to collect it, a plug was driven into the pipe; but upon the removal of this plug, when tanks had been built, the oil had altogether disappeared. The deepest well sunk in the district, more than 1000 feet, yielded no oil whatever; and altogether only 15 per cent. of the borings were successful. Very often, there was twice as much water as oil in the liquid

pumped up; and in some instances, the mixed oil and water was suddenly exceeded by water alone, thereby putting a stop to any further profitable operations.

When the oil began to be sent in large quantity to New York and other towns, the cheapness of price led to its application as lamp-oil, as fuel to be converted into gas, and in many other ways: this led to a constantly increasing demand; the demand brought the price up again to a reasonable figure at Petrolia; and the price induced the sinking of new wells. Considering that the produce of the district reached 20,000,000 gallons in 1861, it can be easily understood that commercial arrangements multiplied rapidly. Small villages rose into large towns, with banks, hotels, and wealthy people, all, however, begrimed with oil. Titusville, which had 243 inhabitants in 1855, rose to nearly 10,000 in 1866. Another place, called Oil City, has its two newspapers devoted mainly to oil-news, and transacted business to the amount of £1,000,000 per annum. By the end of 1866, it was estimated that there had been 90,000,000 dollars invested altogether in this and other parts of the United States; and that the average price at the well's mouth had settled down at about 10 dollars per barrel, or a shilling a gallon.

In July, 1850, oil was discovered in the state of Ohio, and within six months 50 wells were sunk there. At Sandy Valley in Kentucky, Perry County in Indiana, Gardiner in Illinois, Yates County in New York, and Chattanooga in Tennessee, the oil-wells have attracted some attention. The Canadian deposit is a remarkable one. Near a village, now a large town, called Oil Springs, in Inniskillen county, at the southern end of Lake Huron, a busy community has sprung up. In 1851, while sinking a well at this spot, in a forest where much semi-solid tar-like matter had often been found, the men were surprised by a sudden upburst of oil. This discovery set enterprising adventurers to work; and by the year 1863 there had been more than 200 wells sunk, within an area of only two miles by one. At first the oil flowed from most of these wells; but the level gradually sank, and the oil could only be obtained by pumping. At the end of the six years, one-half of the wells had ceased altogether to flow; and the wells since dug have been still more uncertain in their yield. The oil appears to lie in fissures in the limestone; but the well-borers have not yet succeeded in finding symptoms whether a particular spot will yield profitably or not at all. One particular well gave 35,000 barrels in 10 months, and by that time had exhausted itself. The recognised rental became, 700 dollars down per acre, and one-third of the oil. The oil requires refining, to remove the tar, the volatile constituents, and the offensive odor. The Canada oil appears to be more disagreeable than that of the United States, and to be less in favor in consequence. The average produce per well in Pennsylvania and Canada cannot be stated, on account of the extreme fluctuations. In 1861, there was an estimate that 100 wells in Petrolia yielded 15 barrels per day each. The total American—that is, Canada and the U. States—product in 1868 was 3,695,000; in 1869, 4,117,000; and in 1870, 6,585,000 bbls.; and in 12 years, from 1859 to 1870, 84,388,100 bbls. of crude petroleum. The price at New York has ranged between the very wide limits of 9 to 65 cents per gallon for crude oil, and 19 to 120 cents for refined. The oil was first imported into Great Britain in 1861, since which year the import has steadily and greatly increased, amounting in 1875 to 77,661 tunns, value £781,282.

In 1865, a shale was discovered in New South Wales, similar to the Boghead coal or Torbanchill mineral of Scotland, but richer in oil, and more free from sulphur. When distilled at Sydney, from 100 to 160 gallons of oil were obtained from one ton of shale. The seam in Hartley district is 5½ feet thick. Efficient distilling apparatus has been sent out from England; and the shale is either distilled for oil or for gas, according to circumstances. See NAPHTHA and SHALE.

OIRIR-GAEL, a name which, in the early times of Scottish history, was applied to the Gaels of the coasts, in contradistinction from the Gall-Gael or Islesmen. There was long a struggle for superiority between these two races, represented respectively by Somerled of the Isles and the later kings of Man, in which the latter were eventually successful, uniting under one head the dominion of Argyle and the Isles.

OISE, a river of France, one of the chief affluents of the Seine, rises in the vicinity of Rocroy, in the north of the department of Ardennes, and flows south-west, joining the Seine at Conflans Sainte-Honorine, after a course of 150 miles, for the

last 75 of which it is navigable. The fall of the river is very gradual, and its course is extremely sinuous. It is connected by canals with the Somme, the Saône, and the Scheldt, and forms one of the chief commercial routes between Belgium and Paris. It becomes navigable at Chauny.

OISE, a department in the north of France, is bounded on the e. by the department of Aisne, and on the w. chiefly by that of Seine-Inférieure, which intervenes between it and the English Channel. At a. 1,446,869 English acres, of which 970,000 acres are in arable land; pop. (1872) 896,804. The principal rivers are the Oise—from which the department derives its name—and its tributaries the Aisne and Thérain. The department is almost wholly included in the basin of the Oise; and as the course of that river indicates, the surface—consisting for the most part of extensive plains—has a general slope toward the south-west. The soil is in general fertile, and agriculture is well advanced. The products are the usual grain-crops, with an immense quantity of vegetables, which are sent to the markets of the metropolis. The department is divided into the four arrondissements of Beauvais, Clermont, Compiègne, Senlis; capital, Beauvais.

OITI (*Mogulea tomentosa*), a tree of the natural order Chrysobalanaceæ—by many botanists regarded as a suborder of Rosaceæ (q. v.)—a native of the north of Brazil, and valuable on account of its timber, which is very good for ship-building.

O'KA, an important commercial river of Central Russia, the principal affluent of the Volga from the south, rises in the government of Orel, and flows in a generally north-east direction, forming a common boundary between the governments of Tula, Kaluga, and Moscow; and afterwards flowing through the governments of Riazan', Vladimir, and Nijni-Novgorod. It joins the Volga at the city of Nijni-Novgorod, after a course of 857 miles. Its basin, estimated at 127,000 square miles in extent, comprises the richest and most fertile region of Russia. The principal towns on its banks are Orel, Beloff or Bielev, Kaluga, Riazan', and Murom; the most important affluents are the rivers Moscow, Kliazma, and Tzna. During spring, the Oka is navigable from Orel to the Volga; but in summer the navigation is obstructed by sandbanks. It communicates with the ports on the Baltic, Caspian, and White Seas; and the cargoes annually shipped down the river amount in value to several million pounds sterling.

O-KER-CHO-BEE, a lake bordering on the Everglades of Southern Florida (see FLORIDA), about 120 miles in circuit, receiving several small rivers, and having for its outlet the river Caloo-sa-hatchee, which flows westerly into the Gulf of Mexico.

OKEN (originally Ockenfusse), Lorenz, a celebrated German naturalist, was born at Böhlbach, in Württemberg, August 1, 1779. He studied at Würzburg, and Göttingen; became extra-ordinary professor of medicine at Jena in 1807, where his lectures on natural philosophy, natural history, zoology, comparative anatomy, vegetable and animal physiology, attracted much notice. In 1812, he was appointed ordinary professor of natural science; and in 1816, commenced the publication of a journal partly scientific and partly political, called "Iris," which continued to appear till 1848. The opinions promulgated in the "Iris" led to government interference, and O. resigned his chair, and became a private tutor, devoting his leisure to the composition of works on natural history. In 1828, he obtained a professorship in the newly-established university of Munich; but in 1832, exchanged it for another at Zürich, where he died, 11th August 1861. O. aimed at constructing all knowledge *a priori*, and thus setting forth the system of nature in its universal relations. The two principal works in which this idea is developed are his "Lehrbuch der Naturphilosophie" (Jena, 1808–1811), and his "Lehrbuch der Naturgeschichte" (3 vols. Leip. 1818–1827). The former has been translated into English, and published by the Ray Society under the title of "Elements of Physio-philosophy." As O.'s philosophic system of nature was very peculiar, and quite unlike anything that had preceded it, O. invented a nomenclature of his own, which, however, in many cases is forced and pretentious, composed for the most part of new-coined words, and difficult to remember. It therefore found little favor, and O. was long regarded—particularly by French and English savans—as a

mere dreamer and transcendental theorist; nor can it be denied that he is largely such, infected with the worst vices of the school of Schelling, to which he belonged; but some of his "intuitions"—if we may so term his scientific suggestions—were remarkably felicitous, and in the hands of rigorous demonstrators, have led to great results. In his work "Di Zengung" (On Generation, Bamb. 1805), he first suggested that all animals are built of vesicles or cells; in his "Beitrage zur vergleichenden Zoologie, Anatomie und Physiologie" (1806) he pointed out the origin of the intestines in the umbilical vesicle; and in the same year lighted accidentally upon the idea, since so prolific of results, that the bones of the skull are modified vertebrae. On account of this discovery, he has been termed "the father of morphological science." That O., and not Götthe. was the original discoverer of the vertebral relations of the skull, has been conclusively shewn by Owen, in a valuable notice of O. in the "Encyclopaedia Britannica."

OKHO'TSK, Sea of, an extensive inlet of the North Pacific Ocean, on the east coast of Russian Siberia. It is bounded on the n. by the wastes of Siberia, on the e. by the peninsula of Kamtchatska, and is partially enclosed by the Kurile Islands on the s., and by the island of Saghaliouen on the w. It is 1000 miles in length, and 500 miles in breadth. The river Ud, which enters it on the north, is 400 miles in length. Owing to climate and position, the Sea of O. is unlikely ever to become the scene of much commerce. On its northern shore, at the mouth of the Okhota—from which it derives its name—is the small seaport of Okhotsk, lat.  $57^{\circ} 21' n.$ , long.  $143^{\circ} 17' e.$  This town has only 336 inhabitants, and has been entirely superseded by the ports of Ayan and Nikolayevsk.

OLAF, the Saint, one of the most revered of the early Norwegian kings, was born in 995; and after having distinguished himself by his gallant exploits, and made his name a terror in several warlike expeditions on the coasts of Normandy and England, succeeded, d. in 1015, in wresting the throne of Norway from Eric and Svend Jarl. The cruel severity with which he endeavored to exterminate paganism by fire and sword, alienated the affection of his subjects, many of whom sought security from his persecution in the territories of Knut or Canute the Great, king of Denmark; and it was only through the powerful aid of his brother-in-law, the Swedish Anund Jacob, that his authority could be upheld. O.'s hot-headed zeal, however, after a time exhausted the patience of the people, who hastened to tender their allegiance to Knut, on his landing in Norway in 1028, when O. fled to the court of his brother-in-law, Jaroslav of Russia, who gave him a band of 4000 men, at the head of whom he returned, in 1030, and gave Knut battle at Stiklestad, where O. was defeated by the aid of his own subjects, and slain. The body of the king which had been left on the field of battle, and buried on the spot by a peasant, having begun to work miracles, his remains were carefully removed to the cathedral of Trondhjem, where the fame of their miraculous power spread far and wide, attracting pilgrims from all parts of the Scandinavian peninsula. O. was solemnly proclaimed patron saint of Norway, in the succeeding century; and from that period to the Reformation, he continued to gather round him a rich heritage of mythical legends and popular sagas, the memory of which still lingers in the folk-lore of Norway. In 1847, the order of Olaf was created, in honor of the Saint, by King Oscar I. of Sweden and Norway.

OLBERS, Heinrich Wilhelm Matthias, a celebrated German physician and astronomer, was born at Arbergen, a small village of Bremen, October 11, 1758. He studied medicine at Göttingen from 1777 till 1780, and subsequently commenced to practise at Bremen, where, both as a physician and as a man, he was highly esteemed by his fellow-citizens. In 1811, he was a successful competitor for the prize proposed by Napoleon for the best "Memoir on the Croup." O. wrote little on medical subjects, for, from 1779, all the leisure time which he could abstract from professional occupations was devoted to the enthusiastic study of astronomy. The first thing which brought him into notice, was his calculation of the orbit of the comet of 1779, which was performed by him while watching by the bedside of a sick patient, and was found to be very accurate. Comets were the chief objects of his investigation, and he seems to have been seized with an irresistible predilection for these vagabonds of the solar system, which his two important discoveries of the planets Pallas (1802) and Vesta (1807) could not diminish. In 1781, he had the honor of first re-discovering

the planet Uranus, which had previously been supposed, even by Herschel himself, to be a comet, and which had been sought for in vain. He also discovered five comets, in 1798, 1802, 1804, 1815, and 1821, all of which, with the exception of that of 1815 (hence called *Obers' comet*), had been some days previously observed at Paris. His observations, calculations, and notices of various comets, which are of inestimable value to astronomers, were published in the "Annuaire de Bode" (1788—1829), in the "Annuaire de Encke" (1838), and in three collections by the Baron de Zach. Most of these calculations were made after a new method, discovered by himself, for determining the orbit of a comet from three observations; a method which, for facility and accuracy, he considered as greatly preferable to those then in use. A detail of it appeared in a journal published at Weimar (1797), and a new edition by Encke in 1847. O. was one of that small band of astronomers who included also Schröter, Gauss, Piazzi, Bode, Harding, &c., who in the first ten years of the 19th c. devoted their energies to the observation of those planets which were coming to light between Mars and Jupiter. As above stated, two of them, the second and fourth in order of discovery, were detected by O. himself; and the general equality of the elements of the four planetoids, led him to propound the well-known theory that these, and the other planetoids (q. v.) since discovered, are but fragments of some large planet which formerly revolved round the sun at a distance equal to the mean of the distances of the planetoids from the same luminary. It was this theory which led him, after the discovery of Pallas, to seek for more fragments of the supposed planet, a search resulting in the discovery of Vesta. O. also made some important researches on the probable lunar origin of meteoric stones, and invented a method for calculating the velocity of falling stars. O. died at Bremen, 2d March 1840; and in 1850, his fellow-citizens erected a marble statue in honor of him. O., as a writer, possessed great powers of thought, combined with equal clearness and elegance of expression. The dissertations with which he enriched the various branches of astronomy are scattered through various collections, journals, and other periodicals.

OLD POINT COMFORT, a village and watering-place in Virginia, U. S., at the entrance of Hampton Roads and James River, 12 miles from Norfolk, and the site of Fortress Monroe, the largest military work in the United States.

OLD RED SANDSTONE, the name given to a large series of Palaeozoic rocks, of which red sandstones are the most conspicuous portions, but which contains also white, yellow, or green sandstones, as well as beds of clay and limestone. The group lies below the Carboniferous strata, and was called "Old" to distinguish it from a newer series of similar beds which occur above the Coal Measures. The discovery that the highly fossiliferous calcareous rocks of Devonshire and the continent occupied the same geological horizon, shewed that the name was very far from being descriptive of all the deposits of the period, and suggested to Murchison and Sedgwick the desirableness of giving them a new designation. They consequently proposed Devonian, which has been extensively adopted; but it is liable to the same objection as that urged against the name it was intended to supplant, inasmuch as it incorrectly limits geographically what the other limits lithologically. Many names used by geologists are similarly at fault; there is therefore no good reason why the old name should be given up, especially as it has been rendered classical by the labors and writings of Hugh Miller, the original monographer of these rocks.

The position of the O. R. S. series is easily determined, though the sequence of the various beds which form it is somewhat obscure. All the rocks are situated between the beds of the Silurian and Carboniferous periods. In Wales, Scotland, and Ireland it has been observed that there is an old series of red sandstones which are more or less conformable with the underlying Silurian and a newer series unconformable with the older strata, but conformable with the overlying Carboniferous rocks. The great interval represented by this break has been believed to be that during which the Calcareous Devonian rocks were deposited. The recent researches, however, of Mr Salter shew that the one set of beds do not alternate with the other, but that they are really contemporaneous—the coarse shallow water deposits of conglomerate and sandstone having been formed on the shores of that sea in whose depths the deposits of thicker mass, finer grain, and lighter color, full of marine shells and corals, were at the same time being aggregated.

The strata of the period have been arranged in four groups. 1. Upper Old Red Sandstone, including the Marwood and Petherwin groups. 2. Middle Old Red Sandstone, including the Dartmouth and Plymouth groups. 3. Lower Old Red Sandstone, including the North Foreland and Torbay groups. 4. Tilestones or Ledbury Shales.

1. The Upper Old Red Sandstones are conformable with the inferior strata of the Coal Measures, and differ so little petrologically, or even paleontologically from them, that they have been considered as the basement series of that period. They consist of yellowish and light-colored sandstones, which are at Durn Den, in Fifeshire, remarkably rich in some of their layers in the remains of *Holopitychius*, *Pterichys*, *Dendrodia*, &c. In the south of Ireland, and at Dunse, similar beds contain a freshwater shell very like the modern *Anodon*, and fragments of a fern called *Cyclopterus Hibernicus*. Mr. Sauer has shewn, from the intercalation of the marine beds with the red sandstone, and from the identity of the fossils, that the Devonian representatives of these beds are the Marwood and Petherwin groups. These consist of dark-colored calcareous and argillaceous beds, and gray and reddish sandstones. The fossils found in them are shells and land-plants, many of them belonging to the same genera, but different species to those which are found in the Carboniferous system. The little crustacean Cypridina and Clymenia are so characteristic of this division, that in Germany the strata are known as the Cypridinien Schieffer and Clymenien Kalk.

2. The Middle Old Red Sandstone is represented in the north of Scotland by the Caithness flags, a series of dark-gray bituminous schists, slightly micaceous or calcareous, remarkably tough and durable. Throughout their whole thickness they are charged with fossil fish and other vegetable remains. The characteristic fishes belong to the genera *Corcostoma*, *Asterolepis*, and *Dipterus*. The corresponding beds in Devonshire are the Dartmouth and Plymouth groups, which consist of extensive deposits of limestones and schists, all of them abounding in the remains of corals, trilobites, and shells. In the German equivalent, the Eifel Limestone, but especially in the Russian, the characteristic invertebrate fossils of the Devonshire calcareous beds have been found associated with the remains of *Corcostoma*, shewing beyond doubt the identity of these various beds. The *Caleola* Schieffer of German geologists belongs to the Middle Old Red; it receives its name from the abundance in it of a singular brachiopod (*Caleola sandulina*).

3. The Lower Old Red Sandstone consists of strata of red shale and sandstone, with beds of impure arenaceous limestone (cornstone), and frequently at the base great deposits of red conglomerate. The fossils peculiar to this division are the remarkable fish *Cephalaspis*, and the huge crustaceans of the genus *Pterygotus*, besides a few shells. To the south of the Grampians, the strata consist of a gray paving-stone and coarse roofing-slate. The Devonian representatives of this section are the sandstones and slates of the North Foreland, Ilton, and Torbay, and the series of slate beds and quartz ore sandstones developed on the banks of the Rhine near Coblenz. The *Cephalaspis*, so characteristic of the cornstones, has been found in the Rhenish beds.

4. The Tilestones or Ledbury Shales consist of finely laminated reddish and green micaceous sandstones, which have been noticed underlying the Old Red only on its western borders in Herefordshire. The fossils of those beds shew a Silurian fauna with a number of Old Red forms; the Tilestones are consequently referred sometimes to the one period, and sometimes to the other.

The O. R. S. occupies a considerable portion of the surface of Great Britain. In the north, it forms the boundary lands of the Moray Firth; beginning even as far north as the Shetlands and Orkneys, it covers the whole of Caithness, and in more or less broken tracts the east of Sutherland, Ross, and Cromarty, and the north of Inverness, Nairn, and Elgin. In the great central valley of Scotland it is the setting in which the coal measures are placed, stretching across the country on the one margin from Forfar to Dumbarton, and occurring on the other in separated tracts in Lanark and Berwick. In the southern division of the island it is limited to a large triangular district in the south-west. The apex of the triangle is at Wenlock, in Shropshire; a line thence to Start Point, in Devon, would limit it on the east, and a second to Milford Haven would do so on the west. The Bristol Channel bisects it. A depression in the Welsh portion is occupied with South Wales coal-

field; and in a similar depression in Devon, the culm-beds are situated. In Ireland, strata of this age are found in the counties of Kilkenny, Waterford, Cork, and Kerry. The Devonian rocks have been carefully studied in Belgium and the Rhine district, and also in Russia, where they cover a larger district in the north of the empire. The American representatives of this period are extensively developed in New York, Pennsylvania, and Canada. The invertibrata animals found in the Old Red do not differ much from those of the Upper Silurian. Corals are remarkably abundant and beautiful in the Devonian limestones. Goniatites and Clymenia make their first appearance in this period, with several forms of lower mollusca. Trilobites are still numerous. But the most striking feature in this period is the abundance of fish of curious forms, strongly protected outside by hard bony cases, or by a dense armor of ganoid scales.

O'LDURY, an important manufacturing town of England, in the county of Worcester, 29 miles north-north-east of the city of that name, on the river Tame. It contains numerous churches, meeting-houses, and schools. Owing to the extension of the iron-trade, O. has greatly increased in size and prosperity within recent years. There are coal and iron mines in the neighborhood; and in the town, iron, steel, locomotive engines, mills, edge-tools, draining-pipes, &c., are made and constructed. The Stour Valley Railway passes close by the town, and there is a station here. Pop. (1851) 16,410.

OLDCASTLE. Sir John, once popularly known as the "good Lord Cobham," whose claim to distinction is, that he was the first author and the first martyr among the English nobility, was born in the reign of Edward III.; the exact year is not known. He acquired the title of Lord Cobham by marriage, and signified himself by the ardor of his attachment to the doctrines of Wickliffe. At that time, there was a party among the English nobles and gentry sincerely, and even strongly desirous of ecclesiastical reform—the leader of which was "old John of Gaunt—time-honored Lancaster." O. was active in the same cause, and took part in the presentation of a remonstrance to the English Commons on the subject of the corruptions of the church. At his own expense, he got the works of Wickliffe transcribed, and widely disseminated among the people, and paid a large body of preachers to propagate the views of the reformer throughout the country. During the reign of Henry IV., he commanded an English army in France, and forced the Duke of Orleans to raise the siege of Paris; but in the reign of Henry V. he was accused of heresy, and having, in a disputation with his sovereign, declared that "as sure as God's word is true, the pope is the great Antichrist foretold in Holy Writ," he was thrown into the Tower, whence, after some time, he escaped, and concealed himself in Wales. A bill of attainder was passed against him, and 1000 marks set upon his head. After four years' hiding, he was captured, brought to London, and—being reckoned a traitor as well as a heretic—he was hung up in chains alive upon a gallows, and fire being put under him, was burned to death, December 1417. O. wrote "Twelve Conclusions addressed to the Parliament of England," several monkish rhymes against "fleshy-livers" among the clergy, religious discourses, &c.—See "Life of Oldcaste," by Gilpin.

O'LDENBURG, a grand-duchy of Northern Germany, consisting of three distinct and widely separated territories, viz., Oldenburg Proper, the principality of Lübeck, and the principality of Birkenfeld. The collective area of these districts is now 2461 square miles. Pop. in 1855, 319,314. Oldenburg Proper, which comprises  $\frac{2}{3}$ s of this area, and 4-5ths of the entire population, is bounded on the n. by the German Ocean, on the e., s., and w. by the kingdom of Hanover. The principal rivers of O. are the Weser, the Jahde, and the Haase, Veine, and other tributaries of the Ems. The grand-duchy of Oldenburg Proper is divided into eight circles. The country is flat, belonging to the great sandy plain of Northern Germany, and consists for the most part of moors, heaths, marsh or fens, and uncultivated sandy tracts; but here and there, on the banks of the rivers, the uniform level is broken by gentle acclivities, covered with wood, or by picturesque lakes surrounded by fruitful pasture-lands. Agriculture and the rearing of cattle constitute the chief sources of wealth. The horses and cattle raised in the marsh-lands are excellent of their kind, and in great request; the horse-markets at Oldenburg, and the cattle-sales at Ovlgönne, being frequented by purchasers from every part of Germany. The scarcity of wood

for fuel, and the absence of coal, are compensated for by the existence of turf-beds of enormous extent. With the exception of some linen and stocking looms, and a few tobacco-works, there are no manufactures. There are, however, numerous distilleries, breweries, and tan-yards in all parts of the duchy.

The trade is principally a coasting-trade, carried on in small vessels, from 20 to 40 tons, which can thread their way along the shallow channels connecting the larger rivers.

The exports are horses, cattle, linens, thread, hides, and rags, which find their way chiefly to Holland and the Hanseatic cities; while the imports include the ordinary colonial goods, and manufactures of numerous kinds.

The receipts for the collective grand-duchy were, in the budget for 1875, 7,104,150 marks, and the expenditure, 7,546,380. The public debt, at the close of 1874, was 34,575,942 marks.

The principality of Lübeck, consisting of the secularised territories of the former bishopric of the same name, is surrounded by the duchy of Holstein, and is situated on the banks of the rivers Schwartau and Travé. It contributes 199 square miles to the general area of the grand-duchy, and 34,085 inhabitants to the collective population. It is divided into four administrative districts. It has several large lakes, as those of Piö—noted for its pictur-sqn: beauty—Keller, Uklei, and Gross-Eutin; while in regard to climate, soil, and natural products, it participates in the general physical characteristics of Holstein. The chief town is Eutin (pop., in 1871, 3700), pleasantly situated on the lake of the same name, with a fine castle surrounded by a magnificent park.

The principality of Birkenfeld, lying south-west of the Rhine, among the Hunsrück Mountains, and between Rhenish Prussia and Lichtenberg, is an outlier territory, situated in lat.  $49^{\circ} 30'$ — $49^{\circ} 52'$  n.; and in long.  $7^{\circ} 30'$ — $7^{\circ} 50'$  e. Its area is 192 square miles, and its pop. 37,098. The soil of Birkenfeld is not generally productive; but in the lower and more sheltered valleys, it yields wheat, flax, and hemp. Wood is abundant. The mineral products, which are of considerable importance, comprise iron, copper, lead, coal, and building-stone; while in addition to the rearing of cattle, sheep, and swine, the polishing of stones, more especially agates, constitutes the principal source of industry. The principality is divided into three governmental districts.

O. is a constitutional ducal monarchy, hereditary in the male line of the reigning family. The constitution, which is based upon that of 1849, revised in 1862, is common to the three provinces, which are represented in one joint chamber, composed of 33 members chosen by free voters. Each principality has, however, its special provincial council, the members of which are likewise elected by votes; while each governmental district within the provinces has its local board of councillors, and its several courts of law, police, finance, &c., although the highest judicial court of appeal, and the ecclesiastical and ministerial offices, are located at Oldenburg.

Perfect liberty of conscience was guaranteed by the constitution of 1849. The Lutheran is the predominant church, upwards of 200,000 of the population belonging to that denomination; while about 70,000 persons profess the Roman Catholic religion.

There are two gymnasia, one higher provincial college, several secondary, and 500 elementary schools; but in consequence of the scarcity of villages in the duchy, and the isolated position of many of the houses of the peasantry, schools are not common in the country districts, and the standard of education of the lower classes is, from these causes, scarcely equal to that existing in other parts of Northern Germany. The military forces of O.—above 2000 men on the peace footing—form a portion of the Prussian army. The merchant navy in 1875 consisted of 861 vessels of 53,167 tons. O. is represented in the Bundesrath or Federal Council of the German Empire by 1 member, and in the Reichstag or Diet by 8 members.

*History.*—The territory now included in the grand-duchy of O., was in ancient times occupied by the Teutonic race of the Chanci, who were subsequently merged with the more generally known Frisii, or Frisians; and the land, under the names of Ammergan and Lerigan, was for a long period included among the dominions of the Dukes of Saxony. In 1180, the Counts of O. and Delmenhorst succeeded in

establishing independent states from the territories of Henry the Lion, which fell into a condition of disorganisation after his downfall.

This family has continued to rule O. to the present day, giving, moreover, new dynasties to the kingdom of Denmark, the empire of Russia, and the kingdom of Sweden. See OLDENBURG, House of. On the death, in 1667, of Count Anthony Günther, the wisest and best of the O. rulers, his dominions, in default of male heir, fell to the Danish reigning family, and continued for a century to be ruled by vice-roys nominated by the king of Denmark. This union was, however, severed in 1773, when, by a family compact, Christian VII., made over his O. territories to the Grand Duke Paul of Russia, who represented the Holstein-Gottorp branch of the family. Paul having renounced the joint countships of Dömitzhorst and O. in favor of his cousin, Frederick Augustus, of the younger or Kiel line, of the House of O., who was Prince-bishop of Lübeck, the emperor raised the united O. territories to the rank of a duchy. The present reigning family is descended from Duke Peter Friedrich Ludwig, cousin to the Prince-bishop, Frederick Augustus. For a time, the Duke was member of Napoleon's Rhenish Confederation; but French troops having, in spite of this bond of alliance, taken forcible possession of the duchy in 1811, and incorporated it with the French empire, the ejected prince joined the ranks of the allies. In recognition of this adhesion, the Congress of Vienna transferred certain portions of territory, with 5000 Hanoverians and 20,000 inhabitants of the quondam French district of the Saar, to the O. allegiance. From these new acquisitions were organised the district Amme, and the principality of Birkenfeld; while O. was raised to the dignity of a grand-duchy. The revolutionary movement of 1848 was quite as productive of violent and compulsory political changes in this as in other German states; and in 1849, after having existed for centuries without even a show of constitutional or legislative freedom, it entered suddenly into possession of the most extreme of liberal constitutions. The reaction in favor of absolutism, which the licence and want of purpose of the popular party naturally induced all over Germany, led in 1852 to a revision and modification of the constitution, which, however, in its present form contains the essential principles of popular liberty and security, though it must be confessed this is more verbal than real. In the German-Italian war, O. sided with Prussia, and afterwards joined the North German Confederation. The duchy concluded, in 1866, a treaty with Prussia, by which the Grand-Duke renounced his claims to the Holstein succession, for the cession to him of a small portion of Holstein territory, and an indemnity of 1,000,000 thalers. O. is now included in the German Empire.

OLDENBURG, capital of the grand-duchy of the same name, is pleasantly situated on the banks of the navigable river Hunt, 25 miles west-north-west of Bremen. Pop. (1871) 13,574. O. is the seat of the administrative departments, and the focus of the literary, scientific, and commercial activity of the duchy. It has a normal school, a military academy, a public library of 85,000 vols., a picture-gallery, museum, &c. The grand-ducal palace is worthy of note for its fine gardens, its valuable pictures, and other art collections, and its library. The principal church is St Lambert's, containing the burying-vaults of the reigning family. O. is the seat of an active river-trade, and is noted for its excellent stads, and the great cattle and horse fairs which are annually held here in the months of June and August.

OLDENBURG, The House of, which lays just claim to being one of the oldest reigning families of Europe, has been rendered still more illustrious by various matrimonial alliances, which, in the course of ages, have successively been the means of creating new royal dynasties. Thus, for instance, in 1448, a scion of this House being elected king of Denmark, under the title of Christian I., became the progenitor of the Danish House of Oldenburg, the imperial House of Russia, the late royal family of Sweden, and the collateral and junior Danish lines of Augustenburg, Kiel, and Sonderburg-Glücksburg. Christian owed his election to the recommendation of his maternal uncle, Duke Adolph of Slesvig, who, when the throne was offered to him on the sudden death of King Christopher, refused, on the ground of age, and proposed Christian of Oldenburg, who, as the direct descendant of Eric Glipping's daughter, Princess Richessa, was allied to the old extinct House of Denmark. The death, in 1459, of Adolph, Duke of Slesvig and Count of Holstein, without male heirs, opened the question of succession to

those states, which has since become one of such vexations import. The ancient law of Denmark recognised hereditary fiefs only in exceptional cases; crown fiefs being generally held for life or merely for a time *ad gratiam*. Such being the case, Slesvig might, on the death of Adolph, have been taken by the crown as a lapsed tenure; but Holstein, being held under the empire, would have been separated from it. Adolph and his subjects were alike anxious that Slesvig and Holstein shou'd continue united; but although the Slesvig estates, at the wish of the Duke Adolph, had recognised Christian as successor to the duchy before his accession to the throne of Denmark, the Holstein Chambers were divided on the question of succession, the majority shewing a preference for the claims of the counts of Schauenburg, who were descended from male agnates of the Holstein House. Christian, in his eagerness to secure both states, was willing to sacrifice his rights in Slesvig to his schemes in regard to Holstein; and having bought over the Holstein nobles by bribes and fair promises, he was elected Duke of Slesvig and Count of Holstein at Ribe in 1460, where he signed a deed, alike derogatory to the interests and unworthy the dignity of his crown. In this compact, by which he bartered away the just prerogatives and independence of himself and his successors, for the sake of nominal present gain, he pledged his word for himself and his heirs, that the two provinces should always remain undivided, "*ewig bliben toosamende ungedeelt*" and not be dismembered by division or heritage. This document, which remained for ages unknown or forgotten, was discovered by the historian Dahlmann amid the neglected papers of the Holstein state archives at Preetz, and proclaimed in 1848 by that ardent admirer of Germany as the unchangeable fundamental law of the Slesvig-Holstein provinces. The confusion, dissension, and ill-will to which this fatal deed has given rise, are the fruits which Christian's unscrupulous desire to secure power at any cost has produced for his descendants, whose complicated claims on the duchies resulted, in 1864, in a war which cost Denmark a large portion of her territorial possession. From Christian I. descend two distinct branches of the Oldenburg line: 1. The royal dynasty, extinct in the male line in Frederick VII., late king of Denmark, and the collateral branches of Sonderburg-Augustenburg, and Sonderburg-Glücksburg; 2. The ducal Holstein-Gottorp line, descended from Duke Adolph, who died in 1586, and was the second son of King Frederick I. This prince had received, during his father's lifetime, a portion of the Slesvig and Holstein lands, which he was permitted, on the accession of his elder brother, Christian III., to retain for himself and his heirs. This line became illustrious by the marriage of Prince Karl Friedrich, the son of Hedwig-Sofia, eldest sister of Charles XII. of Sweden (a direct descendant of Duke Adolph) with the Grand-duchess Anna, daughter of Peter the Great, and thus gave to Russia the dynasty which still occupies the imperial throne; while Adolph-Friedrich, a cousin of Prince Karl Friedrich, by his election to the throne of Sweden in 1751, added another crown to those already held by the House of Oldenburg. The conduct of his descendants rendered the new dignity short-lived, for with the abdication of Gustavus IV., in 1809, the Holstein-Gottorp dynasty became extinct in Sweden.

The complicated relations of the House of O. in regard to the Danish succession, after giving rise to much angry discussion among the princes interested in the question, and the Danish people themselves, led the great powers to enter into a treaty, known as the London Treaty of 1852, for settling the question of succession, on the ground that the integrity of the Danish monarchy was intimately connected with the maintenance of the balance of power and the cause of peace in Europe. England, France, Austria, Prussia, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, were parties to this treaty, in the first article of which it was provided, that on the extinction of the male line of the Royal House, Prince Christian of Slesvig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, and his male heirs, according to the order of primogeniture, should succeed to all the dominions, then united under the sway of the king of Denmark. The rights of succession, which rested with the Augustenburg family, were forfeited by a compact which the Duke of Augustenburg entered into for the surrender of his claims in consideration of a sum of money paid to him by Denmark. The Duke's morganatic marriage, and his subsequent rebellion, in 1848, against the Danish king, were the causes which led to the arrangement of this family compact on the existing terms. This treaty, known as the London Protocol of May 1852, was followed in October of

the same year by the publication of a supplementary clause, which stipulated, that on the extinction of the heirs-male of Prince Christian of Slesvig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksborg, the Holstein-Gottorp, or imperial Russian line should succeed to the Danish dominions. This article, even more than the original clauses of the treaty, met with the strongest opposition among the Danes, and after being twice rejected in the Landsting, the London Treaty was only ratified after a new election of members, and on the assurance of the King that in excluding all female cognate lines from the succession, there was no definite intention of advancing the claims of Russia. King Frederick's death, in 1868, brought on the crisis of the much-vexed question of the Danish succession; and although the London Treaty was so far followed that Prince Christian succeeded as king of Denmark, the evils that were anticipated from the measure were in 1864 made painfully manifest; for the Duke of Augustenburg, notwithstanding the renunciation by his family of all claims to the succession, appealed to the federal diet for the recognition of his rights on Holstein; and the German powers, glad of a pretext to extend their influence beyond the Elbe, occupied the Slesvig-Holstein (q. v.) territory, and succeeded, by force of superior numbers, in advancing the boundary of Germany to the borders of Jutland. This led, however, to grave results affecting the whole of Europe. Prussia and Austria took possession of the conquests in their own names. The former power offered the latter pecuniary compensation for their assistance in the war, while indicating a determination to annex the duchies to its own dominions. Austria refused, and this led to the disastrous battle of Könniggrätz.

OLDHAM, a parliamentary borough and flourishing manufacturing town of England, in the county of Lancashire, stands on the Medlock, six miles north-east of Manchester. It owes its rapid increase in population and in wealth to the extensive coal mines in the vicinity, and to its cotton manufactures, which have increased remarkably within late years. It is not only the great centre of the hat manufacture, but is also celebrated for its manufactures of fustians, velveteens, cords, cotton, woollen, and silk goods. Numerous silk mills, brass and iron foundries, machine shops, tanneries, rope works, &c., are in operation. The parish church, the town-hall, the Blue-coat and the Grammar-schools, are the chief edifices. Pop. in 1871 of municipal borough, 82,629; of parliamentary borough (which returns two members to parliament), 118,100.

OLDHAMIA, a genus of fossil zoophytes, dedicated by Forbes to Professor Oldham, who was their discoverer. Only two species are known, but they are of peculiar interest, because, with their associated worm-tracks and burrows, they are the first distinct evidence of life on the globe. They exist as mere tracings on the surface of the laminae of metamorphosed shales, all remains of the substance of the organism having entirely disappeared. The form of the hard polypidom is preserved, and shews a jointed main stem, giving off at each joint, in one species, a circle of simple rays, and in the other a fan-shaped group. Forbes pointed out their affinities in some respects to the Hydrozoa, and in others to the Polyzoa. Kiimbau, who described the genus at some length, considers them to have been Hydrozoa allied to Scutularia; while Huxley places them among the Polyzoa.

OLDYS, William, a most erudite and industrious bibliographer, was a natural son of Dr William Oldys, Chancellor of Lincoln, and advocate of the Admiralty Court, and was born in 1687. Regarding his early life, little is known. His father dying in 1708, left him a small property, which O. squandered as soon as he got it into his own hands. The most of his life was spent as a bookseller's back. He drank hard; and was so scandalously fond of low company, that he preferred to live within the "rules" of the Fleet Prison to any more respectable place. As may easily be supposed from his habits, the dissolute old bookworm was often in extremely necessitous circumstances, and when he died (April 15, 1761), he left hardly enough to decently bury him. It is but fair to add that O. had some sterling merits. Captain Grose, who knew him, praises his good-nature, honor, and integrity as a historian, and says that "nothing would ever have biased him to insert any fact in his writings which he did not believe, or to suppress any he did." For about ten years, O. acted as librarian to the Earl of Oxford, whose valuable collection of books and MSS. he arranged and catalogued. His chief works are "The British Librarian, exhibiting a Compendious Review of all Unpublished and Valuable Books in all

Sciences" (London, 1787, anonymously); a "Life of Sir Walter Raleigh," prefixed to Raleigh's "History of the World" (1788); a translation of Camden's "Britannia" (2 vols.); "The Harleian Miscellany, or a Collection of Scarce, Curious, and Entertaining Tracts" (9 vols. Lond. 1788). Besides these, O. wrote a great variety of miscellaneous literary and bibliographical "articles" for his friends the booksellers, which it would be tedious to mention.

**OLEACEÆ**, a natural order of exogenous plants, consisting of trees and shrubs, with opposite leaves, and flowers in racemes or panicles. The calyx is in one piece, divided, persistent; the corolla is hypogynous, generally 4-cleft, sometimes of four petals, sometimes wanting; there are generally two, rarely four stamens; the ovary is free, 2-celled, the cells 2-seeded; the fruit is a drupe, a capsule, or a samara (see these heads); the cotyledons are foliaceous. Nearly 150 species are known, mostly natives of temperate countries. Among them are the olive, ash, lilac, privet, phillyrea, fringe tree, &c. Between some of these there is a great dissimilarity, so that this order is apt to be regarded as a very heterogeneous group; but the real affinity of the species composing it is manifested by the fact, that even those which seem most unlike can be grafted one upon another, as the lilac or the olive on the ash. Bitter, astringent, and tonic properties are prevalent in this order.

**OLEANDER** (*Nerium*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Apocynaceæ*, having a 5-parted calyx, set round on the inside at the base with many tooth-like points or glands, a salver-shaped 5-cleft corolla, in the throat of which is a 5-parted and toothed or lacerated corona, five stamens, the anthers adhering to the stigma, the fruit composed of two follicles. The species are evergreen shrubs with leathery leaves, which are opposite, or in threes; the flowers in false umbels, terminal or axillary. **THE COMMON O.** (*N. oleander*), a native of the south of Europe, the north of Africa, and many of the warmer temperate parts of Asia, is frequently planted in many countries as an ornamental shrub, and is not uncommon in Britain as a window-plant. It has beautiful red, or sometimes white, flowers. The English call it ROSE BAY, and the French ROSE LAUREL (*Laurier Rose*). It attains a height of eight or ten feet. Its flowers give a splendid appearance to many ruins in the south of Italy. It delights in moist situations, and is often found near streams. All parts of it contain a bitter and narcotic-acrid juice, poisonous to men and cattle, which flows out as a white milk when young twigs are broken off. Cases of poisoning have occurred by children eating its flowers, and even by the use of the wood for spits or skewers in roasting meat. Its exhalations are injurious to those who remain long under their influence, particularly to those who sleep under it. A decoction of the leaves or bark is much used in the south of France as a wash to cure cutaneous maladies.—*N. odoratum*, an Indian species, has larger flowers, which are very fragrant.—*N. piscidum* (or *Eschscholtzia piscidum*) a perennial climber, a native of the Kasya Hills, has a very fibrous bark, the fibre of which is used in India as hemp. The steeping of the stems in ponds kills fish.

#### OLEASTER. See *Elaeagnus*.

**O'LEFIANT GAS** ( $C_4H_4$ ) is transparent and colorless, possesses a disagreeable alliaceous odor, and acts as a poison when breathed. Its specific gravity is 0.981. It takes fire when brought in contact with a flame, and burns with a bright clear light. When this gas is mixed with oxygen or atmospheric air in the proportion of 1 volume with 3 volumes of oxygen, or with 15 volumes of atmospheric air, it forms a powerfully explosive mixture. It is more soluble in cold than in hot water—100 volumes of water at  $32^\circ$  absorbing 26.5 volumes of the gas, while at  $68^\circ$  they only absorb 14 volumes. It was liquefied by Faraday, under great pressure, but remained unfrozen at  $-166^\circ$ . If it be conducted through strongly heated tubes, or if a continuous series of electric sparks be passed through it, it is decomposed into a very dense black carbon, and double its own volume of hydrogen; and if it is subjected to a less intense heat, the products of decomposition are carbon and light carbureted hydrogen or marsh gas ( $C_2H_4$ ). Chlorine acts upon this gas in a very remarkable manner. When the two gases are mixed in equal volumes, they combine to form a heavy oily liquid, to which the term chloride of olefiant gas, or Dutch Liquid (q. v.), is given. It is from this reaction that the term *olefiant* was originally applied to this gas.

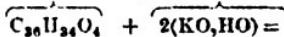
Olefiant gas is a constituent of the gaseous explosive admixtures that accumulate

In coal-pits, and of the gaseous products yielded by the distillation of wood, resinous matters, and coal; and the brightness of the flame of ordinary gas is in a great measure dependent upon the quantity of olefiant gas that is present.

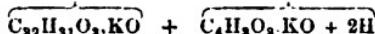
This gas is most readily obtained by the action of oil of vitriol on alcohol; the reactions that ensue are too complicated to be described in these pages.

O'LEIC ACID ( $C_{18}H_{34}O_3$ , HO), at temperatures above  $57^\circ$ , exists as a colorless limpid fluid, of an oily consistency, devoid of smell and taste, and (if it has not been exposed to air) exerting no action on vegetable colors. At  $40^\circ$ , it solidifies into a firm, white, crystalline mass, and in this state it undergoes no change in the air; but when fluid, it readily absorbs oxygen, becomes yellow and rancid, and exhibits a strong acid reaction with litmus paper. It is not a volatile acid, and on the application of a strong heat, it breaks up into several substances, such as caproic, caprylic, and sebacic acids—the last-named being the most characteristic product of the distillation. If oleic acid be exposed to the action of hyponitric acid ( $NO_4$ ), it is converted into an isomeric, solid, fatty acid, termed *elaidic acid*. A very small quantity of hyponitric acid (1 part to 200 of oleic acid) is sufficient to effect this remarkable change, the nature of which is unknown. When distilled with moderately strong nitric acid, it is oxidized into a large number of products, including all the volatile fatty acids represented by the formula  $C_nH_{2n}O_4$ , from formic acid ( $C_2H_2O_4$ ) to capric acid ( $C_{10}H_{20}O_4$ ), with six fixed dibasic acids of the formula  $C_{2n}H_{2n-2}O_8$ , v. z., succinic acid, adipic acid, pimelic acid, suberic acid, and anchoic (or lepargylie) acid. When heated with hydrated potash, it breaks up into palmitic and acetic acids, as shewn in the equation :

Oleic Acid. Hydrated Potash.



Palmitate of Potash. Acetate of Potash.



These decompositions and disintegrations seem to illustrate the facility with which, by the mere process of oxidation, which is perpetually at work in living structures, one organic acid can be converted into others.

Oleic acid is a constituent of *Oleine* (q. v.), which exists in most of the fats and fatty oils of the animal and vegetable kingdoms, and most abundantly in the liquid fats or oils, and hence its name is derived. It is very difficult to obtain the acid in a state of purity, in consequence of the readiness with which it oxidizes; and we shall not enter into details regarding the method of its preparation. It is obtained in a crude form, as a secondary product, in the manufacture of stearine candles; but almond oil is generally employed when the pure acid is required.

Oleic acid forms normal (or neutral) and acid salts; but the only compounds of this class that require notice are the normal salts of the alkalies. These are all soluble, and by the evaporation of their aqueous solution, form soaps. Oleate of potash forms a soft soap, which is the chief ingredient in Naples soap; while oleate of soda is a hard soap, which enters largely into the composition of Marseille soap.

The oleates of the alkalies occur in the animal body, in the blood, chyle, lymph, and bile; they have also been found in pus, in pulmonary tubercles, and in the excrements, after the administration of purgatives.

O'LEINE ( $C_{14}H_{104}O_{12}$ ) is proved by the researches of Berthelot, to be a triglyceride of oleic acid. See GLYCERINE. Pure oleine is a colorless and inodorous oil, which solidifies into acicular crystals at about  $28^\circ$ , is insoluble in water, and only slightly soluble in cold alcohol, but dissolves in ether in all proportions. By exposure to the air, it darkens in color, becomes acid and rancid, (from the gradual decomposition of the oleic acid), and finally assumes a resinoid appearance. Hyponitric acid converts it into an isomeric, white, solid fat, named *elaidine*—the glyceride of the elaidic acid described in the preceding article.

Pure oleine is obtained by cooling olive oil to  $32^\circ$ , which occasions the separation of the stearine and palmitine in a solid form. The fluid portion is then dissolved in alcohol, which, on being cooled to  $32^\circ$ , deposits in a solid form everything but oleine,

which is obtained in a pure state by driving off by heat the alcohol from the decanted or filtered solution.

The drying oils, such as those of linseed, hemp, walnut, poppy, &c., contain a variety of oleine, which is not converted into elaidine by the action of hypnitric acid, or of subnitrate of mercury, which, when prepared without the aid of heat, contains enough of the acid to produce a similar effect. Hence, these substances may be used to detect fraudulent adulterations of olive or almond oil with poppy and other cheap drying oils.

OLEOMETER, or Elasimeter, an instrument for ascertaining the densities of fixed oils. It consists of a very delicate thermometer-tube, the bulb being large in proportion to the stem. It is divided into fifty degrees, and floats at zero in pure oil of poppy-seed, at 88° to 88½° in pure oil of almonds, and at 50° in pure olive oil.

O'LEOPHOSPHORIC ACID is a yellow viscid substance, which is insoluble in water and cold alcohol, but dissolves readily in boiling alcohol and in ether. When boiled for a long time with water or with alcohol, or when treated with an acid, it resolves itself into oleine and phosphoric acid; while alkalies decompose it into phosphoric acid, oleates, and glycerine. It exists, according to Frémy and other chemists, in the brain, spinal cord, kidneys, and liver.

OLÉRON, Isle of (anc. *Uliarus*), an island of France, forming a portion of the department of Charente-Inferieure, lies off the west coast of France, opposite the mouth of the river Charente. It is 19 miles long, and about 5 miles broad, and is unusually fertile, producing abundantly all the crops grown in the department to which it belongs. See CHARENTE-INFERIEURE. At its northern extremity, is the light-house of Chassiron. In the seaport of Oléron, distilleries, rope-walks, and ship-building yards are in operation. The town of Sainte-Pierre-d'Oléron (pop. 1575) stands near the centre of the island. The pop. of the island is given at 10,000.

OLÉRON, Laws of, or *Jugements d'Oléron*, a celebrated code of maritime law compiled in France in the reign of St Louis, and so named from a groundless story, that it was enacted by Richard I. of England during the time that his expedition to Palestine lay at anchor at that island. The real origin of these laws was a written code, called "Il Consolato del Mare," of about the middle of the 13th c., compiled either at Barcelona or at Pisa, forming the established usages of Venice and the other Mediterranean states, and acceded to by the kings of France and counts of Provence. Besides containing regulations simply mercantile, this system defined the mutual rights of belligerent and neutral vessels, as they have been since understood in modern international law. The so-called laws of Oléron were a code of regulations borrowed from the "Consolato," which for several centuries were adopted as the basis of their maritime law by all the nations of Europe. Copies of the "Jugemens d'Oléron" are appended to some ancient editions of the "Coutumier de Normaudie." See NORMANDY, CUSTOMARY LAW OF.

OLGA, St, a saint of the Russian Church, wife of the Duke Igor of Kiev, who, having undertaken an expedition against Constantinople, which proved unsuccessful, was slain on his return to his own dominions. His widow O. avenged his death, assumed the government in his stead, and for many years governed with much prudence and success. Having resigned the government to her son Vratislav about the year 952, she repaired to Constantinople, where she was baptized, by the patriarch Theophilaktos, and received into the church, assuming at baptism the name of Helena, in honor of St Helena, mother of Constantine. She returned to Russia, and labored with much zeal for the propagation of her new creed; but she failed in her attempt to induce her son, Swantoshiv, to embrace Christianity. Her grandson, Vladimir, having married Chrysoberga, the sister of the emperors of Constantinople, Basil and Constantine, was baptized in the year 988; but his grandmother did not live to enjoy this gratification, having died in 978, or, according to other authorities, as early as 970. She is held in high veneration in the Russian Church. Her festival is held on July 21, and the practice of venerating her appears to date from the early period of the Russian Church, before the schism between the Eastern and Western churches.

OLHAO', a town of Portugal, on the sea-coast, near Cape de St Maria, and five miles east from Faro. Pop. 7025.

**OLIBANUM**, a gum-resin, which flows from incisions made in *Boswellia serrata*, a tree found in some parts of the East. See **BOSWELLIA**. It is the *Lebanah* of the Hebrews, *Libanos* or *Libanotos* of the Greeks, *Thus* of the Romans, of all which terms the ordinary English translation is *Frankincense* (q. v.). It occurs in concrece in semi-transparent yellowish tears and masses; has a bitter nauseous taste; is hard, brittle, and capable of being pulverised; and diffuses a strong aromatic odor when burned. It was formerly used in medicine, chiefly to restrain excessive mucus discharges; but its use for such purposes is now rare. It sometimes enters as an ingredient into stimulating plasters. It is chiefly employed for fumigation, and is used as incense in Roman Catholic churches. It is sometimes distinctively called *Indian O.*; a similar substance, in smaller tears, called *African O.*, being produced by *Boswellia papyrifera*, a tree found growing on bare limestone rocks in the east of Abyssinia, and sending its roots to a great depth into the crevices of the rock. The middle layers of the bark are of fine texture, and are used instead of paper for writing.

**O'LIFANT'S RIVER**. Two considerable streams of this name are found in the Cape Colony. The Olifant's River West rises in the Winterhoek Mountains, and enters the Atlantic in lat.  $31^{\circ} 40'$ , after a course of 150 miles, and a basin of drainage of 25,000 square miles.—The Olifant's River East drains a great part of the district of George, and joins the Gouritz River 60 miles above the entrance of that river into the sea. Its course is upwards of 150 miles in length, and it is more available for irrigation than almost any other Cape river.

**O'LIGARCHY** (*oligus*, few, and *archo*, to govern), a term applied by Greek political writers to that perversion of an aristocracy in which the rule of the dominant part of the community ceases to be the exponent of the general interests of the state, owing to the cessation of those substantial grounds of pre eminence in which an aristocracy originated. The governing power in these circumstances becomes a faction, whose efforts are chiefly devoted to their own aggrandisement and the extension of their power and privileges.

**OLINDA**, a city of Brazil, in the province of Pernambuco, and four miles north-east from Pernambuco. It was formerly the capital of the province, and there were bloody contests between Spain and Holland for the possession of it. It is still a bishop's seat, Pernambuco being included in the diocese. The whole aspect of the town is that of a place half deserted. Pop. 8000.

**OLINDA**, a suburb of Pernambuco (q. v.).

**OLIPHANT**, Mrs Margaret (*née Wilson*), one of the most distinguished of our living female novelists, was born about the year 1820. The prevalent impression that she is a Scotchwoman, naturally enough derived from the obvious fondness with which in her earlier works she has treated Scottish character and incident, is not strictly correct. She is a native of Liverpool; her mother was, however, a Scotchwoman of a somewhat remarkable type, strongly attached to old traditions. In 1849, Mrs O. published her first work, "Passages in the Life of Mrs Margaret Mairland of Sunnyside," which instantly won attention and approval. Its most distinctive charm is the tender humor and insight which regulate its exquisite delineation of Scottish life and character at once in their higher and lower levels. This work was followed by "Merkland" (1851); "Adam Graeme of Mossgray" (1852); "Harry Muir" (1858); "Magdalen Hepburn" (1854); "Lilliesleaf" (1855); and subsequently by "Zaldee," "Katie Stewart," and "The Quiet Heart," which originally appeared in succession in "Blackwood's Magazine." Though these are of somewhat various merit, in all of them the peculiar talent of the writer is marked. They are rich in the minute detail which is dear to the womanly mind; have nice and subtle insights into character, a flavor of quiet humor, and frequent traits of delicacy and pathos in the treatment of the gentler emotions. It is, however, on the "Chronicles of Carlingford" that her reputation as a novelist was first secured. In the first of the two sections separately published, apart from its other merits, which are great, the character of Little Nelly, the heroine, vivifies the whole work, and may rank as an original creation. The other, "Salem Chapel," perhaps indicates a wider and more vigorous grasp than is to be found in any other work of the authoress. Certain of the unlovelier features of English dissent, as exhibited in

a small provincial community, are here graphically sketched, and adapted with admirable skill to the purposes of fiction. The intrusion, however, in some portion of the work of a "sensational" element, as it is termed, though it subserves interest of interest, must be noted as a little defective in art. In 1870, she published "Three Brothers;" in 1871, "Squire Arden;" in 1872, the most subtly thought and gracefully written of all her novels, "Oimbra;" in 1874, "A Rose in June;" and in 1876, "Phoebe Junior. Mrs O. has also published "Life of Edward Irving;" "St Francis of Assisi;" "Memoir of the Comte de Montalembert;" and "The Masters of Florence."

OLIVAREZ, Don Gasparo de Guzman, Count of, Duke of San Lucar, and prime-minister of Philip IV. of Spain, was born on January 6, 1637, at Toledo, where his father was ambassador. He belonged to a distinguished but impoverished family, received a learned education, became the friend of Philip IV., his confidant in his amours, and afterward his prime-minister, in which capacity he exercised almost unlimited power for twenty-two years. O. shewed ability for government, but his constant endeavor was to wring money from the country that he might carry on wars. His oppressive measures caused insurrections in Catalonia and Andalusia, and roused the Portuguese to shake off the Spanish yoke in 1640, and make the Duke of Braganza their king, an event which O. reported to Philip with satisfaction, as it enabled him to confiscate the duke's great estates in Spain. But the arms of Spain being unsuccessful, the king was obliged to dismiss the minister in 1643. He would probably have been recalled to the head of affairs, but for a publication in which he gave offence to many persons of influence. He was ordered to retire to Toro, and confine himself to that place, where he died, 12th July 1645. (Cespedes, "Hist. De Felipe IV.")

OLIVE (*Olea*), a genus of trees and shrubs of the natural order *Oleaceæ*; having opposite, evergreen, leathery leaves, which are generally entire, smooth, and minutely scaly; small flowers in compound axillary racemes, or in thyrsi at the end of the twigs; a small 4-toothed calyx, a 4-cleft corolla, two stamens, a 2-cleft stigma; the fruit a drupe. The species are widely distributed in the warmer temperate parts of the globe. The COMMON O. (*O. Europæa*), a native of Syria and other Asiatic countries, and perhaps also of the south of Europe, although probably it is there rather naturalised than indigenous, is in its wild state a thorny shrub or small tree, but through cultivation becomes a tree of 20—40 feet high, destitute of spines. It attains a prodigious age. The cultivated varieties are very numerous, differing in the breadth of the leaves, and in other characters. The leaves resemble those of a willow, are lanceolate, entire, of a dull dark-green color above, scaly and whitish-gray beneath; the flowers small and white, in short dense racemes; the fruit greenish, whitish, violet, or even black, never larger than a pigeon's egg, generally oval, sometimes globular, or obovate, or acuminate. The fruit is produced in vast profusion, so that an old olive-tree becomes very valuable to its owner. It is chiefly from the pericarp that olive-oil is obtained, not from the seed, contrary to the general rule of the vegetable kingdom. Olive-oil is much used as an article of food in the countries in which it is produced, and to a smaller extent in other countries, to which it is exported also for medicinal and other uses (see OILS). Olives, gathered before they are quite ripe, are picked in various ways, being usually first steeped in lime-water, by which they are rendered softer and milder in taste. They are well known as a restorative of the palate, and are also said to promote digestion. Disagreeable as they generally are at first, they are soon greatly relished, and in the south of Europe are even a considerable article of food. Dried olives are there also used, as well as pickled olives.—The wood of the olive-tree takes a beautiful polish, and has black cloudy spots and veins on a greenish-yellow ground; it is principally used for the finest purposes by cabinet-makers and turners. The wood of the root is worked in a peculiarly beautiful manner, and is used for making snuff-boxes and small ornamental articles. The bark of the tree is bitter and astringent; and both it and the leaves have febrifuge properties. A gum resin exudes from old stems, which much resembles storax, has an odor like vanilla, and is used in all parts of Italy for perfumery. Among the Greeks, the O. was sacred to Pallas Athene (Minerva), who was honored as the bestower of it; it was also the emblem of chastity. A crown of olive-twigs was the highest distinction of a citizen who had merited well.

of his country, and the highest prize of the victor in the Olympic games. An olive branch was also the symbol of peace (compare Gen. viii. 11); and the vanquished, who came to supplicate for peace, bore olive-branches in their hands.—The O. has been cultivated in Syria, Palestine, and other parts of the east, from the earliest times. Its cultivation extends southwards as far as Cairo, and northwards to the middle of France. It is very generally propagated by suckers, but where great care is bestowed on it,arching is practiced. It grows from cuttings. The climate of England is too cold for the O., yet in Devonshire it ripens its fruit on a south wall.—*Olea sinensis* and several other species are useful trees of South Africa, yielding a very hard and extremely durable wood. Some of them bear the name of IRONWOOD at the Cape of Good Hope. The AMERICAN O. (*O. Americana*) is also remarkable for the hardness of its wood. It is found as far north as Virginia. It is a tree of 30—35 feet high, with much broader leaves than the Common Olive. Its fruit is fit for use. Its flowers are fragrant. The FRAGRANT O. (*O. fragrans* or *Osmanthus fragrans*) of China and Japan has extremely fragrant flowers, which are used by the Chinese for flavoring tea.

O'LIVENITE, a mineral, consisting chiefly of arsenic acid and protoxide of copper, with a little phosphoric acid and a little water. It is generally of some dark shade of green, sometimes brown or yellow. It is found along with different ores of copper in Cornwall and elsewhere. It is often crystallized in oblique four-sided prisms, of which the extremities are acutely bevelled, and the obtuse lateral edges sometimes truncated, or in acute double four-sided pyramids; it is sometimes also spherical, kidney-shaped, columnar, or fibrous.

OLIVE'NZA, a town of Spain, near the Portuguese frontier, 19 miles south-west from Badajoz, on a small river which flows into the Guadiana. The chief branches of industry are the expressing of oil, weaving, and the making of earthenware. From the treaty for the cession of O. by Portugal to Spain in 1801, Godoy acquired his title of Prince of the Peace. Pop. 10,000.

O'LIVES. Mount of, called also Mount Olivet, an inconsiderable ridge lying on the east side of Jerusalem, from which it is only separated by the narrow Valley of Jehosaphat. It is called by the modern Arabs Jebel-el-Tur, and takes its familiar name from a magnificent grove of olive-trees which once stood on its western bank, but has now in great part disappeared. The road to Mount Olivet is through St Stephen's Gate, and leads by a stone bridge over the now almost waterless brook Cedron. Immediately beyond, at the foot of the bridge, lies the Garden of Gethsemane; and the road here parts into two branches, northwards towards Galilee, and eastwards to Jericho. The ridge rises in three peaks, the central one of which is 2558 feet above the level of the sea, and 416 feet above the Valley of Jehosaphat. The southern summit is now called "The Mount of Offence," and was the scene of the idolatrous worship established by Solomon for his foreign wives and concubines. The northern peak is the supposed scene of the appearance of the angels to the disciples after the resurrection, and is remarkable in Jewish history as the place in which Titus formed his encampment in the expedition against the fated city of Jerusalem. But it is around the central peak, which is the Mount of O. properly so called, that all the most sacred associations of Christian history converge. On the summit stands the Church of the Ascension, built originally by St Helen, the modern church being now in the hands of the Armenian community; and near it are shewn various places where, according to tradition, our Lord wept over Jerusalem, where the apostles composed the apostles' creed, where our Lord taught them the Lord's Prayer, &c. Near the Church of the Ascension is a mosque and the tomb of a Mohammedan saint. In the Garden of Gethsemane, at the foot of the hill, is shewn the scene of our Lord's agony. The northern peak spreads out into a plain of considerable extent, which is painfully notable in Jewish history as the place where, after the Jews on occasion of the revolt under Bar-Kochebah, were debarred by Adrian from entering Jerusalem, they were wont to assemble annually on the anniversary of the burning of the Temple to celebrate this mournful anniversary, and to take a distant look at their beloved Jerusalem. The scene is beautifully described, and with much dramatic feeling, by St Jerome.—"Cain. in Sophoniam," t. iii. p. 1665.

OLIVETANS, a religious order of the Roman Catholic Church, one of the many remarkable products of that well-known spiritual movement which characterised the

12th and 13th centuries. The O., or Brethren of Our Lady of Mount Olivet, are an offshoot of the great Benedictine Order (q. v.) and derive their origin from John Tolomei, a native of Siena, born in the year 1272. Tolomei had been a distinguished professor of philosophy in the university of his native city; but his career was suddenly interrupted by the loss of his sight. Although he was cured of his blindness (and, as he himself believed, miraculously), this visitation convinced him of the vanity of earthly things; and in company with so no friends he withdrew to a solitary place near Siena, where he devoted himself to prayer and religious exercises. By the direction of the pope, John XXII., the new brethren adopted the Benedictine rule; but they chose as their especial province the cultivation of sacred science, and the duty of teaching. In the year 1319, Tolomei was chosen as the first general; and even in his lifetime the institute made rapid progress, especially in Italy. It numbered at one time eighty houses, but at present the number is reduced to four—namely, the parent house, so called, of Monte Oliveto, in the diocese of Arezzo in Tuscany, one at Rome, one at Genoa, and one at Palermo. The O. order has produced many distinguished ecclesiastics.

#### OLIVINE. See CHRYSOLITE.

O'LLA PODRI'DA (literally, *putrid pot*), a Spanish term, originally signifying an accumulation of remains of flesh, vegetables, &c., thrown together into a pot, but generally employed to designate a favorite national dish of the Spaniards, consisting of a mixture of different kinds of meat and vegetables stewed together. It has also come to be figuratively applied to literary productions of very miscellaneous contents. The French equivalent is *pot-pourri*, and the Scotch *hotch-potch*, both of which, but especially the former, are also employed in a figurative sense.

OLMÜTZ, the chief fortress of Moravia, Austria, is the capital of a district of the same name, and is situated in lat.  $49^{\circ} 36' \text{ N.}$ , and in long.  $17^{\circ} 15' \text{ E.}$ , on an island of the river Morava, which, by means of sluices, can be opened into the moats, and thus made available for purposes of defence. O. is the see of an archbishop, nominated by the chapter, and is the chief seat of the administrative departments. It has a university, founded in 1581, dissolved in 1778, and reorganized in 1827; a library of 50,000 vols.; good natural history, physical, and other museums; a gymnasium, an archiepiscopal seminary, artillery and infantry academies, polytechnic and other schools, a hospital, an asylum for widows and orphans, &c. The most noteworthy of its churches are the cathedral, a fine old building, and the church of St Mauritus, completed in 1412, with its celebrated organ, having 48 stops, and more than 2000 pipes. The noble town-hall, with its complicated clock-work, set up in 1674, and the lofty column on the Oberring, with several fine fountains in the squares, and the splendid archiepiscopal palace and chapter-house, all contribute towards the picturesque aspect for which O. is distinguished. The deficiency in public gardens has of late years been in part supplied by the draining and planting of some of the inner moats, and the conversion of some portions of the fortifications into pleasure-grounds. A mile from the city lies the monastery of the Premonstratensians at Hradisch, founded in 1074, now a military hospital. O. has a few manufactures of kerseymere, cloth, linen, and porcelain, and is the seat of an extensive trade in cattle from Poland and Moldavia. Pop. (1869) 15,231. Prior to 1777, when O. was raised into an archiepiscopal, its bishops had long been in the enjoyment of the rank of princes of the empire. The city suffered severely during the Thirty Years' War, and again in the Seven Years' War of Silesia, when it more than once fell into the hands of the Prussians. In 1848, Ferdinand I. signed his abdication here in favor of his nephew, Franz-Joseph I.; while in 1850, O. was chosen as the place of conference between the Prussian, Austrian, and Russian plenipotentiaries, for the adjustment of the conflicting differences which had arisen in the German states generally, as the result of the revolutionary movement of 1848.

OLONE'TZ, a government in the north of Russia, bounded on the w. by Finland, and on the e. and n. e. by Archangel. Area, exclusive of water, 49,104 sq. miles. Pop. (1870) 296,892. Large lakes abound in this government, the chief, after Lake Onega (q. v.), being Lakes Wygo and Sero. The surface is in general elevated, and about four-fifths of it are covered with wood. The soil is sterile, and the climate is cold and damp. The wealth of the government consists principally in its minerals. Its iron-mines supply the ironworks of Petrasowodsk, and from its quarries marble

are sent to St Petersburg. The principal employments of the inhabitants, who are principally Russians and Finns, and belong to the Greek Church, are carving in wood, fishing and hunting. Many of them also are employed in the ironworks and quarries. The women weave and spin. The government derives its name from the small but ancient town of Olonetz. Petrasowodsk is the centre of administration.

OLORON, or Oloron-Sainte-Marie, a town of France, in the department of Basses-Pyrénées, on the Gave d'Oloron, 15 miles south-west of Pau. The Church of St Marie is in the transition style from Romanesque to Gothic. The principal articles of manufacture are the chequered handkerchiefs which form the favorite head-dresses of the peasantry of Aragon and Gascony, and also the "barrets" or caps of the Béarnais. Pop. (1872) 7175.

OLOT, a town of Spain, in the province of Gerona, and 22 miles north-west from Gerona, near the base of the Pyrenees, on the Fluvia. There are 14 volcanic cones close to the town; the crater of the largest is a mile in circumference and 445 feet in depth. The whole district is volcanic. In many places, and even in the town itself, currents of air blow continually from the porous lava. These are called *Bufadores* and *Sopladores*, and some of them are conducted beneath houses, and used as refrigeratories in hot weather. They maintain the temperature of about 53° F. both in hot and cold weather, but the gust of air is strongest in hot weather. O. was almost destroyed by an earthquake in 1421, but was soon rebuilt. Pop. 12,070.

OLYMPIA, the scene of the celebrated Olympic Games (q. v.), is a beautiful valley in Elis, in the Peloponnesus, through which runs the river Alpheus. As a national sanctuary of the Greeks, O. contained within a small space, many of the choicest treasures of Greek art belonging to all periods and states, such as temples, monuments, altars, theatres, and multitudes of images, statues, and votive-offering, of brass and marble. In the time of the elder Pliny, there still stood here about 3000 statues. The Sacred Grove (called the *Altis*) of Olympia, enclosed a level space about 4000 feet long by nearly 2000 broad, containing both the spot appropriated to the games and the sanctuaries connected with them. It was finely wooded, and in its centre stood a clump of sycamores. The Altis was crossed from west to east by a road called the "Pompe Way," along which all the processions passed. The Alpheus bounded it on the south, the Cladeus, a tributary of the former, on the west, and rocky but gently swelling hills on the north; westward it looked towards the Ionian Sea. The most celebrated building was the *Olympieum*, or *Olympium*, dedicated to Olympian Zeus. It was designed by the architect Libon of Elis in the 6th c. B.C., but was not completed for more than a century. It contained a colossal statue of the god, the master-piece of the sculptor Phidias, and many other splendid figures; its paintings were the work of Pamphilus, a relative of Phidian. Next to the Olympieum ranked the *Heraeum*, dedicated to Hera, the wife of Zeus, and the Queen of Heaven, containing the table on which were placed the garlands prepared for the victors in the games; the *Pelopion*, the *Metroum*, the ten *Thesauri* or Treasuries, built for the reception of the dedicatory offerings of the Greek cities, the temples of Eileithyia and Aphrodite also deserve mention; the *Stadium* and the *Hippodrome*, where the contests took place, stood at the eastern end of the Altis. The plough-share now passes through the scene of these contests, but many ruins still attest the ancient magnificence of the buildings. In 1875 explorations, at the expense of the German government, were undertaken at O., and already several important "finds" have been made.

OLYMPIAD (Gr. *olympias*), the name given to the period of four years that elapsed between two successive celebrations of the Olympic Games (q. v.); a mode of reckoning which forms the most celebrated chronological era among the Greeks. The first recorded olympiad dates from the 21st or 22d of July 776 B.C., and is frequently referred to as the Olympiad of Corcibus; for historians, instead of referring to the olympiad by its number, frequently designate it by the name of the winner of the foot-race in the Olympic games belonging to that period, though at times both the number and the name of the conqueror are given. A slight indefiniteness is frequently introduced into Greek chronology, from the custom of mentioning only the olympiad, neglecting to specify in which year of the olympiad a certain event happened. As this era commenced in 776 B.C., the first year of our present era (1 A.D.) cor-

responded to the last half of the fourth year of the 194th with the first half of the first year of the 195th olympiad, and 394 A.D. corresponds to the second year of the 298d olympiad, at which time reckoning by olympiads terminated. This era is used only by writers, and is never found on coins, and very seldom on inscriptions. Another olympic era, known as the "New Olympic Era," was commenced by the Roman emperors, and dates from 131 A.D.; it is found both in writings, public documents, and inscriptions.

OLYMPIAS, the wife of Philip II., king of Macedon, and mother of Alexander the Great. She was the daughter of Neoptolemus I., king of Epirus. She possessed a vigorous understanding, but was of a most passionate, jealous, and ambitious character. Philip having, on account of disagreements, separated from her and married Cleopatra, niece of Attalus (357 B.C.), she went to reside with her brother Alexander, king of Epirus, where she incessantly fomented intrigues against her former husband, and is believed to have taken part in his assassination by Pausanias 337 B.C. On the accession of her son Alexander to the throne, she returned to Macedonia, where she contributed to bring about the murder of Cleopatra and her daughter. Alexander was filled with indignation, but O. was his mother, and he could not obey the dictates of justice. During his brief but magnificent career he always treated her with the utmost reverence and esteem, though he never allowed her to meddle with his political schemes. After his death she endeavored to get possession of the vacant throne, and obtained the support of Polysperchon in her designs. In 317, the two defeated Arrhidæus, the weak-minded step-brother and successor of Alexander, and his wife Eurydice, whom she caused to be put to death in the same year. She now began to glut her revenge on such of the Macedonian nobles as had shewn themselves hostile to her; but her cruelties soon alienated the minds of the people from her, even though she was the mother of their heroic king, whereupon Cassander (q. v.), her principal adversary, marched north from the Peloponnesus, besieged her in Pydna, and forced her to surrender in the spring of 316 B.C. She was immediately afterwards put to death. O. was a woman of heroic spirit, but of fierce and uncontrollable passions, and in the perpetration of crime, when she reckoned it necessary, displayed an unscrupulousness peculiarly feminine.

OLYMPIC GAMES, the most splendid national festival of the ancient Greeks, were celebrated every fifth year in honor of Zeus, the father of the gods, on the plain of Olympia (q. v.). Their origin goes back into prehistoric ages. According to the myth elaborated or preserved by the Elean priests, they were instituted by the Idean Herakles in the time of Kronos, father of Zeus; according to others, by the later Herakles, son of Zeus and Alkmene; while Strabo, rejecting the older and more incredible legends, attributes their origin to the Herakleidae after their conquest of the Peloponnesus. But the first glimpse of anything approaching to historic fact in connection with the games is their so-called revival by Iphitos, king of Elis, with the assistance of the Spartan law-giver, Lycurgus, about 884 B.C., or, according to others, about 828 B.C., an event commemorated by an inscription on a disc kept in the *Heraeum* at Olympia, which Pausanias (flor. 2d c. A.D.) saw. That festive games were celebrated here, in other words, that Olympia was a sacred spot, long before the time of Iphitos, can indeed hardly be doubted; the universal tradition that the Elean king had only "revived" the games proves this; but nothing whatever can be historically ascertained concerning their origin, character, or frequency in this remoter time. Iphitos may, therefore, be regarded as their founder, yet the reckoning of time by Olympiads, (q. v.) — the real dawn of the historical period in Greek history — did not begin till more than a century later. At first, it is conjectured, only Peloponnesians resorted to the Olympic games, but gradually the other Greek states were attracted to them, and the festival became *Pan-Hellenic*. Originally, and for a long time, none were allowed to contend except those of pure Hellenic blood; but after the conquest of Greece by the Romans, the latter sought and obtained this honor, and both Tiberius and Nero figure in the list of Roman victors. Women — with one exception, the priestess of Demeter Chamyne — were forbidden to be present, on pain of being thrown headlong from the Typhaean Rock. The games were held from the 11th to the 15th of the Attic month *Hekatombaeon* (our July—August), during which, first throughout Elis, and then throughout the rest of Greece, heralds

proclaimed the cessation of all intestine hostilities; while the territory of Elis itself was declared inviolable. The combatants were required to undergo a preparatory training for ten months in the gymnasium at Elis, and during the last of these months the gymnasium was almost as numerously attended as the games themselves. Much uncertainty prevails as to the manner in which the contests were distributed over the different days. Krause (*Olympia*, p. 106) suggests the following order: On the first day the great initiatory sacrifices were offered, after which the competitors were properly classed and arranged by the judges, and the contests of the trumpeters took place; the second day was set apart for the boys who competed with each other in foot-races, wrestling, boxing, the pentathlon, the pankration, horse-races; the third and principal day was devoted to the contests of men in foot-races of different kinds (as, for example, the simple race, once over the course; the *diaulos*, in which the competitors had to run the distance twice; and the *dōichos*, in which they had to run it seven or twelve times), wrestling, boxing, the *pankration* (in which all the powers and skill of the combatants were exhibited), and the race of *hoplites*, or men in heavy armor; on the fourth day came off the *pentathlon* (contest of five games—viz. leaping, running, throwing the discus, throwing the spear and wrefting), the chariot and horse races, and perhaps the contests of the heralds; the fifth day was set apart for processions, sacrifice, and banquets to the victors (called *Olympionikoi*), who were crowned with a garland of wild olive twigs cut from a sacred tree which grew in the Altis (see *OLYMPIA*), and presented to the assembled people, each with a palm branch in his hand, while the heralds proclaimed his name, and that of his father and country. On his return home, he was received with extraordinary distinction; songs were sung in his praise (14 of Pindar's extant lyrics are devoted to *Olympionikoi*); statues were erected to him, both in the Altis and in his native city; a place of honor was given him at all public spectacles; he was in general exempted from public taxes, and at Athens was boarded at the expense of the state in the Prytaneion.

The regulation of the games belonged to the Eleus, from whom were chosen the *hellanodikai*, or judges, whose number varied. At first there were only two, but as the games became more and more national, and consequently more numerous, they were gradually increased to ten, sometimes even to twelve. They were instructed in their duties for ten months beforehand at Elis, and held their office only for one year. The officers who executed their commands were called *alytai*, and were under the presidency of an alytarch.—See Krause's "Olympia oder Darstellung der grossen Olympischen Spiele" (Wien, 1888).

**OLYMPIODORUS**, one of the latest of the Alexandrian Neoplatonists, flourished in the first half of the 6th c. after Christ, during the reign of the Emperor Justinian. Regarding his life nothing is known. Of his writings, we possess a "Life of Plato," with commentaries or scholia on several of his dialogues, the "Gorgias," "Philebus," "Phaedo," and "Alcibiades I." In these he appears as an acute and vigorous thinker, and as a man of great erudition. O's "Life of Plato" was published by Wetstein (1692), Etwall (Lond. 1771), and Fischer (Leips. 1788); the best edition of the scholia is that of Mystoixides and Schlinas (Venice, 1816).

**OLYMPUS**, the ancient name of several mountains or chains of mountains—e.g., of the north-western continuation of Taurus in Mysia, of a mountain in the island of Cyprus, of one in Lycia, of another in Elis, of one on the borders of Laconia and Arcadia, and of another on the frontiers of Thessaly and Macedonia. Of these, the last-mentioned (now called *Elymbo*) is the most famous. Its eastern side, which fronts the sea, is composed of a line of vast precipices, cleft by ravines, filled with forest-trees. Oak, chestnut, beech, plane tree, are scattered abundantly along its base, and higher up appear great forests of pine, as in the days of the old poets of Greece and Rome. With Euripides, it is *poludendros Olympus*; with Virgil, *frondosus Olympus*; and with Horace, *opacus Olympus*. Its highest peak is 784 feet above the level of the sea, and is covered with snow for about nine months of the year. It was regarded by the ancient Greeks as the chief abode of the gods, and the palace of Zeus was supposed to be upon its broad summit. According to Greek legend, it was formerly connected with Ossa, but was separated from it by an earthquake, allowing a passage for the Peneius through the narrow vale of Tempe to the

sea. The philosophers afterwards transferred the abode of the gods to the planetary spheres, to which they likewise transferred the name of Olympus.

OM is a Sanscrit word which, on account of the mystical notions that even at an early date of Hindu civilisation were connected with it, acquired much importance in the development of Hindu religion. Its original sense is that of emphatic or solemn, affirmation or assent. Thus, when in the White-Yajur-Veda (see VEDA) the sacrificer invites the gods to rejoice in his sacrifice, the god Savitr'i assents to his summons by saying: "Om (i. e., be it so); proceed!" Or, when in the Br'had-Āraṇyaka-Upanishad, Prajāpati, the father of gods, men, and demons, asks the gods whether they have understood his instruction; he expresses his satisfaction with their affirmative reply, in these words: "Om you have fully comprehended it;" and, in the same Upanishad, Pravālān'a answers the question of Śvetaketu, as to whether his father has instructed him, by uttering the word "Om," i. e., "forsooth (I am)." A portion of the R'igveda, called the Aitareya-Brahman'a, where describing a religious ceremony at which verses from the R'igveda, as well as songs called Gāthās, were recited by the priest called Hotr'i, and responses given by another priest, the Adhwaryu, says: "Om is the response of the Adhwaryu to the R'igveda verses (recited by the Hotr'i), and likewise tathā (i. e., thus) your response to the Gāthās, for Om is (the term of assent) used by the gods, whereas tathā is (the term of assent) used by men" (the R'igveda verses being, to the orthodox Hindu, of divine, and the Gāthās of human, authorship). In this, the original sense of the word, it is little doubtful that om is but an older and contracted form of the common Sanscrit word evam, "thus," which, coming from the prounomial base "a"—in some derivations changed to "e"—may have at one time occurred in the form avam, when, by the elision of the vowel following e—for which there are numerous analogies in Sanscrit—aram would become aem, and hence, according to the ordinary phonetic laws of the language, om. This etymology of the word, however, seems to have been lost, even at an early period of Sanscrit literature; for another is met with in the ancient grammarians, enabling us to account for the mysticism which many religious and theological works of ancient and medieval India suppose to inhere in it. According to this latter etymology, om would come from a radical av by means of an affix man, when om would be a curtailed form of avman or oman; and as av implies the notion of "protect, preserve, save," om would be a term implying "protection or salvation;" its mystical properties and its sanctity being inferred from its occurrence in the Vedic writings, and in connection with sacrificial acts, such as are alluded to before.

Hence Om became the auspicious word with which the spiritual teacher had to begin, and the pupil had to end each lesson of his reading of the Veda. "Let this syllable," the existing Pratis'ākhyā, or grammar of the R'igveda, enjoins, "be the head of the reading of the Veda, for alike to the teacher and the pupil, it is the supreme Brahman, the gate of heaven." And Manu (q. v.) ordains: "A Brahman, at the beginning and end (of a lesson on the Veda), must always pronounce the syllable Om; for unless Om precede, his learning will slip away from him; and unless it follow, nothing will be long retained." At the time when another class of writings, the Purāṇas (q. v.), were added to the inspired code of Hinduism, for a similar reason, Om is their introductory word.

That the mysterious power which, as the foregoing quotation from the law-book of Manu shews, was attributed to this word, must have been the subject of early speculation, is obvious enough. A reason assigned for it is given by Manu himself. "Brahmā," he says, "extracted from the three Vedas the letter a, the letter u, and the letter m (which combined result in Om), together with the (mysterious) words Bhūh' (earth), Bhuvah' (sky), and Svah' (heaven);" and in another verse: "These three great immutable words, preceded by the syllable Om, and (the sacred R'igveda verse, called) Gāyatrī, consisting of three lines, must be considered as the mouth (or entrance) of Brahman (the Veda)"—or, as the commentators observe—the means of attaining final emancipation; and "The syllable Om is the supreme Brahman, (three) regulated breathings (accompanied with the mental recitation of Om, the three mysterious words Bhūh', Bhuvah', Svah', and the Gāyatrī), are the highest devotion. . . All rites ordained in the Veda, such as burnt and other sacrifices, pass away; but the syllable Om must be considered as imperishable, for it is (a symbol of) Brahman (the supreme Spirit) himself, the Lord of Creation." In these speculations, Manu bears out, and is borne out by, several Upanishads. See VEDA. In the Kath-

*Upanishad*, for instance, *Yama*, the god of death, in replying to a question of Nachiketas, says: "The word which all the Vedas record, which all the modes of penance proclaim, of which desirous the religious students perform their duties, this word I will briefly tell thee, it is *Om*. This syllable means the (inferior) Brahman and the supreme (Brahman). Whoever knows this syllable, obtains whatever he wishes." And in the *Pras'na-Upanishad*, the saint Pippalāda says to Sūtyakāma: "The supreme and the inferior Brahman are both the word *Om*; hence the wise follows by this support the one or the other of the two. If he meditates upon its one letter (*a* only), he is quickly born on the earth; him carry the verses of the R̄igveda to the world of man; and if he is devoted there to austerity, the duties of a religious student, and faith, he enjoys greatness. But, if he meditates in his mind on its two letters (*a* and *u*), he is elevated by the verses of the Yajur-Veda to the intermediate region; he comes to the world of the moon, and having enjoyed there power, returns again (to the world of man). If, however, he meditates on the supreme Spirit by means of its three letters (*a*, *u*, and *m*), he is produced in light in the sun; as the snake is liberated from its skin, so he is liberated from sin." According to the *Man'dūkya-Upanishad*, the nature of the soul is summarised in the three letters *a*, *u*, and *m*, in their isolated and combined form—a being *Vais'vānara*, or that form of Brahman which represents the soul in its waking condition; *u*, *Taijasa*, or that form of Brahman which represents it in its dreaming state; and *m*, *Prajña*, or that form of Brahman which represents it in its state of profound sleep (or that state in which it is temporarily united with the supreme Spirit); while *a*, *u*, *m* combined, i.e., *Om*, represent the fourth or highest condition of Brahman, "which is unaccountable, in which all manifestations have ceased, which is blissful and without duality. *Om*, therefore, is soul; and by this soul, he who knows it enters into (the supreme) soul." Passages like these may be considered as the key to the more enigmatic expressions used, for instance, by the author of the "Yoga" (q. v.) philosophy, where, in three short sentences, he says: "His (the supreme Lord's name) is *Pran'ava* (i. e., *Om*); its muttering (should be made) and reflection on its signification; thence comes the knowledge of the transcendental spirit, and the absence of the obstacles" (such as sickness, languor, doubt, &c., which obstruct the mind of an ascetic). But they indicate, at the same time, the further course which superstition took in enlarging upon the mysticism of the doctrine of the *Upanishads*. For as soon as every letter of which the word *Om* consists was fancied to embody a separate idea, it is intelligible that other sectarian explanations were grafted on them, to serve their special purposes. Thus, while Sāṅkara, the great theologian and commentator on the *Upanishads*, is still contented with an etymological punning, by means of which he transforms "*a*" (or rather "*ā*") into an abbreviation of *āpti* (pervading), since speech is pervaded by *Vais'vānara*: "*u*" into an abbreviation of *utkarsa* (superiority), since *Taijasa* is superior to *Vais'vānara*; and "*m*" into an abbreviation of *miti* (destruction), *Vais'vānara* and *Taijasa*, at the destruction and regeneration of the world, being, as it were, absorbed into *Prajña*—the *Purāṇas* (q. v.) make of "*a*" a name of *Vishn'u*; of "*u*," name of his consort *S'ī*; and of "*m*," a designation of their joint-worshipper; or they see in *a*, *u*, *m* the Triad, Brahma, *Vishn'u*, and *S'iva*; the first being represented by "*a*," the second by "*u*," and the third by "*m*"—each sect, of course, identifying the combination of these letters, or *Om*, with their supreme deity. Thus, also, in the *Bhagavadgītā*, which is devoted to the worship of *Vishn'u* in his incarnation as *Kṛiṣṇ'a*, though it is essentially a poem of philosophical tendencies, based on the doctrine of the *Yoga*, *Kṛiṣṇ'a* in one passage says of himself that he is *Om*; while in another passage, he qualifies the latter as the supreme Spirit.—A common designation of the word *Om*—for instance, in the last-named passages of the *Bhagavadgītā*—is the word *Pran'ava*, which comes from a so-called radical *nu*, "praise," with the prefix *pra*, amongst other meanings, implying emphasis, and therefore literally means "eulogium, emphatic praise." Although *Om*, in its original sense, as a word of solemn or emphatic assent, is, properly speaking, restricted to the Vedic literature, it deserves notice that it is now-a-days often used by the natives of India in the sense of "yes," without, of course, any allusion to the mystical properties which are ascribed to it in the religious works. See also the article **OM MANI PADME HŪM**.

That there exists no connection whatever, as has been supposed by some writers

to be the case, between *Om* and *Amen*, requires scarcely any remark, after the etymological explanations given above; but it may not be without interest to observe that, though the derivation of *Om*, as a curtailment of *av-man*, from *av*, "protect, save," is probably merely artificial, and, as stated before, invented to explain the later, mystical use of the Vedic word, it seems more satisfactory to compare the Latin *omen* with a Sanscrit *avman*, "protection," as derived by the grammarians from *dv* (in the Latin *dve-o*), than to explain it in the fashion of the Roman etymologists: "Omen, quod ex ore primum elatum est, osmeum dictum;" or, "Omen velut omen, quod ex ore augurium, quod non avibus aliave modo fit." And since *pra-nava*, from Sanscrit *nu*, "praise," is, like *Om*, used in the sense of "the deity," it is likewise probable that *nunen* does not come, as is generally believed, from Latin *nu(ere)*, "nod," but from a radical corresponding with the Sanscrit *nu*, "praise."

**OM MANI PADME RUM'** is the "formula of six syllables" which has acquired much celebrity from the conspicuous part which it plays in the religion of the Buddhists, and especially in that form of it called *Lamaism* (q. v.). It is the first subject which the Tibetans and Mongols teach their children, and it is the last prayer which is muttered by the dying man; the traveller repeats this formula on his journey, the shepherd when attending his flock, the housewife when performing her domestic duties, the monk when absorbed in religious meditation, &c. It is met with everywhere; on flags, rocks, trees, walls, columns, stone-monuments, domestic implements, skulls, skeletons, &c. It is looked upon as the essence of all religion and wisdom, and the means of attaining eternal bliss. "These six syllables," it is said, "concentrate in themselves the favor of all the Buddhas, and they are the root of the whole doctrine . . . ; they lead the believer to re-birth as a higher being, and are the door which bars from him inferior births; they are the torch which illuminates darkness, the conqueror of the five evils," &c. They are likewise the symbol of transmigration; each syllable successively corresponding with, and releasing from one of the six worlds in which men are re-born; or they are the mystical designation of the six transcendental virtues, each successive syllable implying self-offering (*idāna*), endurance (*kshānti*), clarity (*vīra*), contemplation (*dhṛyīna*), mental energy (*teṣyā*), and religious wisdom (*prajñā*). The reputed author of this formula is the Dhyāni-Buddha-sisṭwa, or deified saint, *Avalokites'vara*, or, as the Tibetans call him, *Padmapāṇi* (i. e., the lotus-handed). It would not belong, accordingly, to the earliest stage of Buddhism, nor is it found in the oldest Buddhistic works of the north of India or of Ceylon. Its original sense is rather obscure. Some suppose that it means O ! (*om*), the jewel (*manī*) in the lotus (*padme*), amen (*hūm*): "the jewel" being an allusion to the saint Avalokites'vara himself, and the word "*padme*, or in the lotus," to the belief that he was born from a lotus. It is probably, however, more correct to interpret the formula thus: "Salvation (*om*) [is] in the jewel-lotus (*manī-padme*), amen (*hūm*');" when the compound word "jewel-lotus" would mean the saint and the flower whence he arose. If this interpretation be correct, the formula would be originally nothing more than a salutation addressed to Avalokites'vara, or *Padmapāṇi*; and the mystical interpretation put upon each syllable of it, would then be analogous to that which imparted a transcendental sense to each of the letters of the syllable *O m* (q. v.). Dr Emil Schlagintweit, in his valuable work on "Buddhism in Tibet" (Leipzig, 1863), relates (p. 120) that "in a prayer-cylinder which he had the opportunity of opening, he found the formula printed in six lines, and repeated innumerable times upon a leaf 49 feet long and 4 inches broad. When Baron Schilling de Cannstadt paid a visit to the temple *Sunnlin*, in Siberia, the Lamas were just occupied with preparing 100,000,000 of copies of this prayer to be put into a prayer-cylinder; his offer to have the necessary number executed at St Petersburg was most readily accepted, and he was presented, in return for the 150,000,000 of copies he forwarded to them, with an edition of the *Kanjur*, the sheets of which amount to about 40,000. When adorning the head of religious books, or when engraved upon the slabs resting on the prayer-walls, the letters of the formula are often so combined as to form an anagram. The longitudinal lines occurring in the letters "*mani padme hūm'*" are traced close to each other, and to the outer longitudinal line at the left are appended the curved lines. The letter "*om*" is replaced by a symbolical sign above the anagram, shewing a half-moon surmounted by a disc indicating the sun, from which issues

a frame. Such a combination of the letters is called in Tibetan *nam chu wangdan*, "the ten entirely powerful (viz., characters, six of which are consonants, and four vowels)" and the power of this sacred sentence is supposed to be increased by its being written in this form. These kind of anagrams are always bordered by a point d frame indicating the leaf of a fig-tree.—See also E. Burnouf, "Introduction à l'Histoire du Bouddhisme Indien" (Paris, 1844; C. F. Koeppen, "Die Religion des Buddha" (Berlin, 1847—1859); and the works quoted by these authors.

OMA'GH (Irish, *Oigh magh*, "seat of the chiefs"), an ancient town, capital of the county of Tyrone in Ireland, situated on the river Strule, distant 34 miles south from Londonderry, and 110 miles north-north-west from Dublin, with both which cities it is connected by railway. O. grew up around an abbey founded in the year 792, but is first heard of as a fortress of Art O'Nial in the end of the 15th c., about which time it was forced to surrender to the English, although its possession long continued to alternate between Irish and English hands. It formed part of James I.'s "Plantation" grants, and was strongly garrisoned by Mountjoy. On its being evacuated by the troops of James II. in 1689, it was partially burned, and a second fire in 1743 completed its destruction. But it has been well re-built, and is now a neat and prosperous town. Pop. (1871) 8724. O. contains a very handsome courthouse, where the assizes for County Tyrone are held, several neat churches (Roman Catholic, Episcopal, and Presbyterian), a convent, several partially endowed and national schools, a district lunatic asylum, and the workhouse of the Poor-Law Union of which it is the centre. There is also a barracks station—it being within the Belfast military district. Its trade is chiefly in brown linens, corn, and agricultural produce.

OMAHA CITY, the chief city of the state of Nebraska, U. S., is on the right bank of the Missouri, opposite Council Bluffs, and 20 miles north of the mouth of the Nebraska River. Besides the government offices, it has a large trade by the rivers, and across the prairies, and is the eastern terminus of the Union Pacific Railway, and also of the Omaha and North-Western, and the Omaha and South-Western lines. Pop. in 1860, 1912; in 1870, 16,088.

OMA'N, the most eastern portion of Arabia, a strip of maritime territory, extending between Ra-el-Jiboul and Ras-el-Siad, bound on the north-east by the Gulf of Oman, and on the south-west by the deserts of the interior. It is about 370 miles in length; its greatest breadth is 120 miles. At a distance of from 20 to 40 miles from the coast, a chain of mountains runs parallel to it, which reaches in its highest ridge, called *Gebel Achdar* ("Great Mountain"), an elevation of 6000 feet; the average height is 4000 feet. There are a few not inconsiderable streams, and some richly fertile tracts in this region, but the greater part is a waste of sand, with here and there a small oasis, where, however, the vegetation is most luxuriant. Groves of almond, fig, and walnut-trees, tower to an enormous height, overshadowing the orange and citron trees, but are themselves overtopped by the splendid date-palms. The most powerful state of O. is Muscat (q. v.).

OMAR, Abu-Hafsa-ibn-al-Khattab, the second calif of the Moslems, was born about 581. His early history is little known, but previous to his conversion he was an ardent persecutor of Mohammed and his followers. After his conversion he became as zealous an apostle as he had formerly been a persecutor, and rendered valuable aid to the prophet in all his warlike expeditions. After Mohammed's death, he caused Abu-bekr to be proclaimed calif, and was himself appointed *kuttab*, or prime-minister. Though of a fiery and enthusiastic temperament, he proved a sagacious adviser, and it was at his suggestion that the calif put down with an iron hand the many dissensions which had arisen among the Arabs after the prophet's decease, and resolved to strengthen and co-solidate their new-born national spirit, as well as propagate the doctrines of Islam, by engaging them in continual aggressive wars. On the death of Abu-bekr, O. succeeded as calif, and pushed on the wars of conquest with increased vigor. He was summoned to Jerusalem in 637, to receive the keys of that city, and before leaving gave orders to build a mosque, now called by his name, on the site of the temple of Solomon. O. now took the command of a portion of the army, and reduced the other chief cities of Palestine. He then planned an invasion of Persia, which

was commenced the same year, and by 642 the whole of what is now known as Persia was subdued. In the meantime the war in Syria was vigorously prosecuted, and the Byzantine armies, repeatedly defeated, at length gave up the contest. In 639, Amrū, one of his generals, had invaded Egypt with a considerable force; but such was the prestige of the Arabs, or the incapacity of the lieutenants of the Emperor Heraclius, that this valuable country, with its six millions of people, was reduced under the calif's authority without a single contest, and only two towns, Misr and Alexandria, were even attempted to be defended. (For the story which was till lately believed concerning the destruction of the Alexandrian Library, see ALEXANDRIAN LIBRARY.) Barca and Tripoli were next subdued by Amrū. On the north, Armenia was overrun in 641, and the calif's authority now reached from the Desert of Khura to the Syrtis, an enormous extension in ten years. In 644 O. was assassinated in the mosque of Medina by a Persian slave from motives of revenge. He languished five days after receiving the wound, but refused to appoint a successor, and named six commissioners who were to choose one for themselves. He was buried in the mosque of Medina, near the prophet and Abu-bekr, and his tomb is still visited by pilgrims.

O. may be called the founder of the Mohammedan power, as from a mere sect he raised it to the rank of a conquering nation, and left to his successor an empire which Alexander the Great might have envied. In him we find a rare combination of qualities, the ardent zeal of the apostle side by side with the cautious foresight and calm resolution of the monarch. His great military talents, and severity to "obstinate unbelievers," rendered him formidable to his enemies, and his inexorable justice rendered him no less obnoxious to the more powerful of his subjects, and gave rise to many attempts at his assassination. O. was the founder of many excellent institutions; he assigned a regular pay to his soldiers, established a night-police in towns, and made some excellent regulations for the more lenient treatment of slaves. He also originated the practice of dating from the era of the *Heijrah* (q. v.). He assumed the title of *Emir-al-mumenin* ("Commander of the Faithful") in preference to that of *Khalifah-rasouli-Iahi*, the ordinary designation; and to the present day his name is held in the greatest veneration by the orthodox or Suni sect of Moslems.

OMAR PASHA, a celebrated Turkish general, was born at Plaski, an Austrian village in the Croatian Military Frontier, in 1806 (according to some authorities, in 1811). His real name was Mikail Lattas, and his father being an officer in the Austrian army, Mikail was educated at the military school of Thurn, near Carlstadt, where he greatly distinguished himself. He afterwards joined one of the frontier regiments as a cadet, and was employed as secretary by the military inspector of roads and bridges; but having by some breach of discipline rendered himself amenable to punishment, he fled to Bosnia, where he became book-keeper to a Turkish merchant, and embraced Mohammedanism. He was next employed by Hussein Pasha, the governor of Widin, as tutor to his sons; and in 1834 was sent in charge of them to Constantinople, where his beautiful calligraphy gained for him the post of writing-master in the military school. Omar Effendi (as he was now called) was next appointed writing-master to Abdul-Medjid, the heir to the throne, and received the honorary rank of captain in the Turkish army, and the hand of a rich heiress. On his pupil's accession in 1844, O. was raised to the rank of colonel, and sent to Syria to aid in the suppression of disturbances which had broken out in that province, and in 1842 he was appointed military governor of the Lebanon district. The severity of his rule did not hinder the Muronites from desiring to have him as chief of the Mountain; but in the following year he was recalled, received the title of pasha, and was sent, along with Redschid Pasha, against the revolted Albanians. The skill and energy with which he suppressed this insurrection, as well as others in Bosnia and Kurdistan, raised him high in favor with the sultan. Towards the end of 1852 he opened the campaign against the Montenegrins, who were being rapidly subdued, when Austria interfered and compelled a treaty. On the invasion of the Principalities by the Russians (July 1853), O. collected at Schomla an army of 60,000 men to cover Constantinople; but being no less a politician than a soldier, he soon divined that the Russians would not immediately cross the Danube, and accordingly pushed on to Widin, where he crossed the river in presence of the enemy and intrenched himself at Katafata. Another part of the Turkish army

moved down the Danube to Turtukai, near Silistria, crossed the river at that place, and intrenched themselves at Olteneitz. On November 4, the latter division were attacked by 9000 Russians, whom they totally defeated with a loss of nearly 4000 men and almost all their officers. The Russians also received two severe checks at Kalafat, on January 6 and March 15, 1855. O. kept up the spirit of his troops by occasional successful skirmishes with the Russians, and threw a garrison of 8000 men into Silistria. In the following spring the Russians passed the Danube at two points, and laid siege to Silistria (q. v.), but their assaults were invariably repulsed with severe loss. The Russians then withdrew from the Principalities, and O. entered Bucharest in triumph in August 1854. On 9th February 1855, he embarked for Eupatoria, where, on the 17th of the same month, he was suddenly attacked by 40,000 Russians, who were repulsed with great loss. He was soon afterwards (October 8, 1855) sent to relieve Kars, but arrived too late, and the armistice which followed (February 29, 1856) put a stop to his military career. He was subsequently made governor of Bagdad; but having been accused of maladministration, was banished to Kauport in 1859. He was recalled in the following year, and in September 1861 was sent to pacify Bosnia and Herzegovina, which were again in insurrection. This being accomplished, he attacked the Montenegrine, captured their chief town of Cetinji, and overran the country in 1862. O. held the Grand-cross of the Legion of Honour, and was a Knight of the Russian Order of St Anne. He ceased to take part in public life in 1869, being thereafter regarded as a minister without portfolio; and died in 1871.

OMBA'Y, or Maloewa (Maluwa), an island between Celebes and the north-west coast of Australia, lies to the north of Timor, from which it is separated by the Strait of Ombay, lat.  $8^{\circ} 8' - 8^{\circ} 28' S.$ , long.  $124^{\circ} 17' - 125^{\circ} 7' E.$  Area, 961 square miles. The population amounts to about 193,800. The hills of O. are volcanic, and the coasts steep and difficult to approach. The inhabitants are dark brown, have thick lips, flat nose, and woolly hair; appearing to be of mixed Negro and Malay origin. They are armed with the bow, spear, and creese, and live on the produce of the chase, with fish, cocoa-nuts, rice, and honey. A portion of the island formerly belonged to the Portuguese, but since August 6, 1851, it is entirely a Netherlands possession. The Dutch postholder resides at the village of Alor, to which iron wares, cotton goods, &c., are brought from Timor, and exchanged for wax, edible nests, provisions, and other native products. O. has oxen, swine, goats, &c., and produces maize, cotton, and pepper. Amber is also found, and the Boeginies of Celebes import European and Indian fabrics, exchanging them for the produce of the island, which they carry to Singapore.

O'MEARA, Barry Edward, was born in Ireland in the year 1786. Otherwise without claim to be remembered, his name remains notable from his connection with the first Napoleon, whom he accompanied to St Helena as household physician. At the age of 18 he entered the British army as assistant-surgeon. In 1808, being stationed at Messina, he became concerned in a duel as a cond. under circumstances which must more or less have been held discreditable, as his dismissal from the service by sentence of court-martial was the result. Afterwards he succeeded in procuring an appointment as surgeon in the navy, and as such for some years is certified to have discharged his duties with zeal and efficiency. As it chanced, he was serving with Captain Maitland in the Bellerophon when the Emperor Napoleon (q. v.) surrendered himself to that officer. During the voyage from Rochefort to Plymouth he was introduced to Napoleon, on whom the impression he produced was favorable, leading to a proposal that he should accompany the emperor into exile as private physician, an arrangement to which he acceded, stipulating that he should retain his rank in the navy, and be permitted to return to it at pleasure. By Napoleon, with whom he remained in daily intercourse at St Helena for about three years, he seems to have been admitted to something more or less like intimacy; and occasionally it might well be, as he says, that the great captive would kill the creeping hours by loose talk with his attendant over the events of his strange life. Of these conversations O'M. naturally enough took notes, which he afterwards published. Meantime he became involved in the interest of Napoleon, in the series of miserable and petty squabbles which he waged with the governor, Sir Hudson Lowe (q. v.). The result of these, as regards O'M., was that in 1818, after a violent altercation with Sir Hudson, he was committed to close arrest, and was authorised by the emperor to

resign his post. On his return to England, he addressed a letter to the Admiralty, in which, among other things, he accused Sir Hudson Lowe of intentions against the life of his captive, and even of having, by dark hints to himself, instigated a desire for his services as secret assassin. For this he was instantly dismissed the service. The accusation was plainly monstrous and incredible. In 1822, after Napoleon's death, O'M. published "Napoleon in Exile," by which book a one he is now remembered. As conveying to the world the first authentic details of the prison-life of the great deceased, it made on its appearance an immense sensation, and—though for obvious reasons everywhere to be accepted, if at all, with caution—it is still not utterly without interest. The last years of O'M.'s life were passed in obscurity in the neighborhood of London, where, in 1836, he died.

**O'MELET**, or *Omelette*, French, a dish chiefly composed of eggs. These are broken, and their contents put into a proper vessel, in which they are whipped into a froth, which is poured into a very clean and dry frying-pan, with the addition of lard or butter to prevent sticking, and then fried carefully, so that the outside is nicely browned. Before frying, one of a number of ingredients may be added to vary the omelette, such as chopped savory herbs, minced ham or bacon, salt-fish, shell-fish, game, &c. Or sweet omelettes may be made by placing preserved fruits upon them when quite or nearly cooked. The omelette is an excellent dish, and, simple though it be, it requires much skill to prepare it successfully.

**O'MEN** (for the deriv., see *Om*), or *Prodigy* (generally said to be from *pro* and *dico*, but more probably from *pro* and *ago*, to lead; hence anything conspicuous, or extraordinary), the name given by the Romans to signs by which approaching good or bad fortune was supposed to be indicated. The terms *Omen* and *Prodigy* were not, however, exactly synonymous; the former being applied rather to signs received by the ear, and particularly to spoken words; the latter to phenomena and occurrences, such as monstrous births, the appearance of snakes, locusts, &c., the striking of the foot against a stone or the like, the breaking of a shoe tie, and even sneezing, &c. If an omen or prodigy was promised on the part of a god, it was to be interpreted according to the promise; but otherwise, the interpretation was extremely arbitrary. It was supposed that evil indicated as approaching might be averted by various means, as by sacrifices, or by the utterance of certain magic formulas; or by an extempore felicity of interpretation, as when Caesar, having fallen to the ground on landing in Africa, exclaimed: "I take possession of this, Africa." Occasionally, it is true, we read of a reckless disregard of omens; as, for example, when P. Claudius, in the First Punic War, caused the sacred chickens, who would not leave their cage, to be pitched into the sea, saying: "If they won't eat, they must drink." Still the belief in them was universal, and in general the greatest care was taken to avoid unfavorable omens. The heads of the sacrificial priests were covered, so that nothing distracting might catch their eyes; silence was enjoined at the commencement of every sacred undertaking, and at the opening of the *Ludi*. Before every sacrificial procession ran the heralds, calling on the people to "pay respect to it," and admonishing them to cease working until it should have passed, that the priests might not hear unfavorable sounds. At the beginning of a sacrifice, the bystanders were addressed in the words *Favete Linguis* ("Speak no word of evil import"), and the aid of music was sought to drown whatever voices might prove unpropitious. Compare *AUSPICES* and *AUSPICES*, and *DIVINATION*. See also Fallati, "Ueber Begriff und Wesen des Rom. Omen" (Tab. 1836).

The belief in omens has existed in all ages and countries, and traces of it linger even yet in the most civilised communities; in the dread, for instance, that many entertain at sitting down to table in a party of thirteen. Not a little of the philosophy of omens is contained in the Scottish proverb: "Them who follow freets, freets follow;" meaning, that a fatalistic belief in impending evil paralyses the endeavor that might prevent it.

**OME'NTUM.** See *PERITONEUM*.

**OMMI'ADES** (*Ommiades*, or *Ommeyades*), a dynasty (deriving its name from an ancestor, *Ommeyah*) which succeeded to the Arabian califate on the death of Ali, the fourth calif after Mohammed, and possessed it till superseded by the *Abbasides* (q.v.) in 750. Moawiyah, the founder of the dynasty, was the son of Abu-Sobah,

who defeated Mohammed at Beder, and his mother was the notorious Hind. After the death of Othman, the third calif, Moawiyah, who was his cousin, claimed the throne, and during the whole of Ali's reign, ruled over the western provinces of Syria and Egypt; but it was not till the death of that calif, and the abdication of his son Hassan in 681, that MOAWIYAH's authority was fully recognised. In that year he transferred the seat of the caliphate to Damascus; Knfa having been the residence of Ali, and Medina of the first three califs. The Arabs continued to extend their conquests during his reign; The Turks in Khorassan were subdued. Turkestan invaded, and several important acquisitions made in Asia Minor. But besides aggrandising his empire, the calif neglected no means of consolidating it, and partly for this reason he made the succession hereditary, and caused his son YEZID (680-683) to be recognised as his heir. The reigns of Yezid and his successors, MOAWIYAH II. (683) and MERWÂN I., formerly the traitorous secretary of the calif Othman (683-685), are devoid of importance, as their sway extended only over Syria and Palestine. ABDULMELEK (685-705), an able and warlike prince, after a long and varying struggle of eight years, succeeded in rendering himself undisputed ruler of the Mohammedan world (692), but the latter part of his reign was much disturbed by rebellions in the eastern provinces. He was the first calif who interested himself in the promotion of liberal knowledge, by causing the most celebrated poetical and other works of the Persians to be translated into Arabic; and under his reign coined money was first introduced. It was to this prince that his court-fool related the celebrated fabulous conversation between the owl of Bassora and that of Mosul. Four of his sons, WALID I. (705-716), SULIMAN (716-717), YEZID II. (720-729), and HESHAM (728-742), successively occupied the throne, and a fifth son, Mooslemah, was, from his great military abilities and zealous devotion to the interests of his brothers, the terror of all their enemies, both domestic and foreign. Under Walid, the Omnite caliphate reached the summit of its power and grandeur; Northern Africa (709) and Spain (712), Turkestan (707), and Galatia (710) were conquered; while towards the close of his reign, his empire was extended even to the Indus. The slender structure of the minaret was now for the first time introduced into mosque architecture. OMAR II. (71-720), who, in the justice and mildness of his government, surpassed the whole of the race of Ommeyah, was appointed to succeed Suliman; but his reign excited discontent among his relatives, by suppressing the formula of mal dicton, which had hitherto been regularly pronounced at all public ceremonies against Ali and his descendants, he was poisoned. During his reign, Mooslemah had completed the conquest of Asia Minor, and even compelled the Emperor Leo to submit to the humiliation of walking beside his horse through the principal streets of Constantinople itself, and paying a large ransom (equivalent to about £140,000) for his capital. Hesham, though like his immediate predecessor, fond of pleasure, possessed all the qualities necessary for a sovereign. The Greeks, who still strove for the possession of Asia Minor, were repeatedly defeated; the fierce Turks of Northern Persia and Turkestan, were kept in stern subjection; and the civil affairs of the empire carefully and strictly administered. The death of Mooslemah, the champion of the Omnite dynasty, seems to have been the signal for insurrection; the descendants of Ali raised the standard of revolt, and no sooner were they subdued than Ibrahim, the fourth in direct descent from Abbas the uncle of Mohammed, solemnly invested the celebrated Abu-Mooslem (stated to be a descendant of Koderz, one of the most distinguished heroes of Firdusi's admired work the "Shah-nameh") with the arduous duty of enforcing his long-agitated claims to the throne. During this reign the progress of Arab conquest in Western Europe was checked by Charles Martel, who inflicted upon the Arabs a severe defeat at Tours (732), and almost annihilated their army at Narbonne (736). The reigns of WALID II. (742-743), YEZID III. (743-744), and IBRAHIM (744), though of ephemeral duration, were long enough to produce a complete disorganisation of the empire; and though MERWÂN II. (744-750), the next and last calif of the house of Ommeyah, was both an able and politic ruler, and a skilful warrior, the declining fortune of his family was beyond remedy. Abu-Mooslem, who had published the claims of the Abbasides amidst the ruins of Meru in 747, took the field at the head of a small but zealous band, and carried the black flag of the Abbasides from victory to victory, till before the close of the following year the whole of Khorassan acknowledged his authority. Iraq was subdued in 749;

and though Ibrahim the Abbaside claimant was seized by Merwan, and executed in the same year, his brother Abul-Abbas succeeded to his claims, and the unfortunate calif, defeated in two engagements, fled to Egypt (750), whither he was pursued and slain. Abdallah, the uncle of the successful claimant, treacherously invited the remaining members of the house of Ommeyah to a conference, and ordered a general massacre of them. Two only escaped: the one to the south-east of Arabia, where he was recognised as calif, and his descendants reigned till the 16th century; the other, Abderrahman, to Spain, where he founded the califate of Cordova.

**OMMIADES OF SPAIN.**—**ABDERRAHMAN I.** (755—787), on accepting the Spanish throne which was offered him by the Arab chiefs, assumed the titles of *Calif* and *Emir-al-mumenin*, and in spite of numerous revolts, strengthened and extended his power in Spain, till, with the exception of Asturias and the country north of the Ebro, his authority was everywhere acknowledged. His defeat of Charlemagne at Roncesvalles (q. v.) is too widely known to require further notice. He divided his kingdom into six provinces, whose rulers, with the *caesis* of the twelve principal towns, formed a sort of national diet. His successors, **HESHAM I.** (787—808) and **AL-HAKEM I.** (793—821), were much troubled with internal revolts, under cover of which the Christians in the north-east established the state known as the "Spanish March." **ABDERRAHMAN II.** (821—852) re-established internal quiet, and occupied his subjects with incessant wars against the Christians. These conflicts developed among the Arabs that chivalrous heroism which is found nowhere else in the Mohammedan world. Abderrahman, himself a man of learning, greatly encouraged the arts and sciences, and diffused information among his people; he also attempted, by regulating the laws of succession to property, to constitute his kingdom on a basis analogous to that of other European nations. During his reign Mohammedan Spain was the best governed country in Europe. His successors, **MOHAMMED I.** (852—880), **MONDHAR** (880—882), and **ABDALLAH** (882—912), followed in his footsteps. **ABDERRAHMAN III.** (912—961), after suppressing some dangerous revolts which had gathered head during his minority, conquered the kingdom of Fez from the Idrisites, and brought a long and exhausting war with the powers of Asturias and Leon to a victorious conclusion. This period is justly termed the golden age of the Arab domination in Spain, for at no period was their power so consolidated and their prosperity so flourishing. Abderrahman, like his predecessors, was a great encourager of learning, and a poet of no mean ability. He founded schools which far surpassed those in other parts of Europe. His son, **AL-HAKEM II.** (961—976), was in every way worthy to be his successor, but his premature death was the cause of the downfall of the Ommiades in Spain. **HESHAM II.** (976—about 1018), a child of eight years, now occupied the throne; but fortunately his mother, Sobehat, possessed the abilities necessary for such an emergency, and appointed as her son's vizier Mohammed ben Abdallah, surnamed Al-Mansor, who had originally been a peasant. This remarkable man gained the affections of all ranks by his pleasing manners and great abilities; his administration was equally just and judicious, and his encouragement of literature, science, and art alike liberal and discriminating. But it is as a warrior that he is chiefly remembered; he had avowed eternal enmity to the Christians, and in all his numerous expeditions fortune seemed chained to his standard. The lost provinces were recovered; Castile, Leon, and Barcelona were conquered; and Navarre was on the point of sharing the same fate, when a rebellion in Fez compelled him to detach a portion of his force for service in Africa, and the combined armies of the four Christian monarchies, seizing this opportunity, inflicted upon the Arabs a sanguinary defeat in 1001. Mohammed's spirit was completely broken by this blow, and he died a few days afterwards. With him the star of the house of Ommeyah set for ever. The rest of Hesham's reign was a scene of disorder and civil war. Pretenders to the califate arose, while the "walla" of the various provinces set up as independent rulers, and the invasions of the Christians added to the confusion. Hesham finally resigned the throne about 1018; and, with the exception of the brief reign of **HESHAM III.** (1027—1081), from this time the family of Ommeyah, which had for more than two centuries so happily and brilliantly governed the greater part of Spain, disappears from history. One remarkable feature of their rule deserves mention, as it contrasts them so favorably with the contemporary and subsequent rulers

of Spain, even to the present time, and that is their universal toleration in religious matters.

O'MNIBUS (*Lat. omnibus*, "for all"), familiarly contracted into "bus," is the largest kind of public street conveyance, and is appointed to travel between two fixed stations, starting at certain fixed hours, and taking up or setting down passengers at any point in its route. Vehicles of this sort were first started in Paris in 1662, when it was decreed, by a royal edict of Louis XIV., that a line of *carrosses à cinq sous* ("twopence-halfpenny omnibuses"), each containing eight places, should be established for the benefit of the infirm, or those who, requiring speedy conveyance from one part of the town to another, were unable to afford a hired carriage for themselves; these "carrosses" were bound to run at fixed hours from one station to another, whether full or empty. The public inauguration of the new conveyances took place March 18, 1662, and was the occasion of a grand *tête*; and the novelty took so well with the Parisians, that the omnibuses were for some time monopolised by the wealthier classes. However, when the rage for them died away, it was found that those for whose special benefit they were instituted made no use of them, and they, in consequence, gradually disappeared. The omnibus was not revived in Paris till 1827, when it was started in its present form, carrying from 15 to 18 passengers inside, with only the driver above and the conductor behind; and on July 4, 1829, they were introduced into London by a Mr Shillibeer. Shillibeer's conveyances, which for some time afterwards were known as *shillibeers* (an epithet still in common use in New York), were of larger size than the French ones, carrying 22 passengers inside, and were drawn by three horses abreast. The omnibus was introduced into Amsterdam in 1889, and since that time its use has been extended to all large cities and towns in the civilised world. The seats of the omnibus are generally placed lengthwise, and the door behind. The omnibus is managed by a driver and a conductor. In New York, omnibuses are drawn on street-railways; and this practice is now being extensively employed in the chief towns of Great Britain, where the omnibuses are called tramway cars, and the railway a tramway.

O'MNIUM, a term used at the Stock Exchange to express the aggregate value of the different stocks in which a loan is funded. See McCulloch's "Dictionary of Commerce."

OMSK, a town of the Russian province of Central Asia, in the government of Akmolinsk, stands at the confluence of the Om—a river upwards of 200 miles in length—with the Irtish; 2225 miles from St Petersburg. Lat.  $54^{\circ} 59' \text{ N.}$ , long.  $13^{\circ} 30' \text{ E.}$  It was built in 1716, as a defence against the Khirghiz; but is now of no importance as a fortress. It was till a recent date the centre of government for Western Siberia, the centre of the administration of the Siberian Khirghiz, the seat of the courts of justice, and of the Siberian corps of cadets. It contains manufactures and mining works. Hitherto its commerce has been limited to a trade with the Khirghiz, who drive up their cattle to this place; but its advantageous position on the great post-road and commercial line of traffic from Europe across the whole of Siberia to the Chinese frontier, makes it probable that it will some day become an intermediate station for extensive commercial exchanges. Pop. (1867) 26,722.

OMUL (*Salmo migratorius*), a fish of the salmon and trout tribe, abounding in Lake Baikal and other waters of the east of Siberia, from which great quantities are sent salted to all the western parts of that country. In size it is rarely more than 15 or 16 inches long. Its flesh is very white and tender. It ascends rivers in shoals for the purpose of spawning.

O'NAGER. See ASS.

ONAGER. See BALISTA.

ONAGRA'CEÆ, Onagrârke, or Oenotherâcœ, a natural order of exogenous plants, consisting chiefly of herbaceous plants, but including also a few shrubs; with simple leaves; axillary or terminal flowers; the calyx superior, tubular, sometimes colored, its limb usually 4-lobed; the petals inserted into the throat of the calyx, generally equal in number to its segments; the stamens generally four or eight, rarely one or two, inserted along with the petals; the ovary generally 4-celled, sometimes 2-celled; the style threadlike, the fruit a capsule or a berry. There are about

450 known species, natives chiefly of temperate climates, among which are some much cultivated for the beauty of their flowers, particularly those of the genera *Puchia*, *Oenothera* (Evening Primrose), *Clarkia*, and *Gudetia*. The British genera are *Epilegium* (Willow herb) and *Ciræza* (Enchanter's Nightshade). A few species produce edible berries, and the roots of one or two are eatable; but none are of economical importance. The root of *Isnarda alternifolia*, found in the marshes of Carolina, and called *Bowman's Root*, is emetic. Some species of *Jussiaea* are used in dyeing in Brazil.

ONCOCARPUS, a genus of trees of the natural order *Anacardiaceæ*. One of the most remarkable trees of the Fiji Islands is *O. atra*, or *O. vitensis*, a tree about sixty feet high, with large oblong leaves and a corky fruit, somewhat resembling the seed of a walnut; the sap of which, if it comes into contact with the skin, produces a pain like that caused by red-hot iron. The wood is often called Itch-wood, because of the effect produced on persons who ignorantly or inadvertently bark it whilst the sap is fresh, even the exhalations causing an intolerable itching and innumerable pustules, with excessive irritation for several days, whilst the effects continue to be unpleasantly felt even for months.

ONEGA, a small town and seaport in the north of Russia, in the government of Archangel, and 90 miles south-west of the city of that name. It stands at the mouth of a river, and on the shore of a gulf of the same name; the latter a branch of the White Sea. Lat.  $63^{\circ} 54'$  n., long.  $38^{\circ} 7'$  e. Pop. (1861) 2209, employed in connection with the saw-mills of the "Onega Trading Wood Company." In these mills, where numerous men are at work, an English steam-engine has been erected. About 50 ships leave the port annually for England, with cargoes of deals and timber to the value of £87,000.

ONEGA, Lake, an extensive lake in the north of Russia, government of Olenetz, and, after Ladoga, the largest lake in Europe, is 59 miles in greatest breadth, and about 151 miles in length. Area, 3720 square miles. It is fed by numerous rivers, and receives through the river Villo the waters of the lake of that name. Its only outlet is the river Swir, which flows south-west into Lake Ladoga. By means of the Mariinsk system of communication, Lake O. communicates with the Volga, and thence with the Caspian Sea on the south, and with the Dwina, and thence with the White Sea on the north. The clear and beautiful waters of this lake are rich in fish, and embrace many islands. The depth ranges from 550 to 700 feet. The navigation of the lake is dangerous, and commerce is chiefly confined to the Onega Canal, which extends from the town of Vytegra on the river of that name to the river Swir.

ONEGLIA, a town of North Italy, in the province of Porto Maurizio, on the Gulf of Genoa, 40 miles east-north-east from Nice at the mouth of the Impero, a small river which rushes down from the Apennines. The harbor is not good. The principal article of export is oil. Andrea Doria, the great Genoese admiral, was born here. Pop. about 8000.

ONEROUS CAUSE, in Scotch Law, means a pecuniary or valuable consideration.

ONION (Fr. *oignon*, from Lat. *unio*, a pearl, but found in Columella, signifying a kind of onion), the name given to a few species of the genus *Allium* (q. v.), and particularly to *A. cepa* (Lat. *cepa*). A biennial bulbous-rooted plant, with a swelling stem, leafy at the base, tapering fistular leaves, a reflexed spathe, a large globose umbel, usually not bulbiferous, the lobes of the perianth obtuse and hooded, not half as long as the stamens. The bulb is simple—not composed of cloves, like that of garlic; and in the common variety is solitary, shewing little tendency to produce lateral bulbs. The native country of the O. is not certainly known, some supposing it to be India and some Egypt, in both of which it has been cultivated from the most remote antiquity. The part chiefly used is the bulb, but the young leaves are also used, and young seedlings drawn from onion beds are a very common ingredient in soups and sauces in the beginning of summer. These are known in Scotland as *cibes* (evidently another form of the word *Cibol*). In warmer climates, the O. produces a larger bulb, and generally of more delicate flavor, than in Britain; and is more extensively used as an article of food, being with us, whether fresh or pickled, gener-

ally rather a condiment. In Spain and Portugal, a raw O. is often eaten like an apple, and often with a piece of bread forms the dinner of a working-man. The O. is, however, very nutritious. It contains a large quantity of nitrogenous matter, and of uncrystallisable sugar; with an acrid volatile sulphurous oil, resembling oil of garlic. The oil of the O. is dissipated by boiling, so that boiled onions are much milder than raw onions. In Britain, onions are sown either in spring or in August. Great fields of them, as of other favorite vegetables, are cultivated for the London market; and large quantities of onions are also imported from more southern regions. The Bermudas are celebrated for their onions. The O. loves a rich light soil and a dry subsoil. The transplanting of onions is often practised, especially of onions sown in autumn, which are transplanted in spring, and when these are placed so that the small bulbs are on the surface of the ground, and surrounded with decayed manure, very large bulbs are obtained. The frequent stirring of the soil is of great advantage. The bulbs are taken up when the leaves decay, and after being dried in the open air or in a loft, may be kept for a considerable time.—The POTATO O., also called the EGYPTIAN or GROUND O., is a perennial variety which produces offset bulbs at the root, like the shallot; but the bulbs are much larger than those of the shallot, and have less of the flavor of garlic, although stronger than those of the common onion. It is sometimes said to have been introduced into Britain from Egypt by the British army in 1805, but erroneously, as it was cultivated in some parts of Britain long before. It is in very general cultivation among the peasantry in some parts of Scotland.—The PEARL O. is a similar variety, with much smaller bulbs.—The TREE O. is also generally regarded as a variety of the common onion. It produces bulbs at the top of the stem, the umbels becoming viviparous.—Onions are similar to Garlic (q. v.) in medicinal properties, but milder. As a condiment or article of food, they agree well with some stomachs and stimulate digestion, but are intolerable to others. Roasted onions with oil make a useful emollient and stimulating poultice for suppurating tumors. The use of onions stimulates the secreting organs.—The CINOL or WELSH O. (*A. fistulosum*), a native of Siberia, cultivated in Britain, but more generally in Germany, has a perennial fibrous root, with no bulb, very fistular leaves, and a 3-cornered ovary. It is useful as supplying tender green leaves for culinary use in the beginning of spring, like the chive, and somewhat earlier in the season. It is much larger than the chive, but its use is similar.

#### ONISCUS. See Woodlouse.

ONKELOS, the supposed author of an Aramaic version (Targum) of the Pentateuch. The name seems a corruption from that of Akilas, one of the Greek translators of the Old Testament (see VERSIONS). The translation, said to be by O., is, in its present shape at least, probably the work of the Babylonian schools of the 3d and 4th centuries A.D. At first orally transmitted, various portions of it began to be collected and written down in the 2d c., and were finally redacted about the time mentioned. The history of the origin and growth of Aramaic versions in general will be treated under Targum (VERSIONS). The idiom of O. closely resembles that of Ezra and Daniel. The translation itself is executed in accordance with a sober and clear, though not a slavish exegesis, and keeps closely to its text in most instances. In some cases, however, where the meaning is not clear, it expands into a brief explanation or paraphrase, uniting the latter sometimes with Haggadistic by-work, chosen with tact and taste, so as to please the people and not to offend the dignity of the subject. Not infrequently it differs entirely from the original, as far, e.g., as anthropomorphisms and anthropopathies—anything, in fact, which might seem derogatory to the Deity—are concerned. Further may be noticed a repugnance to bring the Divine Being into too close contact, as it were, with man, by the interposition of a kind of spiritual barrier (the "Word," "Shechinah," "Glory") when a conversation, or the like, is reported between God and man. Its use lies partly in a linguistic, partly in a theological direction; but little has been done for its study as yet. No notwithstanding the numerous MSS. of it extant in almost all the larger libraries of Europe, and in spite of the grossly incorrect state of our current printed editions, no critical edition has ever been attempted.

#### ONOBRYCHIS. See SAINTPOIN.

ONOMACRITUS, a celebrated religious poet of ancient Greece, lived at Athens

in the time of the Peisistratidae. He collected and expounded—according to Herodotus—the prophecies or oracles of Musaeus (q. v.), but is said to have been banished from the city by Hipparchus, about 516 B.C., on account of interpolating something of his own in these oracles. He then, we are told, followed the Peisistratidae into Persia, and while there was employed by them in a very dishonorable way. They got him to repeat to Xerxes all the ancient sayings that seemed to favor his meditated invasion of Greece. Some critics, among whom is Aristotle, have inferred from a passage in Pausanias that O. is the author of most of the so-called Orphic hymns. More certain, however, is the view which represents him as the inventor of the great Orphic myth of Dionysus Zagreus, and the founder of Orphic religious societies and theology. Pausanias states that “Onomacritus established orgies in honor of Dionysus, and in his poems represented the Titans as the authors of the sufferings of Dionysus.” See Müller’s “Geschichte der Griech. Literatur bis auf das Z. Altert Alexander’s” (Breslau, 1841); Grote’s “History of Greece,” &c.

**ONOMATOPŒIA.** the Latin form of the Greek word *onomatopœia* means literally the making or invention of names, and is used in philology to denote the formation of words in imitation of natural sounds, as in *cuckoo*, Lat. *cucu* (lus); *pee-wit*, Scan. *pee-weip*, Dutch, *kiewit*; *cock*; *clash*, *rap*, *tap*, *quack*, *rumble*, *whizz*, *clang*. Such words are sometimes called *onomatopœias*; more properly they are *onomatopœian*, or formed by *onomatopœia*.

In a more extended sense, the term is applied to the rhetorical artifice by which writers (chiefly poets) seek through the choice and arrangement of words to make the “sound” throughout whole phrases and sentences, “an echo to the sense,” as in Homer’s well-known *poluphoiseboi thalasses*, expressive of the breaking of waves upon the seashore; or where Tennyson makes the sea

Roar rock-thwarted under bellowing caves.

The occurrence of so many obviously onomatopœian words in all known languages, suggests the question, whether the same principle may not have been concerned in producing the original germs or roots of the great bulk of words. There is little hope that the question will ever be conclusively settled either way; for the changes of time have made it, in most cases at least, impossible to say what the first form and signification of a root were; but the balance of arguments seems in favor of the affirmative answer. “The action of the mind,” as it has been expressed, “produced language by a spontaneous repercussion of the impressions received.” Now, the articulate sound first affixed in this way to an object or an action as its sign cannot be conceived as arbitrary; nor is there any mysterious and inherent correspondence between any one conception of the mind, and a particular articulate sound. The sound uttered must have been suggested by something connected with the object or action itself; and by what more naturally than by the inarticulate sound which the object or action itself emits?

The chief objection to this theory is, that if the first words were merely reproductions of natural sounds, the same natural objects would have had the same names all the world over. To which it is answered, that the mind in its first efforts at naming did not seek an exact reproduction of the sound, but a suggestive imitation; primitive words were not echoes, but “artistic representations.” Now, the sounds of nature are not simple, but composite. Like other concrete phenomena, they present a variety of aspects; and according as one or another aspect seemed the most prominent to the observer, a different vocal sound would suggest itself as the appropriate symbol. Thus, when Professor Max Müller argues (“Science of Language,” Lond. 1881) that if the “bow-wow” theory, as he nicknames it, were true, men would have everywhere spoken of a *moo*, as is done in the nursery, and not of a *cow*; it seems a valid answer to say, that the Indian *gu*, the Teut. *krih* (Eng. *cow*), and the Greco-Lat. *bou-*, are really as suggestive imitations of the animal’s actual voice as *moo*. To take a more striking instance: few words differ more in sound and aspect than the Eng. *thunder* (Ger. *donner*, Lat. *tonitru*, Fr. *tonnère*) does from the Mexican name for the same thing, *tlatlatnitzel*, and yet it would be difficult to say which is the more suggestive of the natural sound.

It is no doubt true that the great bulk of names are derived from roots having a general predicative power; but this by no means excludes the principle of onomatopœia. Thus, to take one of the instances adduced by Professor Müller himself, that

of *raven* or *crow* (Sansk. *kárara*, Lat. *corvus*, Gr. *korónē*) ; this is derived from the root *ru* or *kru*, which means to cry or call, and the bird was called a *kárava*, or crow, not in imitation of his voice, but because he was "a shouter, a caller, a crier. The name might have been applied to many birds, but it became the traditional and recognised name of the crow." But how came the articulation *ru* or *kru* to be chosen to convey the general meaning of crying or calling; may we not suppose that it was suggested by the voice of birds of the crow kind, whose notes are most markedly cries or calls to their fellows, as distinguished from singing? Once adopted in this particular case, it would naturally be extended to any kind of cry or call, from the harshest to the softest.

ONTA'RIO, the easternmost and smallest of the five great lakes of North America, lies in  $43^{\circ} 10'$ — $44^{\circ} 8'$  n. lat., and  $76^{\circ} 30'$ — $80^{\circ}$  w. long. At its south-west corner it receives the waters of the upper lakes by the Niagara, and at its north-east corner it issues into the St Lawrence; which for some distance below is called the Lake of the Thousand Isles. Its surface, which varies a few feet with the seasons, is about 330 feet below that of Lake Erie and 234 feet above tide-water. Its bottom, therefore, must be considerably lower than the level of the Atlantic, as it is in some places 600 feet deep. It is 190 miles long, 55 in its widest part, and about 480 in circumference. Sufficiently deep throughout for vessels of the largest tonnage, it has many convenient and thriving ports, of which the chief are Kingston, Port Hope, Cobourg, Toronto, Hamilton, on the Canadian shore, and Oswego, Sackett's Harbor, Port Genesee in the United States. Its navigation has been facilitated by the erection of 15 light-houses on the American side, and 18 on the Canadian; while it is connected with Lake Erie by the Welland Canal, with the Erie Canal and New York by the Oswego Canal, and by the Rideau Canal with the Ottawa. Lake O. is subject to violent storms, and it is probably owing chiefly to the constant agitation of its waters that it freezes only for a few miles from the shore. The shores of Lake O. are generally very flat, but the Bay of Quinte, a long crooked arm of the lake, which stretches about 50 m., possesses some attractive scenery. Burlington Bay, on which Hamilton lies, is a large basin, almost inclosed by a natural, but strangely accumulated bank of sand, which forms a beautiful drive.

ONTA'RIO, the province. See CANADA.

ONTENIE'NTÉ, a town of Spain, in the province of Valencia, 45 miles south-west from Valencia, on the right bank of the Currano, and near the railway which connects Valencia with Madrid. Linen and woollen fabrics are manufactured here; there are also numerous oil-mills. Pop., 9508.

ONTOLOGY. See METAPHTSICS.

O'NUS PROBA'NDI, i.e., the burden of proof, is often a difficult question in litigation; but as a general rule, the plaintiff who institutes the suit is bound to give proof of the allegations on which he relies. There are many nice and technical rules on the subject, both in suits and actions, which are too minute to be here stated.

O'NYX, an agate formed of alternating white and black, or white and dark-brown stripes of chalcedony. More rarely, a third color of stripes occurs. The finest specimens are brought from India. O. is in much esteem for ornamental purposes. The ancients valued it very highly, and used it much for cameos. Many of the finest cameos in existence are of onyx. The name O., however, appears to have been applied by the ancients more extensively than it now is, and even to striped calcareous alabaster, such as is now called Onyx Marble. The *Sardonyx* of the ancients is a variety of O., in which white stripes alternate with stripes of a dark-red variety of carnelian, called *sard* or *sarda*. It is one of the rarest and most beautiful kinds of O., and is more valued than carnelian.

ONYX MARBLE, a very beautiful material, which first came into general notice in this country in 1862, when the French made a large display of it in the International Exhibition. It is a stalagmitic formation, which was discovered by the French in making roads in the province of Oran in Algiers. It is a translucent limestone, containing traces of magnesia and carbonate of iron; its specific gravity is 2.730. The quarries are worked by a company, and the artistic workmen of

France are turning it to good account, in the manufacture of very beautiful ornamental works.

OOJEIN'. See UJEIN.

O'OLITE (Gr. egg-stone), a variety of limestone, often very pure calcareous spar, distinguished by its peculiar structure, being composed of grains connected together by a calcareous cement; the whole much resembling the roe of a fish. The grains are not unfrequently hollow. Many oolites, as in the south of England, are excellent building-stones. There is no important mineralogical difference between O. and *Pisolite*, or Pea-stone. O., as a geological term, is extended far beyond its mineralogical and original signification.

OOLITE or Jurassic Group (in Geology), an extensive and important series of strata of Secondary age, underlying the Chalk formation, and resting on the Trias. In Britain they received the name Oolite, because in the district where they were first examined and described by Dr W. Smith, the limestones contained in them had an oolitic structure (see foregoing article). The name Jurassic has been given to them on the continent, because the range of the Jura Mountains in the north-west of Switzerland is almost entirely composed of them. The strata of the group have been arranged in the following order. The maximum thickness of each division is given in feet:

UPPER OOLITE.

|                         | Ft.       |
|-------------------------|-----------|
| 1. Purbeck Beds.....    | 200       |
| 2. Portland Beds.....   | 170       |
| 3. Kimmeridge Clay..... | 600       |
|                         | <hr/> 970 |

MIDDLE OOLITE.

|                     |           |
|---------------------|-----------|
| 4. Coral Rag.....   | 190       |
| 5. Oxford Clay..... | 600       |
|                     | <hr/> 790 |

LOWER OOLITE.

|   |           |
|---|-----------|
| 6. Cornbrash and Forest Marble.....       | 80        |
| 7. Great Oolite and Stonefield Shale..... | 150       |
| 8. Fuller's Earth.....                    | 150       |
| 9. Inferior Oolite.....                   | 250       |
|   | <hr/> 630 |

LIAS.

|                     |            |
|---------------------|------------|
| 10. Upper Lias..... | 300        |
| 11. Marlstone.....  | 200        |
| 12. Lower Lias..... | 600        |
|                     | <hr/> 1100 |

Total..... 3490

It is apparent from this table that the Oolitic rocks consist of three extensive clay deposits, each of which forms the basis of a smaller and variable set of sands and limestones; the Upper Oolites resting on the Kimmeridge Clay, the Coral Rag on the Oxford Clay, and the Lower Oolite on the Lias.

1. The Purbeck beds, unlike the other oolitic rocks, are chiefly freshwater deposits. Though lithologically they are very similar throughout, the peculiarities of the contained fossils have caused them to be grouped into three series—the Upper, Middle, and Lower. The Upper Purbecks are purely freshwater, containing beds of limestone and shale, which abound in shells of lake and river mollusca and cyprides. The stone called Purbeck Marble, formerly so extensively used in the ornamental architecture of English churches and other buildings, belongs to this division; it consists of the shells of *Paludina*, held together by a somewhat argillaceous paste. The Middle Purbecks are partly freshwater, and partly brackish or marine. The "cinder-bed," composed of a vast accumulation of shells of *Ostrea distorta*, occurs in this section, and near it is the narrow layer from which Mr

Beck's recently obtained the remains of several mammalia. The Lower Purbecks are chi fly freshwater, with some intercalated brackish or marine beds, and one or two old vegetable soils called by the quarrymen "dirt-beds," which contain the stems of Cycadaceous and Coniferous plants. 2. The Portland beds consist of oolitic and other limestones interstratified with clays, and passing below into sandstone and sandstones, from which the well-known building-stone is obtained, of which St Paul's and many of the principal buildings in London are built. 3. The Kimmeridge Clay is generally a dark-gray bituminous shale, with intercalated beds of sand, calcareous grit, and layers of septaria. The dark shale in some places passes into an impure brown shaly coal. 4. The Coral Rag contains, as its name implies, an abundance of corals, in bluish limestone beds mixed with layers of calcareous grit. The Solenhofen lithographic stone, with its beautifully preserved and varied fossil remains, belongs to this division. 5. The Oxford Clay is a dark-blue or blackish clay without corals, but having a large number of beautifully preserved Ammonites and Belemnites. Beds of calcareous sandstone, called Kelloway Rock, occur in its lower portion. 6. The Cornbrash consists of thin beds of cream-colored limestone, with sandstones and clay, and the Forest Marble (so named from Wychwood Forest) is composed of an argillaceous limestone, with numerous marine fossils, blue marls and shales, and yellow siliceous sand. At Bradford, Wiltshire, the Forest Marble is replaced by a considerable thickness of blue unctuous clay. 7. The great Oolite is composed of shelly limestones, sandstones, and shelly calcareous sandstones, and the Stonesfield Slate is a slightly oolitic shelly limestone, which splits into very thin slabs, erroneously called "slates;" it is remarkable for the remains of terrestrial reptiles and mammals found in it. The Bath Oolite, a celebrated building-stone, belongs to this division. 8. The Fuller's Earth group is a local deposit found near Bath; it consists of a series of blue and yellow shales and marls, some of which have properties fitting them for the use of the fuller. 9. The Inferior Oolite is composed of a series of beds of pisolithic and shelly limestones, brown marl, and brown sandy limestone, all abounding in fossils. 10. The Lias (q. v.) is a great clay deposit. It is divided into the Upper and Lower Lias, which consist of thin beds of limestone scattered through a great thickness of blue clay, and separating these two groups, the Marlstone, or calcareous or ferruginous sandstone. The lias abounds in beautifully preserved fossils.

The oolite occupies, in England, a zone nearly thirty miles in breadth, extending across the country from York-hire to Dorsetshire. In Scotland, patches of lias and Oxford clay occur in the islands of Mull and Skye, and on the western shores of the mainland, and beds belonging to the lower oolite are found at Brora, on the east coast of Sutherland, which contain an impure coal. The only oolite rocks in Ireland are a few isolated patches in Antrim, which abound with the fossils of the lower lias. On the continent, rocks of this age occur in Germany and France, but they have been most extensively studied in the Jura Mountains, which, though having a height of 6000 feet, are entirely composed of oolite and cretaceous rocks. The strata are greatly bent and contorted, and as they approach the Swiss Alps, the great mass of which is also formed of oolite, they become completely metamorphosed into clay slates, mica schists, gneiss, and crystalline limestones. Beds of oolite have been noticed in Cutch, in India. In Australia similar beds occur on the western coast, and probably some of the coal-beds of New South Wales, Victoria, and Tasmania belong to the oolite. In both North and South America, fossils, apparently of oolitic age, have been found; but these deposits require to be more exactly examined.

The oolite is remarkable for the abundance of its fossils, and is in this respect in striking contrast to the immediately preceding Triassic and Permian periods. The several freshwater deposits, and the ancient vegetal surfaces, contain the remains of a considerable number of plants. Ferns still abound, and with them are associated species that are evidently related to the living genera *Cupressus*, *Araucaria* and *Zania*.

Corals abound in several of the beds. The brachiopods are the only division of the mollusca that is not largely represented. The conchifera and gasteropods shew a great number and variety of new genera, which are nearer the forms of the present day than those that preceded them. But the remarkable feature of molluscan life is the enormous development of the cephalopods. Whole beds are almost entirely made up of their shells. No less than 600 species of ammonites have been described, chiefly from the rocks of this period, and the belemnites were also very

numerous. The crinoids have become scarce, but are replaced by star-fishes and sea-urchins. The freshwater beds contain the remains of many insect forms. The heterocercal-tailed fish give way to the more modern homocercals, and the true sharks and rays make their appearance, though the old cestrations are still represented by some survivors. The characteristic feature of the oolitic period was its reptiles. The land, the sea, and the air had each their fitting inhabitants of this class. The various species of pterodactyles, some not larger than the bat, others surpassing, in the stretch of their membranous "wing," the size of the largest living bird, were the terrors of the air; while their allies, the monster ichthyosaurs and plesiosaurs, held the mastery of the waters; and the huge megalosaurs, some not less than 30 feet in length, trod the earth. The few mammalian remains hitherto found, have a special interest from their antiquity, being the first evidence of this high order of animals on the globe. They belong, apparently, to marsupial animals; one species is, however, supposed by Owen to have been a hooved and herbivorous placental mammal.

OMRAWU'TTI, or Amrawati, an important commercial town of British India, in the province of Berar, 86 miles west-by-south from Nagpore, on one of the headwaters of the Purna, a branch of the Tapti. The district which contains it was ceded by the Nizam to the British government; and transit-dues, which formerly much interfered with the commerce of the town, have been abolished. Several considerable business firms are established here; and the chief merchants of Upper India and of Bombay have agents, who often make advances to the cotton cultivators of the surrounding country, on security of their crop. There are large cotton warehouses at Oonrawutti. Pop. 23,410.

OONALA'SKA. See UNALASHKA.

OORA'LSK. See URALSK.

OO'RFA. See URFA.

OO'RGA. See URGA.

OO'RI or Limpopo River, an important river system of South-Eastern Africa, rising in lat.  $23^{\circ}$  S. in the high plateau called the Magaliesberg, which bounds the basin of the Orange River to the north, and with its different branches, the Marica, Ngatane, Lipulula, &c., draining the regions now known as the Transvaal Republic. Flowing first to the north, the O. gradually turns to the east, and is supposed to reach the Indian Ocean at Inhambane, in lat.  $24^{\circ}$ , after a course of 950 miles, and draining a basin of not less than 250,000 square miles, yet, like other South African rivers, it is not navigable, and the very position of its embouchure is not yet very satisfactorily ascertained. The basin of this river occupies the depression which exists between the watershed of the Orange River on the south, and the south tributaries of the Zambezi on the north.

OOROME'YAH, town and lake. See UBUMEYAH.

OO'STERHOUT, a flourishing town in the Netherlands, province of North Brabant, six miles north-north-east from Breda, is situated in a well-wooded, fertile district of country. Pop. (1871) 8755, of whom 8425 belonged to the Roman Catholic Church. Much business is done in the grain and cattle markets. There are 14 tanyard-, several flourishing beer-brewing establishments, 5 potteries, and 4 brick-works. O. has a grammar-school, and a nursery, the inmates of which employ themselves in teaching the children of the poor. The handsome town-house and great Roman Catholic Church stand on the market-place, which is shaded with linden-trees.

Near O. is an extensive wood, where are the ruins of the house of Stryen or Oosterhout, formerly the residence of the Counts of Stryen, under whose jurisdiction were not only the town and barony of Breda, but also the marquisate of Bergen-op-Zoom.

OOTACAMU'ND, the chief town in the Nilgherry Hills, and the great sanatorium of Southern India. These hills are situated between  $11^{\circ}$ — $12^{\circ}$  N. lat., and  $76^{\circ}$ — $77^{\circ}$  E. long. The elevation of O. is 7400 feet above the sea; the mean temperature being about  $49^{\circ}$ , the maximum  $77^{\circ}$ , and the minimum  $38^{\circ}$ . The average rainfall is 45 inches. Its distance is only about 350 miles from Madras, and it is easy of access,

as the railway now conveys the traveller to the foot of the Hills. The other stations on the Nelliherries are Coonoor, Kottagerry, and Jackatalla, or Wellington. In the last place, there is a fine range of barracks for European troops. The number of European settlers on these hills is increasing. There are thriving plantations of tea and coffee, and the cinchona or quinine plant. Pop. (1872) 9982.

OOTRUM, an Indian fibre, derived from the stem of *Damia extensa*, a plant of the natural order *Anclepidiaceæ*, abundant in many parts of Hindustan. The fibre is soft, white, silky, and strong, and is regarded as a promising substitute for flax.

OPAH, or King-fish (*Lampris guttatus* or *L. luna*), a fish of the Dory (q. v.) family (*Zedidae*), occasionally found in the British seas, but more common in more northern regions, and found not only in the Atlantic and Arctic Oceans, but also in the Pacific, as on the coasts of China and Japan. It is of an oval form, greatly compressed, with small thin scales, the mouth small and destitute of teeth, a single dorsal fin much elevated in front and extending almost to the tail. This fish attains a large size, being sometimes five feet long and 150 pounds in weight. It is brilliantly colored; the upper part of the back and sides rich green, reflecting purple and gold in different lights, the lower parts yellowish-green, round yellowish-white spots above and below the lateral line; all the fins bright vermilion. The flesh is much esteemed; it is red like salmon, and is said to resemble it in flavor.

OPAL, a mineral which differs from quartz in containing from 5 to 13 per cent. of water, its only other essential constituent being silica, although a little alumina, oxide of iron, &c., is often present. It is never found crystallised, and does not exhibit a crystalline structure like quartz. It has a conchoidal fracture, and is very easily broken. There are many varieties, which pass into one another, so that their precise limits cannot be defined, from which has arisen no little confusion of names. The finest kind is called *Precious O.* or *Noble O.*, and sometimes *Oriental Opal*. It is semitransparent or translucent, usually of a bluish or yellowish white color, yellow by transmitted light, and exhibits a beautiful play of brilliant colors, owing to minute fissures which refract the light. It is much valued for setting in rings, brooches, &c., and is polished with a convex surface, never cut into facets, both because of its brittleness, and because its play of colors is thus best exhibited. The ancients valued opals very highly. The Roman senator Nonius preferred exile to giving up an O. to Mark Antony. This O. was still to be seen in the days of Pliny, who ascribes to it a value equal to more than £100,000 sterling. The imperial cabinet of Vienna contains the most celebrated O. now known to exist. It is five inches by two inches and a half. The finest opals are almost all brought from Kaschan in Hungary, where they are found disseminated in a trachytic conglomerate. They are mostly very small, but even a very small O., if really beautiful, is worth four or five pounds; and the price increases very rapidly with increase of size. Precious O. is found also in Saxony, in South America, &c. When the colors are not equally diffused, but in detached spots, jewelers call it *Harlequin Opal*. There is a dark or blackish variety, apparently tinged by oxide of iron, which occasionally exhibits very beautiful reflections, and is then much prized. *Girasol* (q. v.) and *Cacholong* (q. v.) are varieties of opal. What lapidaries call *Prime d'Opal* is clay-porphyr, or other stone containing many small grains of opal. It is cut into slabs, and made into boxes and other ornamental articles; the stone which contains the opals being often artificially blackened by boiling in oil, and afterwards exposing to a moderate heat.—*Common O.* is semitransparent, white, yellow, green, red, or brown, and does not exhibit any play of colors. It is not a rare mineral, and is chiefly found in clay-porphyr. *Semi-opal* is more opaque. *Wood O.* is a petrification, and exhibits the form and structure of wood, the place of which has been taken by the siliceous mineral. *Hyalite* and *Menzite* are varieties of opal.

OPEN-BILL (*Anastomus*), a genus of birds of the Heron family (*Ardeidae*), natives of the East Indies and of Africa, remarkable for the structure of the bill, the mandibles being in contact only at the base and tip, with a wide interval between their edges in the middle. They frequent the sea-coast and rivers, and prey on fish and reptiles. One species is well known in India as the Coromandel Heron.

OPEN DOORS, Letters of, in Scotch Law, mean a writ authorising a messenger

to pound or seize goods in lockfast-places, and to break open the locked doors in order to effect the seizure. See *HOUSE*.

O'PERA, a musical drama, in which music forms an essential part, and not a mere accessory accompaniment. As in the higher drama, poetry supersedes the prose of ordinary life, so in the opera, with perhaps as great artistic right, the language of music is introduced at a considerable sacrifice of probability. The libretto or words are, in the modern opera, a peg on which to hang the music, rather than the music an accessory to the written drama. The component parts of an opera are recitatives, duets, trios, quartets, choruses, and finales, accompanied throughout by an orchestra, and the whole is preceded by an instrumental Overture (q. v.). Recitative is declamation, which, in its succession of musical sounds and rhythm, strives to assimilate itself as much as possible to the accents of speech, and therefore does not entirely conform to musical rhythm. The accessories of scenic representation are also present, and a Ballet (q. v.) is also frequently introduced. In some of the German operas, and in the French *opéra comique*, spoken dialogue without music takes the place of recitative. Among the different varieties of the opera enumerated are the great opera or *opera seria*, of a dignified character; the romantic opera, embracing an admixture of the grave and lively; the comic opera or *opera buffa*; as well as many intermediate varieties.

The idea of the opera may in part have arisen from the Greek drama, which possessed, to a considerable extent, the operatic character; the choral parts were sung, and the dialogue was delivered in a sustained key, probably resembling operatic recitative more than ordinary speech. The earliest extant example of any composition resembling the lyric drama of the moderns is Adam de la Hale's comic opera of "Liegies (le jeu) de Rolin et de Marian," composed in the 13th c., the music of which is wonderful for its date. The next appearance of anything like opera is in the 16th century, when various musical dramas were composed in the madrigalesque style. An opera composed by Zarino is said to have been performed at Venice when Henry III. passed through that city on his way from Poland to France. About the same time, a pastoral called "Dafne," written by the poet Rinuccini, was set to music by Peri; and the same poet and musician conjointly produced the lyric tragedy of "La Morte di Euridice," which was represented at the theatre of Florence in 1600. Claudio Monteverde, one of a society of amateurs, known as the "Florentine Academy," who devoted themselves avowedly to the study and revival of Greek music, soon afterwards produced his "Orfeo," a "favola di musica," in whose performance an orchestra of no fewer than 36 performers was called into requisition, most of the instruments being, however, only used in twos or threes, and never more than ten at a time. From these beginnings, the opera advanced into one of the permanent institutions of Italy—a development of music at first strongly opposed in character and style to the music of the church. With the progress of music, and the perfecting of the musical instruments which went to form the orchestra, the lyric drama began, towards the middle of last century, to approach its present character. Of the innumerable Italian operas of last century, only Cimarosa's "Matrimonio Segreto" retains its place on the stage. Cherubini, the first of the more modern school, after producing his "Quinto Fabio" at Milan, became naturalised in France: Rossini, who succeeded him in Italy, is the greatest name in the Italian opera. Nothing can exceed the deliciously fresh character of the best known operas of this truly great musician, "Il Barbiere di Siviglia," "Otello," "La Gazza Ladra," "Semiramide," and "Guillaume Tell." Next to them rank the equally well-known works of Bellini, "Norma," "La Sonnambula," and "I Puritani;" "Lucia di Lammermoor," "Lucrèzie Borgie," and "L'Elisir d'Amore," the three *chef-d'œuvre* of Donizetti, alone rivalling them in public estimation. A newer school of opera has recently sprung up in Italy, more grand if less fresh, of which the chief master is Verdi, whose "Ernani," "Nabuchodonosor," "I Lombardi," "Otello," "Rigoletto," "Il Trovatore," "La Traviata," and others have attained immense popularity in Italy, and wherever the Italian opera has been naturalised.

From Italy the opera was introduced into Germany, where, more scientific and less sensuous than in Italy, it flourished in opposition to national as well as ecclesiastical music. Germany divides with Italy the honor of perfecting orchestral music and the opera. Gluck, educated in Italy, produced his "Orfeo" in Vienna, and then went to Paris, where the French adopted him as we did Handel. Mozart was the

first composer of operas for the modern orchestra; "Idomeneo," "Il Seraglio," "Le Nozze di Figaro," "Don Giovanni," and "Zauberflöte" are his principal operatic works, unsurpassed by anything that has succeeded them. The most important German operas composed since their date are "Fidelio" by Beethoven; "Der Freischütz," "Euryanthe," and "Oberon" by Weber; "Faust" by Spohr; and the gorgeous operas of Meyerbeer, "Robert le Diable," "Les Huguenots," and "Le Prophète," and "L'Étoile du Nord." "Les Huguenots," notwithstanding its involving enormous difficulties in representation, keeps its place in every operatic theatre in Europe. Wagner, the chief exponent of a more recent school, generally known as that of the "music of the future," has produced the operas of "Tannhäuser," "Lohelegrin," &c., which enjoy at present a large share of public favor in Germany, and have also become known in England.

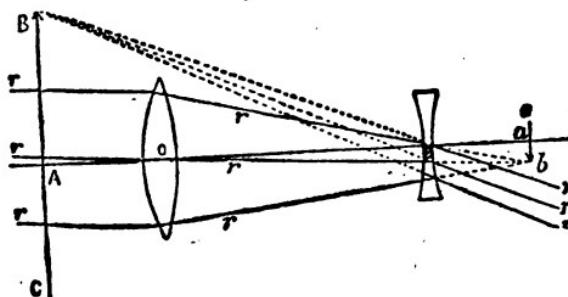
In France, the earliest operatic representation of which we have any record was in 1582. About 1669, the Abbot Perrin obtained from Louis XIV the privilege of establishing an opera in the French language at Paris, and in 1672 the privilege was transferred to Lulli, who may be considered the founder of the French lyrical drama. Lulli's popularity continued during a long period, and was only put an end to by the rise of the German Glück, who, naturalised in Paris, produced there his "Iphigénie in Aulide" and "Alceste." It is greatly through Glück's influence that the modern French opera has become what it is, a composite work combining French, German, and Italian elements. Its best-known productions include Méhul's "Joseph," Halévy's "Juive," Auber's "Masaniello," "Fra Diavolo," and "Dianams de la Couronne," and Gounod's recent opera of "Faust." The Italian opera, introduced in Paris in 1648 by Cardinal Mazarin, and superseded in 1670, was revived in the beginning of the present century, and has since flourished side by side with the national opera of France.

The possibility of a national English opera seems first to have been shewn by Purcell, who, through Humphreys, had learned much from Lulli. His music to Dryden's "King Arthur" is very beautiful, though kept throughout subordinate to the business of the drama. "The Beggar's Opera," as set to music by Dr Pepusch, was a selection of the airs most popular at the time. It has retained its place on the stage, as also has Dr Arne's "Artaxerxes," a translation from Metastasio adapted to music rich in melody. The importation of the Italian opera put a stop, for a time at least, to the further development of an opera in England. In 1706, "Arshioës," with English words adapted to Italian airs, was performed at Drury Lane. In 1710, "Almahide," wholly in Italian, was performed exclusively by Italian singers at the Haymarket Theatre; and a succession of attempts of the kind ended in the permanent establishment of the Italian opera. The arrival of Handel in England decided the future progress of the opera. That great master was during the greater part of his life an opera composer and opera manager. He composed for the London stage no fewer than 44 operas, German, Italian, and English. These now forgotten operas were of course not the complex compositions of a later period, which could not have been performed in the then imperfect state of orchestral instruments. A recitative was set to music nearly as fast as the composer could put notes on paper, and the songs were accompanied in general by only one violon and bass, the composer sitting at the harpsichord, and supplying what was wanting. From Handel's time onwards, the opera flourished as an exotic in Britain, the singers being foreign, and the works performed being either Italian or occasionally German or French. Attempts crowned with some measure of success have latterly been made to establish an opera of a national character in England. Balfe's "Bohemian Girl" and "Rose of Castile," are the best works which this school has produced, and have attained with other operas by Balfe, Wallace, and Macfarren, a considerable measure of popularity. See Hogarth's "Memoirs of the Opera" (London, 1851).

**OPERA-GLASS** (Fr. *lorgnette* Ger. *theater-perspektiv*). This is a double telescope, which is used for looking at objects that require to be clearly seen rather than greatly magnified, such as adjoining scenery and buildings, the performers of a theatre or opera, &c. It is from its use at an opera that it derives its name. The opera-glass is short and light, and can be easily managed with one hand. Its small magnifying power (from 2 to 8 at the most), and the large amount of light admitted by the ample object-glass, enable it to present a bright and pleasing picture, so that the eye

is not strained to make out details, as in telescopes of greater power, which generally shew a highly magnified but faint picture. It allows the use of both eyes, which gives to the spectator the double advantage, not possessed by single telescopes, of not requiring to keep one eye shut, a somewhat unnatural way of looking, and of seeing things stand out stereoscopically as in ordinary vision. The opera-glass is in consequence the most popular of telescopes, and requires almost no art in its use.

The opera-glass is the same in principle as the telescope invented by Galileo. It consists of two lenses, an object-lens and an eye-lens. The object-lens is convex, and the eye-lens concave. They are placed nearly at the distance of the difference of their focal lengths from one another. Fig. 1 represents the action of the telescope;  $o$  is the object-lens, and  $e$  the eye-lens, and  $ae$  is the axis of the instrument. The object-lens would form an image,  $cab$ , of the object looked at at or



near its focus, but the eye-lens intervening, converts the light converging to  $cab$  to light diverging apparently from an object in front,  $CAB$ . To shew more clearly the changes which the light undergoes, the course of a pencil of rays proceeding from the top of an object is traced. The ray proceeding from the top of the object to the centre of the lens,  $o$ , makes an angle,  $roA$ , with the axis. This is the same as the angle  $aoB$ ; and either of these angles gives half the angle under which the object is seen to the unaided eye. The three extreme rays,  $r, r, r$ , of the pencil appear in the figure nearly parallel, although they come from a point. The object is at a considerable distance from the object-glass or eye, so that it is not possible in so limited a figure to shew their divergence. After passing through the object-lens, the three rays proceed to the point  $b$ , in the image which the object-lens would form at  $cab$ , if no eye-lens were there. This image, as shewn in the figure, is inverted, and would be seen as such if the eye were placed about ten inches (the distance of distinct vision) behind it. The three rays in question do not reach the point  $b$  in consequence of the eye-lens intervening, and their course onwards to that point, after passing the eye-lens, is shewn by dotted lines. The actual course, after passing the second lens, is shewn again by the full lines,  $r, r, r$ , which to the eye placed immediately behind the eye-lens appear to proceed from the point  $B$  in front. As the light comes from  $B$  in the same direction as it comes from the actual point in the object, the image is erect. What holds for the point  $B$ , holds for every point in the image and object. To find the magnifying power, it is necessary to join  $Be$ , and  $Ce$ , and produce the lines thus formed to  $b$  and  $c$ . As the eye is placed immediately behind the eye-lens, the angle under which the magnified object is seen is the angle  $BeC$ , which is equal to  $ceb$ . Now, the angle under which the object itself is seen at  $a$  or at  $e$ —for the slight difference has no effect at the distance at which objects require to be seen by a telescope—is twice the angle  $roA$ , or which is the same thing, the angle  $aoB$ . The ratio of the angle  $ceb$  to the angle  $aoB$ , which is the magnifying power, is easily seen to be the same as that of the line  $ce$  to the line  $ao$ . But  $ce$  is the focal length of the object-glass, and  $ao$  is the focal length of the eye-glass,

so that the magnifying power of the instrument is the number of times the focal length of the eye-glass is contained in that of the object-glass. The longer, therefore, the focal length of the object-lens, or the shorter the focal length of the eye-lens, the greater the magnifying power. This may be practically expressed thus: the flatter the object-lens, and the hollower the eye-lens, the more are objects magnified by the glass. The magnifying power may be found with sufficient accuracy by looking at an object with one eye through the tube and the other eye unaided, and so handling the glass that the magnified image seen by the one eye is superposed on the object seen by the naked eye, when a comparison of their relative sizes can be easily made. For great magnification, the instrument requires to be greatly lengthened—a condition inconsistent with its use as an opera-glass. In addition, a high magnifying power is attended with the disadvantage that the field of view, or amount of object or objects seen, becomes too limited. On screwing out the instrument, it will be seen that objects increase in size as the instrument is lengthened, but that the picture becomes more and more limited, shewing that a large power and a large field are incompatible. The opera-glass need not be set to the same precise point as is necessary with ordinary terrestrial telescopes, as the lengthening or shortening of the instrument does not produce so decided an effect on the divergence of the light; the change of divergence, caused by screwing the opera-glass out or in, is so slight as not much to overstep the power of adjustment of the eye, so that an object does not lose all its distinctness at any point within the range of the instrument. There is, however, a particular point at which an object at a certain distance is best seen.

Opera-glasses have now come into such demand, that they form an important article of manufacture, of which Paris is the great seat. So largely and cheaply are they produced in Paris, that it has nearly a monopoly of the trade. They may be had from 2*s. 6d.* to £6 or £7. The cheapest opera-glasses consist of single lenses, those of the better class have compound achromatic lens. A very ordinary construction for a medium price is to have an achromatic object-lens, consisting of two lenses and a single eye-lens. In the finest class of opera-glasses, which are called *field-glasses*, both eye-lenses and object-lenses are achromatic. Plössl's celebrated field-glasses (Ger. *Feldstecher*) have twelve lenses, each object-lens and eye-lens being composed of three separate lenses.

OPE'RCULUM (Lat. a lid), a term used in botany chiefly to designate the lid or covering of the mouth of the urn or capsule (*theca*) which contains the spores of mosses. Before the ripening of the spores, the operculum is generally concealed by the *calyptro*; but after the calyptro has been thrown off, the operculum itself also generally falls off, leaving the peristome visible, and the mouth of the urn open. In some cases the operculum does not fall off, and the urn opens by valves.

In Zoology, the term operculum is chiefly employed to denote the covering which many gasteropod molluscs form for the mouth of their shell. It is attached to the back of the foot of the mollusc. In some it is calcareous, forming a shelly plate; in some it is horny; whilst gasteropods very nearly allied to those which possess it, are destitute of it altogether. The operculum increases in various ways, so as to present in different genera great diversity of structure, concentric, spiral, unguiculate, &c.

OPHICE'PHALUS, a genus of fishes, of the family *Anabasidae* (q. v.), sometimes regarded as constituting a distinct family *Ophicephalidae*, because there is a mere cavity for retaining water to supply the gills, and no pharyngeal laminae, and because of the long eel-like form and the flattened head, which is covered with large scales. Some of them are common in the fresh waters of the East Indies, are often found among wet grass, often travel from one pool to another, and are capable of subsisting for a long time in half-dried mud, descending into it when the pools dry up. The CORA-MOTA or GACHUA of India (*O. gachua*) is much used for food by the natives, although generally rejected by Europeans on account of its very snake-like appearance. It is very tenacious of life, and is not only brought to the Indian markets alive, but is cut to pieces whilst still living for the convenience of buyers.

O'PHICLEIDE (Gr. *ophis*, serpent, and *kleis*, key), a musical wind-instrument of brass or copper, invented to supersede the Serpent (q. v.) in the orchestra and military bands. It consists of a conical tube, terminating in a bell like that of the horn, with a mouthpiece similar to that of the serpent, and ten ventages or holes, all

stopped by keys like those of the bassoon, but of larger size. Ophicleides are of two kinds, the bass and the alto. The bass ophicleide offers great resources for maintaining the low part of masses of harmony. Music for it is written in the bass clef, and the compass of the instrument is from B, the third space below the bass staff, to C, the fifth added space above including all the intervening chromatic intervals. The alto ophicleide is an instrument of very inferior quality, and less used. Its compass is also three octaves and one note. The music for it is written in the treble clef, and an octave higher than it is played. Double bass or monster ophicleides have sometimes been used in large orchestras, but the amount of breath which is required to play them has prevented their coming into general use.

OPHI'DIA. See SERPENTS.

OPHIOGLO'SSEÆ, a suborder of *Filices* or Ferns (q. v.), consisting of a few rather elegant little plants with an erect or pendulous stem, which has a cavity instead of pith, leaves with netted veins, and the spore-cases (*hæcae*) collected into a spike formed at the edges of an altered leaf, 2-valved, and without any trace of an elastic ring. They are found in warm and temperate countries, but abound most of all in the islands of tropical Asia. Several species are European, and two are British, the *Botrychium* (q. v.) *lunaria*, or Moonwort, and the Common Adder's-tongue (*Ophioglossum vulgatum*), which was at one time supposed to possess magical virtues, and was also used as a vulnerary, although it seems to possess only a mucilaginous quality; on account of which some of the other species have been employed in broths. It is a very common plant in England, its abundance in some places much injuring pastures.

O'PHIR, a region frequently mentioned in the Old Testament, and from which the ships of Solomon, fitted out in the harbors of Edom, brought gold, precious stones, sandal-wood, &c. The voyage occupied three years. Where Ophir was situated, has been a much, in fact, a superfluous disputed question. It was probably either on the east coast of Africa about Sofala, or in Arabia, or in India, but in which of the three countries is doubtful. Huet, Bruce (the traveller), the historian Robertson, M. Quatremère, &c., are in favor of Africa; Michaelis, Niebühr (the traveller), Gosselin, Vincent, Winer, Fürst, Kuobel, Forster, Crufurd, and Kalisch, of Arabia; Vitringa, Reland, Lassen, Ritter, Bertheau, and Ewald, of India. Josephus, however, it should be said, placed O. in the peninsula of Malacca, and his very respectable opinion has been adopted by Sir J. Emerson Tennent in his work on Ceylon. For a complete discussion of the point, see Karl Ritter's "Erdkunde" (vol. xiv. 1848), 80 octavo pages of which are devoted to Ophir. According to Ritter, who accepts the view of Lassen, O. was situated at the mouth of the Indus.

O'PHIR, called by the Malays, Gning Pasamian, a volcanic mountain in the highlands of Padang island of Sumatra, lies in  $0^{\circ} 4' 55''$  n. lat., and  $99^{\circ} 55'$  e. long.; the eastern peak, called Telaman, attains the height of 9939 feet above the sea. The western peak is called Pasamau. The numerous inhabitants have cleared off forest and brought under cultivation large tracts of land on the slopes of O., and its base is studded with villages. The O. districts are most beautiful, and the lofty waterfalls, contrasting with the bright-green foliage of the mountain, highly picturesque.

OPHISU'RUS. See SNAKE-EEL.

O'PHITES (Gr. *ophitai*, "serpent-brethren" from *ophis*, a serpent), a sect of Gnostics (q. v.) who while they shared the general belief of dualism, the conflict of matter and spirit, the emanations, the Demiurges, and other notions common to the many subdivisions of this extraordinary school, were distinguished from all by their peculiar doctrine and worship connected with their *ophis* or serpent. The O., like most Gnostics, regarded the Demiurges, or the Jehovahs of the Old Testament, with great abhorrence, but they pursued this notion into a very curious development. Regarding the emancipation of man from the power and control of the Demiurges as a most important end, they considered the serpent who tempted Eve, and introduced into the world "knowledge" and revolt against Jehovah, to have been the great benefactor of the human race. Hence their worship of the serpent. Some of the details of their system were very strange. We may instance their singular attempt to engrave "Ophism" on Christianity; their seeking, as it were, to import to the Christian Eucharist an Ophite character, by causing the bread designed for

the Eucharistic sacrifice *to be licked by a serpent*, which was kept in a cave for the purpose, and which the communicants kissed after receiving the Eucharist (Epiph. Hor. 37, s. 5). Our information, however, regarding them is very meagre, and comes chiefly from antagonistic sources. The O. originated in Egypt, probably from some relation to the Egyptian serpent-worship, and spread thence into Syria and Asia Minor. Offshoots of this sect are the Cainites. See CAIN and SERPENTES.

OPHTHA'LRIA (derived from the Greek word *ophthalnos*, the eye) was originally and still is sometimes used to denote inflammation of the eye *generally*, but it is at the present time usually restricted to designate inflammatory affections of the mucous coat of the eye, termed the *conjunctiva*.

There are several important and distinct varieties of ophthalmia (in the restricted sense of the word) which require special notice.

*Catarrhal Ophthalmia*.—Its leading symptoms are redness of the surface of the eye (the redness being superficial, of a bright scarlet color, and usually diffused in patches), scurings of uneasiness, stiffness and dryness, with slight pain, especially when the eye is exposed to the light; an increased discharge, not of tears, except at the beginning of the attack, but of mucus, which at first is thin, but soon becomes opaque, yellow, and thicker; pus (or matter, as it is popularly termed) being seen at the corner of the eye, or between the eyelashes along the edges of the lids, which it glues together during the night. The disease results in most cases from exposure to cold and damp, and is very apt to be excited by exposure to a draught of air, especially during sleep. It is popularly known as a *cold* or a *bright* in the eye. With regard to treatment, the patient should remain in rooms of a uniform temperature, and should at once take about five grains of calomel, followed by a black draught. The eye should be frequently bathed with poppy decoction, lukewarm or cold as the patient prefers. If the affection does not readily yield to these measures, a drop of a solution of nitrate of silver (four grains of the nitrate to an ounce of distilled water) should be let fall into the eye twice or thrice a day. It usually causes a smarting sensation for about ten minutes, after which the eye feels much easier than it did before the drop was applied. The adhesion of the eyelids in the morning may be avoided by smearing their edges at bedtime with a little spermaceti ointment.

*Purulent ophthalmia* differs from catarrhal ophthalmia in the severity of its symptoms, and in its exciting cause. It is a violent form of inflammation of the conjunctiva; is accompanied with a thick purulent discharge on the first or second day of its commencement, and is very apt to occasion loss of vision. There are three remarkable varieties of this affection, called respectively (1) purulent ophthalmia of adults, or Egyptian ophthalmia, or contagious ophthalmia; (2) gonorrhreal ophthalmia; and (3) purulent ophthalmia of newly-born children. (1) *Purulent ophthalmia of adults* begins with the same symptoms as catarrhal ophthalmia, but in a very exaggerated form. The conjunctiva rapidly becomes intensely red, and soon appears raised from the sclerotic by the effusion of serum between them, projecting around the cornea, which remains buried, as it were, in a pit. Similar effusion takes place beneath the mucous membrane lining the eyelids, causing them to project forwards in large livid convex masses, which often entirely conceal the globe of the eye. These symptoms are accompanied by severe burning pain, great headache, fever, and prostration. When the disease is unchecked, it is liable to produce ulceration or sloughing of the cornea, with the escape of the aqueous humor and protrusion of the iris; and even when these results do not follow, vision is often destroyed by permanent opacity of the cornea. It is a common disease in India, Persia, and Egypt; and in consequence of its having been imported from the last named country into England by our troops in the beginning of the present century, it got the name of Egyptian ophthalmia. Some idea of its prevalence and of its danger may be formed from the facts (1) that two-thirds of the French army in Egypt were laboring under it at the same time, and (2) that in the military hospitals at Chelsea and Kilmainham there were, in December 1810, no fewer than 2317 soldiers who had lost the sight of both eyes from this disease. Until after the war in Egypt, the disease was unknown in Europe. Since that time it has not unfrequently broken out in this country—not only among troops, but in schools, asylums, &c. The disease is unquestionably contagious, but there are good reasons for believing that it often arises, independently of contagion, from severe catarrhal ophthalmia under unfavorable atmospheric and

other conditions; and that having so originated, it possesses contagious properties. *Gonorrhœal ophthalmia* arises from the application of gonorrhœal discharge or matter to the surface of the eye; and hence is more common in persons suffering from the disease from which this variety obtains its specific name. It is, moreover, not unfrequently occasioned by the common but disgusting practice, adopted by the poorer classes, of bathing the eyes in human urine, under the idea that by this procedure they strengthen the sight. In its symptoms, it is almost identical with ordinary purulent ophthalmia. The *purulent ophthalmia of children* usually begins to appear about the third day after birth. It is a very common affection, and its importance is apt to be overlooked until it has made considerable progress. If the edges of the lids appear red and glued together, and if the eye, when the lids are separated, shews redness and swelling of the conjunctiva, there is no doubt of the nature of the disease, which, if not checked, progresses in much the same way as in adults. It is, however, much more amenable to treatment, and with proper care the sense of sight is seldom impaired, provided the disease has not extended to the cornea before medical aid is sought. Of the treatment of purulent ophthalmia in these various forms, we shall say nothing more than that it must be left exclusively to the medical practitioner, whose advice should be sought as soon as there is the slightest suspicion of the nature of the case.

There is one more form of this disease which is of very common occurrence, and has received the various names of *strumous* (or *scrofulous*), *postular*, and *phylyctenar ophthalmia*. It is intimately connected with the scrofulous constitution, and is most prevalent in children from four to ten or twelve years of age. The most prominent symptom is extreme intolerance of light, the lids being kept spasmodically closed. When they are forcibly separated, a slight vascularity, usually stopping at the edge of the cornea, is observed, and at or about the line of separation between the cornea and sclerotic small opaque pimples or pustules appear. The treatment consists (1) in improving the general health by due attention to the secretions, and the subsequent administration of tonics (such as quinina and cod-liver oil), and change of air; and (2) in local applications, such as solution of nitrate of silver, or wine of opium, dropped into the eye, or stimulating ointments (such as dilute citrine ointment) smeared over the edges of the lids at bedtime. This form of disease, being dependent on constitutional causes, is often very obstinate, and is always liable to recur. It is not unfrequently attended with the annoying complication of a skin disease, known as *crusta lactea*, on the cheeks, in consequence of the irritation caused by the flow of scalding tears. The crusts or scabs are easily removed by a poultice or warm-water dressing, after which the part must be bathed by a lotion, consisting of a drachm of oxide of zinc in four ounces of either pump or rose water.

**OPHTHA'LMOSCOPE.** The, is an instrument recently invented for the purpose of examining the deep-seated structures of the eye, and for detecting disease in them. In its simplest form, it is merely a concave circular mirror, of about 10 inches focus, made of silvered glass or polished steel, and having a hole in the centre; and with it there is supplied, as a separate piece of apparatus, a convex lens an inch and a half in diameter, with a focal length of about two and a half inches, set in a common eye-glass frame, with a handle 3 inches long. The patient (his pupil having been previously dilated by the application of a drop of solution of atropine) is made to sit by a table in a dark room, with a sliding argand lamp placed by the side of his head, with the flame on a level with the eye, from which it is screened by a little flat plate of metal attached to the burner. The following description of the mode of using the instrument, and of the parts brought into view by it, is borrowed from the article on this subject contributed by Mr Haynes Walton to the last edition of Drnit's "Surgeon's Vade Mecum": "The operator sits directly in front, and holding the instrument close to his eye, and a little obliquely to catch the light from the lamp, he commences, at the distance of about 18 inches from the patient, to direct the reflection on the eye. When this is got, the convex lens must be held at a distance of two and a half inches from the eye, and the focusing commenced by moving it slowly backwards and forwards. When the light fairly enters the eye, a reddish glare appears; and as it is focused, an orange-red or orange-yellow is seen; then the blood-vessels of the retina come into view. The retina itself presents a whitish aspect, through which the choroid is more or less discernible. The entrance of the optic

nerve should now be sought. The way to discern it is to make the patient look inward. It appears as a white circular spot, in the centre of which are the central vein and artery of the retina, giving off six or eight branches." This optic disc is the most important part to be observed; but a thorough ophthalmoscopic examination will reveal structural differences, not only in it, but in the retina, choroid, and vitreous humor, and will reveal cataract in its early stage. In short, the ophthalmoscope is now as essential in the diagnosis of diseases of the deep-seated parts of the eye as the stethoscope is in the diagnosis of thoracic diseases.

OPIE, John, R.A., was born at the village of St Agnes, seven miles from Truro, Cornwall, in May 1761. His father, a master carpenter, wished him to follow the same trade, but his bias for art was strong; and his attempts at portrait-painting having attracted the notice of Dr Wolcot, afterwards celebrated as Peter Pindar, he had the advantage of his advice in the practice of the art, and his exertions in procuring him employment. And at length, in 1780, he was taken to London by Dr Wolcot, and immediately came to be acknowledged by the fashionable world as the "Cornish Wonder." This tide of good fortune soon ebbed, but not before O. had realised a moderate competency. The loss of popular favor, however, only served to bring out more strongly those points in O.'s character on which his reputation mainly rests, viz., manly independence and strong love of art. He stooped to no device to retain fashionable patronage, but calmly and unremittingly entered on that department of painting which, according to the notions of his time, was the only style of high art, viz., historical or scriptural subjects, executed on a large scale. His pencil was employed by Boydell in his well-meant and magnificent scheme to elevate British art; he also painted a number of works in the illustration of Bowyer's English History, Macklin's Poets and Biblical Gallery, and other similar undertakings. His pictures of the "Murder of James I. of Scotland," "The Slaughter of Rizzio," "Jephthah's Vow," "Prel-sensation in the Temple," "Arthur and Hubert," "Belfarius and Juliet in the Garden," are his most noted works. O. was elected an Associate of the Royal Academy in 1786, and Academician in the following year. He devoted part of his time to various literary efforts tending to the illustration of art; these were chiefly the "Life of Reynolds" in Dr Wolcot's edition of Pilkerton's "Dictionary of Painters;" a letter in the "North Briton," recommending the formation of a National Gallery, reprinted as "An Inquiry into the Requisite Cultivation of the Fine Arts in Britain;" lectures on art, delivered at the Royal Institution, which, though listened to with great attention by a select and fashionable audience, do not seem to have been satisfactory to himself, as he declined to continue them. When Fuseli, on being appointed keeper, resigned the professorship of painting, O. was appointed to that office; and the four lectures which he delivered—he died before completing the course—bear the stamp of practical experience and shrewd observation. O. was twice married. He obtained a divorce from his first wife; but his second, well known as one of the most popular novelists of the day, appreciated his high character, which she set forth, after his death, in a memoir published along with his lectures. He died somewhat suddenly in his house, St Bernard Street, Oxford Street, April 9, 1807, and was buried in the crypt of St Paul's, near the grave of Reynolds.

OPI'NICUS, one of the fabulous creatures known in Heraldry, with the head and neck of an eagle, the body of a lion, wings, and a short tail like that of a camel. Such a monster, with wings endorsed or, was the crest of the company of barber-surgeons of London.

OPINION OF COUNSEL is the technical name for the advice given by a barrister or advocate. The attorney or solicitor writes a statement of facts, called "a case" in England, and "a memorial" in Scotland, which ends by asking certain queries, and the answer written by the counsel is his opinion. A counsel is not liable for any damages caused by his giving a wrong opinion through the result of gross ignorance, this being one of the privileges of counsel.

OPITZ, Martin, a famous German poet, was born December 28, 1597, at Bunzlau, in Silesia. He received an education of the highest kind; and after some time spent at the court of the Duke of Liegnitz, he accepted, in 1622, an invitation by Bethlen Gabor, Prince of Transylvania, to teach Philosophy and the *Humaniora* at

Weissenburg; but disliking the rudeness of the country, he soon returned to the court of the Duke of Liegnitz. In 1624, his first poems were published, and in the same year his work "Von der deutschen Poeterei," in which he laid the foundation or a system of German poetics. In 1625, he went to Vienna, where, on account of an elegy on the death of an archduke, he received a laurel crown from the hands of the emperor, Ferdinand II. In 1626, he became secretary, although a Protestant, to the Burggraf, Karl Hannibal of Dohna, a distinguished Roman Catholic and imperialist, and was employed in various transactions with foreign courts. In 1629, the emperor raised him to the rank of nobility. After the death of the Burggraf of Dohna, in 1633, he returned to the courts of Liegnitz and Brieg. About this time he published "Vesuv," a didactic poem, and his "Trostgedicht in Widerwärtigkeit des Kriegs," the best of his poems, which were followed by an opera called "Judeith," a translation of the "Antigone" of Sophocles, and translation of the Psalms. In 1638, he was appointed Secretary and Historiographer to Ladislaus IV. of Poland. But in the midst of his days, and when he had attained to fame and prosperity, he was cut off by the plague at Danzig, August 20, 1639. O. was more honored by his contemporaries than almost any other poet ever was. German poetry, which had been neglected and despised, began again to be esteemed and cultivated. The popularity of O., and his relations with the chiefs of the Roman Catholic party, led to the adoption, throughout the whole of Germany, of the form given to the German language by Luther, which had previously obtained general acceptance only in the Protestant states. His poetry is characterised by careful attention to language and metre, and by reflection rather than by brilliant fancy or deep feeling. There are several editions of his works, but none is quite complete (8 vols. Breslau, 1690; 3 vols. Ainst. 1646; and 3 vols. Frankfurt and Leipzig, 1724).

OPIUM, one of the most valuable of medicines, is the dried juice of the ripe capsules of a species of Poppy (q. v.), *Papaver somniferum*, sometimes called the Common Poppy, and sometimes the White Poppy, although the latter name is really appropriate only to one of its varieties. The plant is probably a native of some of the warmer parts of Asia, although it is now common in cultivated and waste grounds throughout all the south and middle of Europe, and is occasionally found in Britain. It is an annual, varying in height from one to six feet; erect, branched, of a glaucous green color, with ovate-oblong sessile leaves, the stem and leaves generally smooth, the branches terminated by large flowers on long stalks, the capsules globose or roundish-ovate and smooth. There are two principal varieties cultivated for the opium which they yield, which have been regarded by some botanists as distinct species; the one (*Papaver somniferum*) having generally red or violet-colored flowers, numerous flower-stalks rising together, globose capsules opening by a circle of pores under the persistent stigma, and black seeds; the other (*P. officinale*) having white flowers, solitary flower-stalks, the capsules somewhat ovate, the circle of pores almost wanting, the seeds white. The former variety is generally cultivated in the mountainous parts of the north of India, the latter in the plain of Bengal, where the poppy-fields are described by Dr Hooker as resembling green lakes studded with white water-lilies. The cultivation of the poppy for the sake of opium is carried on in many parts of India, although the chief opium district is a large tract on the Ganges, about 600 miles in length and 200 miles in breadth, which was divided by the East India Company into two agencies, that of Behar and that of Benares, the central factory of the former being at Patna, and that of the latter at Ghazeeapore. The poppy is also extensively cultivated for opium in the Asiatic provinces of Turkey, in Egypt, and in Persia. Opium of very good quality is also produced, though not to any considerable amount, in some parts of Europe, and even in Britain. It is sometimes alleged that a much warmer climate than that of Britain is requisite for the profitable production of opium, but the chief want of the climate seems rather to be the frequency of wet weather. Very fine specimens of opium have been produced, and the produce per acre has been found amply remunerative; but a great difficulty is experienced in obtaining labor at a moderate rate for a few days only at a time, and when the experiment is conducted on a small scale, only for a few hours daily. This difficulty was much felt in an experiment, otherwise most successful, which was made at Edinburgh, by Mr Young, a surgeon, who about the year 1880 obtained 56 lbs. of opium from one acre of poppies, and sold it at 86s. a lb. It was of excellent quality. His mode of cultivation was similar to that usual in India. The seed

being sown in spring on a rich soil, the plants were kept clear of weeds, and when they had flowered and produced capsules, incisions were made in the capsules, and the exuded juice collected as described below. The capsules vary from the size of a hen's egg to that of the fist. In India, the poppy flowers in the end of January and beginning of February.

The poppy requires for its profitable cultivation a rich soil, and in India is generally sown in the neighborhood of villages where manure can be easily obtained. The soil ought to be fine and loose when the seed is sown. The subsequent cultivation consists chiefly in thinning and weeding. Irrigation is practised. Mild moist weather, with night-dews, is deemed most favorable during the time of the collection of the opium. Very dry weather diminishes the flow of the juice, and much rain is injurious.

The opium poppy is cultivated for other purposes besides the production of opium, concerning which see POPPY.

Opium, as a commercial article, is of great importance, exceeding indeed that of any other drug in use, and the cultivation of the opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*) in British India forms a most extensive branch of agriculture, and the collection and preparation of the drug itself employs a large number of persons in the Patna, Malwa, and Benares districts of Bengal. Indeed during the whole existence of the East India Company, the production of this drug was of the first importance; its employment as a habitual narcotic, as well as a medicine amongst all the eastern nations, demands an enormous supply. The seed is sown in India in the beginning of November; it flowers in the end of January, or a little later; and in three or four weeks after, the capsules or poppy-heads are about the size of hens' eggs, and are ready for operating upon. When this is the case, the collectors each take a little iron instrument called a *nushtur*; it is made of three or four small plates of iron, narrow at one end and wider at the other, which is also notched like a saw; with these instruments they wound each full-grown poppy-head as they make their way through the plants in the field. This is always done early in the morning, before the heat of the sun is felt; during the day the milky juice of the plant oozes out, and early on the following morning it is collected by scraping it off with a kind of scoop, called a *sitrooha*, and transferred to an earthen vessel, called a *kurrace*, hanging at the side of the collector. When this is full, it is carried home and transferred to a shallow open brass dish, called a *thallee*, and left for a time tilted on its side, so that any watery fluid may drain out; this watery fluid is called *puseewah*, and is very detrimental to the opium unless removed. It now requires daily attendance, and has to be turned frequently, so that the air may dry it equally, until it acquires a tolerable consistency, which requires three or four weeks; it is then packed in small earthen jars, and taken to the *godowns* or factories; here the contents of each jar are turned out, and carefully weighed, tested, valued and credited to the cultivator. The opium is then thrown into vast vats, which hold the accumulations of whole districts, and the mass being kneaded, is again taken out and made into balls or cakes for the market.

This is a very important operation, and is conducted in long rooms, the workmen sitting in rows, closely watched by the overseers to insure the work being carefully performed. Before each workman is a tray, and within easy reach is placed the *tagar*, a tin vessel for holding as much opium as will make three or five balls. On the tray is another basin containing water, and a smaller tray; on this tray stands a brass cup, into which the ball or cake is moulded, also a supply of thin layers of poppy petals, formed by laying them out overlapping each other, and pressing them upon one another; these are prepared by women in the poppy-fields, and with these is a cup filled with a sticky fluid called *lewah*, made from opium of inferior quality. The operator begins his work by taking the brass cup and placing on its bottom one of the cakes of poppy petals, which he smears over with the *lewah*; then adds other cakes of petals to overlap and adhere to the first, until the cup is filled and a coat of petals is thus formed for the opium, of which he takes the exact quantity as near as he can guess, works it into a ball, and places it in the basin, so that the lining of petals encloses it and stick to it, in consequence of the *lewah* smeared on the inner side of the thin cakes of petals. Other petals are put on the upper part of the ball, and the whole gathered round it, forming a case about as thick as a bank-note. Each man's work for the day is kept by itself, and after having been daily registered,

is taken to a vast drying-room, where the ball's are placed in tiers on lattice-work racks, and are continually turned and examined by boys, to keep them from insects and other injuries. After being fully dried, these balls are packed in chests for the market.

The manufacture of opium is carried on to the greatest extent in India, but large quantities are also made in Turkey, and this latter is considered the best in quality. It is also made at Trébizonde in Persia, and in Egypt; occasionally it has been produced in Germany, France, and England. Of the Indian opium there are several qualities, as Bengal, Patna or Benares opium, Garden Patna, Malwa, fine Malwa, Cutch, and Kaudeish opium.

The net opium revenue for India in 1871—1872 was £7,667,218. The number of chests sold was 49,695, at £139 per chest, or £26 higher than the previous year's average. The net profit was £90 per chest. The area under cultivation in Bengal and Bombay was 560,608 acres. In 1873-4, 94,746 chests of opium, valued at £1,195,692, were exported. Next to China, the largest consumption of Indian opium is by the Burmese and the natives of the Malacca Straits, who take annually to the value of nearly a million sterling.

In Europe, with very slight exceptions, opium is used for medicinal purposes only, and large quantities of it undergo a still further stage of manufacture, in order to separate from it the active principles morphine, narcotine, &c. In Great Britain, the chief manufacture of these salts of opium is carried on in Edinburgh, where two firms, Messrs T. and H. Smith, and J. F. Macfarlane & Co., have attained great reputation, and manufacture these products upon an immense scale, supplying probably a fifth of the whole quantity manufactured.

*Chemical and Medicinal Properties.*—The only variety recognised in the British pharmacopœia is the Turkey opium. The chemical composition of opium has been studied by various chemists, amongst whom must be especially mentioned Professor Mulder of Utrecht, and Professor Anderson of Glasgow. The following constituents occur in most kinds of opium:

|  |  |
|--|--|
| Organic<br>Bases or<br>Alkaloids.              | Mecconic Acid, $3\text{HO.C}_{13}\text{H}_{11}\text{O}_{11}$ , from 4 to 8 per cent. |
|  | Morphia ..... $\text{C}_{24}\text{H}_{19}\text{NO}_5$ , from 4 to 12 " "             |
|  | Codetia ..... $\text{C}_{36}\text{H}_{21}\text{NO}_5$ , less than 1 " "              |
|  | Thebaia ..... $\text{C}_{38}\text{H}_{21}\text{NO}_6$ , " " "                        |
|  | Papaverine ..... $\text{C}_{40}\text{H}_{21}\text{NO}_8$ , " " "                     |
|  | Narcotine ..... $\text{C}_{46}\text{H}_{25}\text{NO}_{14}$ , from 6 to 10 " "        |
|  | Narcela ..... $\text{C}_{46}\text{H}_{29}\text{NO}_{18}$ , from 6 to 13 " "          |
|  | Meconine ..... $\text{C}_{46}\text{H}_{29}\text{O}_8$ , less than 1 " "              |
|  | Resinous Matter.... from 2 to 4 " "  |
|  | Caoutchouc..... from 4 to 6 " "  |
| Mucilage, Gum, and Extractive} from 40 to 50 " |  |
| Muttera..... }                                 |  |

In addition to the six alkaloids named in this table, a seventh, named oplanine, has been found in Egyptian opium, but in no other varieties.

Some of the most important and characteristic of these constituents, as meconic acid, morphia, and narcotine, are noticed in special articles. The only isolated constituents of opium which are now used in medicine are *Codetia* (so called from the Greek word *kodetia*, a poppy-head), which has been asserted by Magendie and others to act in the same manner as, although less powerfully than, morphia, but which is now seldom prescribed, as it is not a pharmacopœial preparation; and *Morphia*, which has already been described.

The only test given in the British pharmacopœia for the purity of opium is the determination of its percentage of morphia, which is a process requiring a considerable amount of chemical skill.

Following the arrangement adopted by Pereira ("Elements of Materia Medica" 4th ed.), we have just quoted, we shall consider (1) the effects of one or a few doses of opium employed medicinally or as a poison; (2) the effects of the habitual employment of opium, either by chewing or smoking it; and (3) its good and bad effects on the different systems of organs.

1. In small doses, as from a quarter of a grain to a grain, it acts as an agreeable stimulant, this effect being followed by a desire to sleep, accompanied by dryness of

the mouth and throat, thirst, and slight constipation. When it is given in a *full medicinal dose* (as from two to four grains), the stage of excitement is soon followed by well-marked depression or torpor, both of the bodily and mental organs, and an almost irresistible sleepiness; these effects being usually succeeded by constipation, nausea, furred tongue, headache, and listlessness. When it is administered in a dangerous or poisonous dose, the symptoms, as summed up by Dr Christison in his work "On Poisons," begin with giddiness and stupor, generally without any previous stimulus. The stupor rapidly increasing, the person becomes motionless, and insensible to external impressions; he breathes very slowly, generally lies quite still, with his eyes shut and the pupils contracted; and the whole expression of the countenance is that of deep and perfect repose. As the poisoning advances, the features become ghastly, the pulse feeble and imperceptible, the muscles exceedingly relaxed, and, unless assistance is speedily procured, death ensues. If the person recovers, the insensibility is succeeded by prolonged sleep, which commonly ends in twenty-four or thirty-six hours, and is followed by nausea, vomiting, giddiness, and loathing of food.

2. The *habitual use of opium*, whether the drug be eaten or smoked, is undoubtedly in most cases injurious to the constitution, although probably not to the extent that some eastern travellers assert. Sir R. Christison and other eminent physicians have shewn that in numerous cases very large quantities of this drug may be regularly taken with impunity; and Dr Chapman ("Elements of Therapeutics," vol. ii. p. 199) relates two remarkable cases of this kind—one in which a wineglassful of laud ~~dun~~<sup>an</sup> was taken several times in the twenty-four hours, and another (a case of cancer of the uterus) in which the quantity of laudanum was gradually increased to three pints daily, a considerable quantity of solid opium being also taken in the same period.

*Opium-smoking* is a habit that is chiefly confined to China and the islands of the Indian Archipelago. An extract, called *chandoo*, is made into pills about the size of a pea. The following is the account given by Macleod in his "History of Sumatra," of the process employed: "One of these pills being put into the small tube that projects from the side of the opium pipe, that tube is applied to a lamp, and the pill being lighted, is consumed at one whiff or inflation of the lungs, attended with a whistling noise. The smoke is never emitted by the mouth, but usually receives vent through the nostrils." Although the immoderate practice of opium-smoking is most destructive to those who live in poverty and distress, yet from the evidence of Mr Smith, a surgeon resident at Pulo Penang, and of Dr Eatwell, who passed three years in China, it does not appear that the Chinese in easy circumstances, and who have the comforts of life about them, are materially affected in respect to longevity by addiction to this habit.

3. As the discussion of the physiological action of opium on the different organs would, in its most condensed form, occupy too much space, we shall confine our remarks to the practical conclusions at which physiologists and physicians have arrived respecting the utility and the danger of prescribing this drug in various conditions of the principal vital organs.

a. *Cerebro-spinal System*.—Under proper regulations it is a remedy which may be used to stimulate the circulation within the cranium, to promote sleep, to diminish abnormal or increased sensibility, and to allay pain generally; while it is contraindicated in apoplexy, cerebral inflammation, paralysis, and hysteria. Dr Pereira relates a case in which one grain of opium, administered to an hysterical young woman, proved fatal.

b. *Digestive System*.—"Under proper regulations," says Pereira, "opium is an admissible remedy for the following purposes: to diminish excessive hunger; to allay pain, when unaccompanied by inflammation; to diminish the sensibility of the digestive organs in cases of acrid poisoning, and in the passage of biliary calculi; to produce relaxation of the muscular fibres of the alimentary canal in colic, and of the gall-ducts in the passage of calculi, and to diminish excessive secretion from the intestinal canal in diarrhoea;" while it is contra-indicated "in diminished secretion from the gastro-intestinal membrane, in extreme thirst, in loss of appetite and weak digestion, in obstinate costiveness, and in diminished excretion of bile."

c. *Vascular System*.—In vascular excitement with great diminution of power, as after hemorrhage, opium is often serviceable; but when the pulse is strong as well

as quick, or when there is simultaneously a tendency to abnormal sleepiness, it is contra-indicated.

*d. Respiratory System.*—“Opium, under proper regulations, may be useful to diminish the contractility of the muscles of respiration, or of the muscular fibres of the air-tubes, as in spasmodic asthma; to diminish the sensibility of the bronchia in the second stage of catarrh, and thereby to allay cough by lessening the influence of the cold air; and, lastly, to counteract excessive bronchial secretion;” while it is contra-indicated in difficulty of breathing, arising from a deficient supply of nervous energy, as in apoplectic cases; in cases in which the venous is imperfectly converted into arterial blood; and in the first stage of catarrh and pneumonia, both from its checking secretion, and from its tendency to impede the due arterialisation of the blood.

*e. Urinary System.*—Opium is a valuable remedy to allay the pain in the kidney and adjacent parts in cases of renal calculi, and also to produce relaxation of the ureters when the calculi are passing along these tubes; it is also of great service in certain forms of irritable bladder.

There can be no doubt that the essential and primary operation of opium is on the nervous system, the other effects being for the most part secondary.

Opium is undoubtedly the most valuable remedy of the whole *materia medica*. “For other medicines,” says Dr Pereira, “we have one or more substitutes; but for opium, none—at least in the large majority of cases in which its peculiar and beneficial influence is required.” We not only exhibit it to mitigate pain, to allay spasm, to promote sleep, to relieve nervous restlessness, to produce perspiration, and to check profuse discharges from the bronchial tubes and intestinal canal; but we also find it capable of relieving some diseases in which none of the above indications can be always distinctly perceived. In combination with tartar emetic, it has been strongly recommended in fever with much cerebral disturbance; in association with calomel, it is the most trustworthy remedy in cases of inflammation of membranous parts; in insanity, its value cannot be overestimated; it is the remedy chiefly trusted to in *d-lirium tremens*; it is more serviceable than any other medicine in diabetes; and to conclude with a more common and less serious affection, its efficiency, when administered in small doses (as ten or fifteen drops of laudanum three times a day), in promoting the healing of ulcers in which granulation proceeds too slowly is very marked.

In addition to the solution of *Muriate of Morphia* (q. v.), which, on the whole, is the best preparation of opium for internal use in the majority of cases, the British pharmacopœia contains an opium pill (containing one part of opium in five of the pill); a pill of lead and opium (chiefly used in pulmonary hemorrhage); an aromatic powder of chalk and opium (containing one part of opium in forty of the powder); powder of ipecacuan and opium (or *Dover's Powder* [q. v.], containing one part of opium in ten of the powder); powder of kino and opium (containing one part of opium in twenty of the powder, and, like the aromatic powder, chiefly used in diarrhoea); tincture (see *LAUDANUM*), and camphorated tincture of opium (commonly known as *Paregoric Elixir*, and much used in chronic cough—containing two gratus of opium in the fluid ounce); in addition to an enema; a wine (used chiefly as a local application to the eye in cases of *ophthalmia*); an ointment of galls and opium (used as an external application to piles); and a liniment and a plaster, which are applied to remove local superficial pains.

In a case of poisoning by opium, the first and most essential point is the evacuation of the contents of the stomach. The stomach-pump, if it can be procured, should be employed, and strong coffee should then be pumped into the stomach after the removal of its contents. The next best remedy is an emetic of sulphate of zinc (about a scruple), and if this is not at hand, a dessert-spoonful of flour of mustard, stirred up in a tumbler of warm water, will usually produce the desired effect. The patient must, if possible, be prevented from falling asleep, and for this purpose he should be kept constantly walking between two strong men, while a third person in the rear should, at short intervals, flick him sharply with a rough wet towel, or (if procurable) a good birch rod. Cold water should also be occasionally dashed over the head and chest. In a few apparently hopeless cases, death has been averted by artificial respiration, and by the application of electro-magnetism.

## OPOBA'LSAMUM. See BALSUM and GUM.

OPODE'LDOC is a popular synonyme for *Soap Liniment* (q. v.). The origin of the term, which was apparently applied by Paracelsus to various forms of liniments or local applications, is not known. The *opo* is the same as the *opo* of *opo'onax*, *opobalsamum*, &c., and is doubtless derived from the Greek *ōpos*, juice. It has been suggested by an eminent Anglo-Saxon scholar that the original word was *opodilla*, and that *doc* or *dock* was added merely as a gloss to *dilla*—a view that is confirmed by the fact, that in Ælfric's "Glossary," *dill* (*dilla*) is Englished by *dock*.

OPO'PONAX, a gum resin obtained by puncturing the roots of a species of parsnip (*Pastinaca Opopanax*). The chief interest in this material is the great importance which the ancient physicians attached to it as an antispasmodic medicine. It was employed by Hippocrates, Theophrastus, and Dioscorides, who have each left descriptions of it. The plant grows generally throughout Southern Europe, and the gum is still collected, but is not much used.

OPO'RTO (Portug. O *Porto*, the port), a city of Portugal, and, after Lisbon, the most important seaport of the country, in the province of Minho, on the right bank, and two miles from the mouth of the Douro, in lat.  $41^{\circ} 9' N.$ , long.  $8^{\circ} 37' W.$ ; and is 195 miles north-north-east of Lisbon. Though possessing few imposing edifices, the town, seen from a distance with its irregular outline marked with many towers, its whitewashed houses gleaming among trees and terraced gardens, has a fine picture-que effect. Its picturesqueness, however, has been secured at the cost to a great extent of comfort, as many of its streets are narrow, dirty, and so steep as to be impassable for carriages. Of the old walls that surrounded the ancient town, remains are still to be seen. The principal street is the *Rua Nova dos Ingleses*, a spacious, handsome, modern thoroughfare, from which a good view of the Bishop's Palace, which seems to be hung high in the air, is obtained. Here is situated one of the finest edifices in O., the English Factory House, a building of white granite with a beautiful façade, and comprising on a magnificent scale all the appurtenances of a club-house, as ball-room, library, refreshment-room, &c. The houses in the *Rua Nova de S. Joao*, the most regular street in the city, are lofty, and are faced with gaily painted and gilt balconies. Of the 11 squares, the greatest is the *Praya de S. Ovidio* on a height, the appearance of which is enhanced by beautiful buildings and a terrace, with a fine seaward view, planted with trees. On the high rocks, on the southern bank of the river, stands the convent of *de Serra*, which at one time was extraordinarily rich. The most beautiful of the convents was that of *S. Bento*, now converted into barracks. The cathedral, which must originally have been a noble edifice, but has been infamously modernised, stands near the Bishop's Palace. The *Torre dos Clerigos* (Tower of the Clergy), said to be the highest in Portugal, was built in 1748. Formerly, there were in all 80 convents and chapels in the city. Of existing institutions, there are four hospitals, and numerous educational and benevolent establishments. O. is the principal industrial seat in the country. It carries on manufactures of linen, silk, cotton, and woollen fabrics, cloth of gold, silk and cotton hosiery, lace, buttons, gold and silver wire, cutlery and hardware, excellent furniture, pottery, glass, leather, paper, hats, sails, and the articles required on ship-board. Royal tobacco and soap-works, two iron-foundries, and several sugar-refineries are also in operation. The entrance to the Douro is rendered highly dangerous by a shifting bar of sand; but yet the commercial traffic on the river is considerable. The exports of wine were larger in 1874 than in any former year, amounting to 301,310 hectolitres, of which seven-elevenths was shipped for England. In 1871 O. imported cotton goods from England to the value of £329,488; woollen goods, £69,413—more than in any former year. O. builds very fast-sailing ships. In 1875 the port owned 137 ships of 38,540 tons. Pop. of O. 76,000.

In ancient times the site of O. was occupied by the harbor-town *Portus Cale*, afterwards *Porto Cale*, from which has been derived the name of the kingdom, Portugal. It was an important city during the supremacy of the Moors, was destroyed in 820 by Almanzor of Cordova, but was restored and peopled by a colony of Gascons and French in 999. It was famous for the strength of its fortifications during the middle ages, its walls being 3000 paces in circumference, 30 feet in height, and flanked

with towers. From the 17th to the present century, O. has been the scene of an unusual number of popular insurrections. In 1805, it was taken by the French; but in the following year it was retaken by an Anglo-Portuguese force under Wellington. In 1832, Dom Pedro, the ex-Emperor of Brazil, was unsuccessfully besieged in this city by the forces of Dom Miguel.

OPOSSUM (*Didelphis*), a genus of *Marsupiata*, having ten cutting teeth in the upper jaw, and eight in the lower, one canine tooth on each side in each jaw, three compressed premolars, and four sharply-tuberculated molars on each side—fifty teeth in all; the tongue bristly; the tail long, prehensile, and in part scaly; the feet plantigrade; five toes on each foot, their claws long and sharp; but the inner toe of the right foot converted into a thumb, destitute of a claw, and opposable to the other digits; the muzzle long and pointed, the mouth very wide, the ears large and destitute of hair. The unwebbed feet and non-aquatic habits distinguish this genus from *Cheironectes* (q. v.), also belonging to the family *Didelphidae*. But the genus *Didelphis* itself is divided by some naturalists into several genera; and there are differences not unimportant, particularly in the well-developed pouch of some species, and the merely rudimentary pouch or abdominal folds of others. All the existing species are American, but fossil species are found in other parts of the world. The opossums were the first marsupial animals known, and are noticed as very wonderful creatures by some of the earliest writers on America. Some of the smaller species much resemble rats and mice, except in their long and pointed muzzle; others greatly resemble shrews; the largest known species are scarcely equal in size to a large cat. It is in some of the smaller species that the pouch is rudimentary; all the larger species have a well-developed pouch, in which the young are carried, and to which, even after beginning to venture forth from it, they retreat on the approach of danger. The young of the species which have a merely rudimentary pouch, also remain attached to the nipple of the mother for a time; and afterwards for a time are carried on her back, intwining their prehensile tails with hers, and clinging to the fur of her back.—The VIRGINIAN O. (*D. Virginiana*) is one of the largest species. It abounds in the warmer parts of North America, and its range extends considerably to the north of Virginia. Its form is robust, its head very large, its color dull white; its fur long, fine, and woolly, thickly interspersed with longer coarse white hairs, except on the head and some of the upper parts, where the hair is short and close. The tail is not quite so long as the body. The Virginian O. lives much in forests and among the branches of trees, to which it usually retreats to devour its prey, twining its tail around a branch for security. Its food consists of small quadrupeds and reptiles, birds' eggs, and insects; also in part of fruits and the juicy stalks of plants. It often visits poultry-yards, and displays much cunning in its stealthy quest of prey; although otherwise it seems, like the other *Marsupiata*, to be very low in the scale of intelligence. It seeks to escape from enemies by running to the woods and ascending a tree; but if escape is impossible, it feigns death, and maintains the imposture in very trying circumstances, however it may be kicked and beaten; but the true state of the case may be ascertained by throwing it into water. The American word 'possumming' makes a figurative application of this part of the natural history of the opossum. The female sometimes produces sixteen young at a birth; the young when born are blind, naked, and shapeless, and weigh scarcely more than a grain each; they do not begin to leave the pouch until they have attained about the size of a mouse. The female O. shews a very strong attachment to her young. The O. is very easily tamed, but its strong odor makes it an unpleasant pet. The flesh of the O. is said to be good. The hair is woven into garters and girdles by the Indian women.—Other species of O. are found in the more southern parts of America. Of these, one of the largest is the CRAB-EATING O. (*D. cancrivora*) of Guiana and Brazil; which is nearly as large as the Virginian O., lives chiefly in marshy places, and feeds much on crabs. The smaller species are numerous in the tropical parts of America.—The name O. is often given in Australia to the Phalangers (q. v.).

O'PPENHEIM, a town of the grand duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt, in the province of Rhenish Hesse, on the left bank of the Rhine, 10 miles south-by-east from Mayence, and on the railway between Mayence and Spire. It stands on the steep slope of a hill abounding in vineyards, and carries on a pretty active trade in wine. O.

occupies the site of the Roman castle of Banconia, and was made a royal palatinate under the Carlovingians. It afterwards became one of the most important free towns of the empire. It was taken in 1218 by Archbishop Adalbert of Mayence, in 1620 by the Spaniards, in 1631 by the Swedes under Gustavus Adolphus, and in 1634 by the imperialists, suffering much upon all these occasions. In 1689, the French under Melac almost entirely destroyed it. The church of St Catharine, a fine specimen of the German architecture of 1262–1317, a kind of miniature of the Cologne cathedral, lies yet in a ruinous condition, except the eastern part, which was restored in 1838–1843. Pop. (1871) 8055.

O'PPELN, a town of Prussian Silesia, capital of the government district of the same name, on the Oder, 51 miles south-east of Breslau. Since 1816, when it was erected into an especial seat of government for Upper Silesia, the town has been much beautified both with new edifices and with parks and gardens. It contains four churches—one of which, Adelbert's Church, was founded in 995—an old castle on the island Paschke in the channel of the Oder, a town-house, and theatre. Pop. (1871) 11,879, who carry on a considerable transit-trade in timber, zinc, lead, hardware, cattle, and wines; and manufacture ribbons, linen goods, leather, and pottery.

OPPOSITION, the party in either House of the British parliament who are opposed to the existing government, and who would probably come into power on its displacement. The existence of a fair and temperate opposition, keeping a watch over the acts of the ministry, is undeniably conducive to good government; while, on the other hand, the conduct of public affairs may be seriously embarrassed by an opposition whose proceedings are conducted in a factious or obstructive spirit. The name Opposition is not generally applied to a party, merely because opposed to the existing administration, if there is no likelihood of their succeeding to power on a change of government.

#### OPTIC NERVE. See EYE.

O'PTICAL ILLUSION. Of all the senses none is more deceptive than the sense of sight; it often deceives us as to the distance, size, shape, and color of objects; it frequently makes them appear as if in situations where their existence is impossible; and often makes us think them movable when they are not so, and *vice versa*. An object appears to us as large or small, near or distant, according as the rays from its opposite borders meeting at the eye form a large or a small angle: when the angle is large, the object is either large or near; when small, the object must be small or distant. Practice alone enables us to decide whether an object of large apparent size is so on account of its real size, or of its proximity; and our decision is arrived at by a comparison of the object *in position*, with other common objects, such as trees, houses, &c., which may chance to be near it, and of which we have by experience come to form a correct idea. The same is, of course, true of apparently small objects. But when all means for comparison are removed, as when we see a distant object floating on an extensive sheet of water, or erect in an apparently boundless sandy plain, where no other object meets the eye, then our judgment is completely at fault. Imperfection in the acquired perceptions of sight, as it is called, produces many other illusions; it leads us to consider spherical solids at a distance as flat discs, and deceives us regarding the size of objects, by their color; the sun appears larger than he would if illuminated by a fainter light, and a man in a white habit seems larger than he would if he wore a dark dress. Illusions are also produced by external causes; and instances of this sort are given under MIRAGE, REFLECTION, and REFRACTION.

The property which the eye possesses of retaining an impression for a very brief, though sensible period of time (about one quarter of a second), after the object which produced the impression has been removed, produces a third class of illusions. Common examples of this are the illuminated circle formed by the rapid revolution of an ignited carbon point, piece of red-hot iron, or other luminous body, and the fiery curve produced by a red-hot shot projected from a cannon.

Another form of illusion is produced to a person who is seated in a vehicle in motion, and it is very deceptive when the motion is so equable as not to be felt by the person himself. The illusion is most complete when the attention is riveted on an object several yards off; this object then appears as a centre round which all the other objects seem to revolve, those between the observer and the object moving

backwards, and those beyond the object moving forwards. This illusion occurs on a larger scale in the apparent motion of the heavenly bodies.

Other illusions arise from a disordered state of the organs of vision; such are the seeing of things double or movable (if they are not so), or of a color different from the true one; the appearance as of insects crawling over a body at which the eye is directed, &c.

OPTICS is the science whose object is the investigation of the laws that regulate the phenomena of light and vision. The nature of light will be found treated of under LIGHT, and its various properties under CHROMATICS, DIFFRACTION, INTERFERENCE, LENS, POLARISATION, REFLECTION, REFRACTION, SPECTRUM, &c.; and we shall confine ourselves in this article to a historical sketch of the rise and progress of the science.

Optics, as a science, is entirely of modern growth, for though the Greeks and their disciples the Arabians had made some progress in mathematical optics, their knowledge was confined to the law of reflection and its more immediate consequences. Euclid, Aristotle, Archimedes, Hero, and Ptolemy were acquainted with the fact that light is transmitted in straight lines, but with the important exception of Aristotle, and some of his followers, the ancient philosophers believed that rays proceeded from the eye to the object, instead of in the contrary direction. Ptolemy was well acquainted with atmospheric refraction. Alhacen (1070) and Vitellio the Pole (1260) were almost the only cultivators of this science during the middle ages, and their additions to it were unimportant. The lens, though known from early antiquity, was not applied as an aid to defective eyesight till after the time of Roger Bacon. Jansen, Metius, and Galileo separately invented the telescope about the beginning of the 17th c.; and the last mentioned philosopher, by its means, made various important astronomical discoveries. Kepler, a short time after, gave the true theory of the telescope, explained the method of finding the focal length of lenses, and applied it to find the magnifying power of the telescope, besides pointing out the mode of constructing an instrument better adapted for astronomical purposes than that of Galileo; he also made some useful experiments on the nature of colors, and shewed that images formed on the retina of the eye are inverted, a fact previously discovered by Maurolycus of Messina. From this period the science of optics steadily advanced, and its treasury of facts received numerous additions through the labors of De Dominis, Snell (the discoverer of the law of refraction in 1621), Descartes, Fermat, Barrow, Mariotte, and Boyle. Up to the time of Newton it was generally believed that color was produced by refraction, but that philosopher shewed by a beautiful series of experiments that refraction only separates the colors already existing in white light. In his hands the theory and construction of the telescope underwent many valuable improvements, and in 1672 the description of his reflecting telescope was submitted to the Royal Society. Gregory had constructed an instrument on similar principles some years before. About the same time, Grimaldi made his interesting series of experiments on the effects of diffraction, and noticed the remarkable fact of the interference of one pencil of light with the action of another. The complete theory of the rainbow, with an elegant analysis of the colors of thin plates, and the hypothesis concerning the nature and propagation of light, now known as the "corpuscular" theory, completed Newton's contributions to the science. The important services of the ingenious but eccentric Hooke cannot be easily stated in such a brief abstract, as he discovered a little of everything, completed nothing, and occupied himself to a large extent in combating faulty points in the theories of his contemporaries. It must not, however, be forgotten that he has as much right as Huyghens to the credit of originating the undulatory theory, which is the favorite one at present. The double refraction of Iceland spar was discovered (1669) by Bartholin, and fully explained in 1690 by Huyghens, the proponnder of the undulatory theory, who also aided the progress of mathematical optics to a considerable extent. The velocity of light was discovered by Römer (1675), and in 1729 the aberration of the fixed stars and its cause were made known by Bradley, who likewise determined with accuracy the amount of atmospheric refraction. Bouguer, Porterfield, Euler, and Lambert rendered essential service to physical optics; the same was done for the mathematical theory by Dollond (the inventor of the achromatic telescope), Clairaut, Dalembert, Bozovich, &c.; while in later times the experts

ments of Deivai on the colors produced by reflection and refraction; the discussion of the phenomena arising from unusual reflection or refraction, carried on by Vince, Wollaston, Biot, Mouge, and others; the discovery of polarisation of light by Malus (1808), and its investigation by Brewster, Biot, and Seebeck; of depolarisation by Arago (1811), and of the optical properties as connected with the axes of crystals (1816) by Brewster; and the explanation of these and other optical phenomena, in accordance with the undulatory hypothesis by Young—the discoverer of the *Interference* (q. v.) of rays—and Fresnel, went far to give optics a width of scope and symmetry which is possessed by few other sciences. The development of the undulatory theory and of optical science generally has been carried on in the present century by Lloyd, Airy, Cauchy, and others: and more recently important discoveries in connection with the physical modifications and chemical properties of light have been made (the latter chiefly, as far as the spectrum is concerned, by Kirchhoff); for a notice of which, and other discoveries, see **PHOTOGRAPHY**, **SPECTRUM**, and other articles.

**O'PTIMISM** (Lat. *optimus*, best), the name given to the doctrine of those philosophers and divines who hold that the existing order of things, whatever may be its seeming imperfections of detail, is nevertheless, as a whole, the most perfect or the best which could have been created, or which it is possible to conceive. Some of the advocates of optimism content themselves with maintaining the absolute position, that although God was not by any means bound to create the most perfect order of things, yet the existing order is *de facto* the best; others contend, in addition, that the perfection and wisdom of Almighty God necessarily require that His creation should be the most perfect which it is possible to conceive. The philosophical discussions of which this controversy is the development are as old as philosophy itself, and form the groundwork of all the systems, physical as well as moral, whether of the Oriental or of the Greek philosophy; of Dualism, Parseism, and of the Christian Gnosticism and Manicheism in the east; and in the west, of the Ionian, the Eleatic, the Atomistic; no less than of the later and more familiar, Stoic, Peripatetic, and Platonistic Schools. In the philosophical writings of the fathers, of Origen, Clement of Alexandria, and above all of Augustine, the problem of the seeming mixture of good and evil in the world is the great subject of inquiry, and through all the subtleties of the medieval schools it continued to hold an important and prominent place. But the full development of the optimistic theory as a philosophical system was reserved for the celebrated Leibnitz, (q. v.). It forms the subject of his most elaborate work, entitled "Theodicea," the main thesis of which may be briefly stated to be—that among all the systems which presented themselves to the infinite intelligence of God, as possible, God selected and created, in the existing universe, the best and most perfect, physically as well as morally. The "Theodicea," published in 1700, was designed to meet the sceptical theories of Bayle, by shewing not only that the existence of evil, moral and physical, is not incompatible with the general perfection of the created universe, but that God, as all-wise, all-powerful, and all-perfect, has chosen out of all possible creations the best and most perfect; that had another more perfect creation been present to the divine intelligence, God's wisdom would have required of Him to select it; and that if another, even equally perfect, had been possible, there would not have been any sufficient determining motive for the creation of the present world. The details of the controversial part of the system would be out of place in this work. It will be enough to say that the existence of evil, both moral and physical, is explained as a necessary consequence of the finiteness of created beings; and it is contended that in the balance of good and evil in the existing constitution of things, the preponderance of the former is greater than in any other conceivable creation. The great argument of the optimists is the following: If the present universe be not the best that is possible, it must be either because God did not know of the (supposed) better universe, or because God was not able to create that better one, or was not willing to create it. Now every one of these hypotheses is irreconcilable with the attributes of God; the first, with His omniscience; the second, with His omnipotence; and the third, with His goodness. See Leibnitz, "Theodicea;" Baumeister's "Historia de Mundo Optimo." The view of the universe diametrically opposed to O. is **Pessimism** (*peorinus*, worst), and has of late been frequently maintained; see Sully's "Pessimism" (1871).

## OPUNTIA. See PRICKLY PEAR.

O'PUS OPERA'NTIS (Lat. literally "the work of the worker"), a well-known theological phrase, intended to convey that the effect of a particular ministration or rite is primarily and directly due, not to the rite itself (*opus*), but to the dispositions of the recipient (*operans*). Thus, in the act of kissing or praying before a crucifix, of sprinkling one's self with holy water, of telling the prayers of the rosary upon blessed beads, the fervor and personal piety of the supplicant, and not the material object of the religious use, is held to be the efficient cause of the grace which is thereby imparted. The term is used chiefly by writers of the Romau Catholic schools, in whose system, however, the sacramental rites are held to differ from all others in this respect. See *Opus OPERATUM*.

OPUS OPERATUM (Lat. literally "the work wrought") is the phrase employed in the Catholic theological schools to describe the manner of the supposed operation of the sacramental rites in the production of Grace (q. v.). It is intended to imply that the ministration of the rite (*opus*) is in itself, through the institution of Christ, an efficient cause of grace, and that, although its operation is not infallible, but requires and presupposes certain dispositions on the part of the recipient, yet these dispositions are but *conditiones sine qua non*, and do not of themselves produce the grace; and hence, when the sacraments are administered to dying persons in a state of apparent insensibility, this is done in the hope and on the presumption that the dying person may, though seemingly unconscious, be nevertheless really disposed to receive the sacrament; but it is by no means held that if these dispositions be wanting, the sacrament will itself justify him. It is a mistake, therefore, to suppose, as is often done in popular controversy, that Catholics ascribe to the sacramental rites such magical or talismanic power that they can sanctify even an unrepentant sinner. Their efficacious operation *presupposes as conditions* the repentance and other moral dispositions of the recipient, although the grace which they give is *due, not to these dispositions, but to the sacraments as received with the dispositions*.

OR, in Heraldry, the metal gold, represented in heraldic engravings by an unlimited number of dots.

O'RACHE (*Atriplex*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Chenopodiaceae*, having male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers; the male and hermaphrodite flowers with a 3-5-partite calyx, and 3-5 stamens; the female flowers with a compressed and 2-lobed or 2-partite calyx. The species are numerous. Some of them are of frequent occurrence in waste places, and as weeds in gardens in Britain and throughout Europe. GARDEN O. (*A. hortensis*), also called MOUNTAIN SPINACH, was formerly much cultivated in England, and is still cultivated in some parts of Europe as a substitute for spinach. It is a native of Tartary, an annual, with a stem about three feet high, and cordate-triangular leaves, which are thick and glaucous, and have a slightly acid flavor. The leaves are sometimes greenish, sometimes reddish, which is the case also in other species, and the flowers resemble the leaves in color.—The leaves of the SEA O. (*A. littoralis*), a native of the British coasts, are used in the same manner, and those of the common garden-weeds, *A. patula* and *A. angustifolia*, are excellent sub-tutes for spinach.—It is mentioned in Reiny and Brenchley's "Journey to the Salt Lake City," that an orache, with pale pink leaves and a salt taste, is cultivated by the Indians on the Humboldt River for its seed, which resembles that of Quinoa (q. v.), and is used like it for making porridge and bread.

O'RACLE, the response delivered by a deity or supernatural being to a worshipper or inquirer; also the place where the response was delivered. These responses were supposed to be given by a certain divine afflatus, either through means of mankind, as in the orgiisms of the Pythia, and the dreams of the worshipper in the temples; or by its effect on certain objects, as the tinkling of the cauldrons at Dodona, the rustling of the sacred laurel, the murmuring of the streams; or by the actions of sacred animals, as exemplified in the Apis or sacred bull of Memphis, and the feeding of holy chickens of the Romans. This arose, in fact, from the idea that the deity signified his intentions to men by signs or inspirations, which, however, had always to be interpreted to the inquirer by the priesthood. Such responses were, however, closely allied to augury, which differed in this respect that auguries could

be taken anywhere, while the oracular spots were denned and limited. Oracle dates from the highest antiquity, and flourished in the most remote ages, and gradually declined with the increasing knowledge of mankind. Among the Egyptians all the temples were probably oracular, although only a few are mentioned by Herodotus, as the oracle of Latonn, in the city of Buto; those of Hercules, Mars, Thebes, and Meroe. In the hieroglyphic texts the gods speak constantly in an oracular manner, and their consultation by the Pharaohs is occasionally mentioned. In later days the most renowned of these oracles was that of Ammon, in the Oasis (q. v.), where oracular responses were rendered either by the shaking of the statue of the god, or by his appearance in a certain manner. Oracles were also used by the Hebrews, as in the consultation of the Uriim and Thummim by the high priest, and the unlawful use of Teraphims, and consultations of the gods of Phoenicia and Samaria. The Hebrew oracles were by word of mouth, as the speech of God to Moses, dreams, visions, and prophetical denunciations; besides which, there were oracles in Phoenicia, as that of Beizebub and others of the Baalim. They were also in use throughout Babylonia and Chaldea, where the responses were delivered by dreams given to the priestesses, who slept alone in the temples as concubines of the gods. So numerous were they in the ancient world, that 300 are said to have been in existence.

The most celebrated oracles of Asia Minor were those of Telmessos in Caria or Lycia, which gave responses by dreams, and that of Apollo at Patara; but the Grecian oracles enjoyed the highest reputation for truthfulness, and the most celebrated of these were the Dodonean, the Delphic, and that of Trophonius and Amphiarous. The Dodonean (see DODONA) was the only oracle in Greece which was given by Jupiter; the others were either those of Apollo, or of certain soothsayers, to whom that god had imparted the gift of prophecy, or of other gods. The most renowned of all was the Delphic oracle (see DELPHI), and was Panhellenic or open to all Greece, consulted for public purposes, and occupying a position resembling in some respects that of the papacy in the middle ages in Europe. The name of the first priestess who gave oracles was Phemone. The consultations were generally in the Delphic month, *Bysios* or April, and once a day on other months; and the precedence of consulting the oracle was determined by lot, but rich presents obtained for Croesus and the Lydians the privilege of first consultation. Sacrifices were offered by the inquirers, who walked with laurel wreves on their heads, and delivered in sealed questions; the response was deemed infallible, and was usually dictated by justice, sound sense, and reason, till the growing political importance of the shrine rendered the guardians of it fearful to offend, when they framed the answers in ambiguous terms, or allowed the influence of gold and presents to corrupt the inspirations. The other oracles of Apollo were at Aba in Phocis; at Ptoon, where a man prophesied, which was destroyed in the days of Alexander the Great; and at Ismenus, south of Thebes, Hysia, Tebyra, and Eutressis. In Asia Minor the most celebrated was that of Branchidae, close to Miletus, celebrated in Egypt, Gryneum, and Delos. Besides that of Dodona, Zeus had another at Olympia; and those of various other deities existed elsewhere. A secondary class of oracles of heroic or prophetic persons existed in Greece, the two most celebrated of which were those of Amphiarous and Trophonius. The first mentioned was one of the five great oracles in the days of Croesus, and was situate at Oropus, in Attica, being the shrine of a deified magician, or interpreter of dream, having a fountain close to it. Those who consulted it, fasted a whole day, abstained from wine, sacrificed a ram to Amphiarous, and slept on the skin in the temple, where their destiny was revealed by dreams. That of Trophonius was at Lebadea, in Boetia, and owed its origin to a deified seer. It was given in a cave, into which the votary descended, bathed, and anointed, holding a honeyed cake. He obtained a knowledge of futurity by what he saw or heard, and returned dejected from the cavern. Then, seated upon the seat of Memnosyne, he gave an account of what he had heard, and conducted to the chapel of Good Fortune or Good Genius, recovered his usual composure. There were some other oracles of minor importance. Besides these oracles, written ones existed of the prophecies of celebrated seers, as Bach and Musaeus, which were collected by the Pisistratidae, and kept in the Acropolis of Athens. Those of the Euchus, Panolimus, and Lycus were also celebrated. Others of the Sibyls or prophetic women, daughters of Zeus and Lamia, were popular, and at a later period (see SIBYLLE),

Athenais and others, prophesied in the days of the Seicnidae. Amongst the oriental nations, as the Arabs and others, divination was and is extensively practised, but there are no set oracles. The Celtic Druids are said to have delivered responses, and the oracle of the Celtic god Belenus or Abellio, in the Isle de Sein, was celebrated. Herodot. "Hist." v. 89, viii. 52; Curtius, iv. 7; Hare, "Ancient Greeks" (12 mo. Lond. 1836, p. 141); Bos, "Antiquities of Greece" (1823, p. 31).

ORA'N (Arab. *Waran*), a thriving municipal town and seaport of Algeria, capital of the province of the same name, stands at the inner extremity of the Gulf of Oran, 220 miles west-south-west of Algiers. The province of Oran, sometimes called the province of the West, from the fact of its forming the western frontier of the country, is bounded on the n. by the Mediterranean, on the e. by the province of Algiers, on the w. by the empire of Morocco, and on the s. by the desert. Area about 100,000 sq. miles, of which 13,514 belong to the Tell (q. v.), and a large portion to the Sahara. Pop. (1872) 513,492, four-fifths of whom were Arabs. The town of O. is the seat of the government offices—the prefecture, the civil, criminal, commercial tribunals, &c. It also contains a college, primary and native schools, Protestant and other churches; synagogues; mosques; a branch of the bank of Algeria; exchequer, post, and telegraph offices; three great barracks, St Philippe, le Château-Neuf, and le Château-Vieux; a military hospital, with accommodation for 1400 beds (an immense new building, which overtops all surrounding edifices), and various splendidly appointed magazines and government stores. The town, which is girt by walls, and defended by strongly armed forts, is seated at the foot of a high mountain, crowned by the forts Santa-Cruz and Saint-Gregoire. The port does not offer safe anchorage, although it has been much improved within recent years. Large vessels, however, have still to find shelter in the roadstead of Mers-el-Kebir, three miles distant. The streets and promenades of O. are generally spacious, the houses elegant and airy. The principal edifices are the Château-Neuf, the residence of the general of division; the Hôtel de la Préfecture; the great mosque de la Rue Philippe; the Catholic church; and the barracks. Pop. of commune, comprising the three suburbs, Mers-el-Kebir, La Senia, and Ain-el-Turk (1872) 40,674. The country in the vicinity is bare and arid, although the land is not sterile. To the south of the town the country is uncultivated, but towards the south-east highly cultivated lands are seen. In the vicinity there are a great many farms, cultivated with the greatest care, and most of them furnished with buildings necessary to their efficiency. Cattle are reared, and grain, tobacco, and cotton are grown. The vine already covers large tracts of land, and its cultivation is annually extending. It is cultivated with the most complete success, and the wines are of good quality.

Besides the commune of O., there are in the province the communes of Sidi-hel-Abbès (q. v.), of Mostaganem (pop. 11,950), of Mascara (pop. 8629), and of Tlemcen (q. v.).

The town of O. was built by the Moors. It was taken by the Spaniards in 1509, by the Turks in 1708, and again by the Spaniards in 1732. In 1791 it was destroyed by an earthquake, and shortly after it was altogether abandoned by the Spaniards. O. was taken by the French in 1831, has since remained in their hands, and has by them been developed into a large and prosperous town. Vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 65,000 tons enter and clear the port yearly. The annual imports amount to about £1,307,700, and the exports to £261,990. A bishopric was established at O. in the year 1807.

ORA'NG, or Orang-Oonta'ng (*Simia satyrus*, or *Pithecius satyrus*, or *P. Abelii*) a species of ape found in the forests of Malacca, Cochin-China, and some of the islands of that part of the world. The name is sometimes extended in signification, so as to include all species of the restricted genus *Simia* or *Pithecius*, a genus which exists only in the south-east of Asia and the Eastern Archipelago; and was also till of late extended even to the African apes now forming the genus *Troglodytes*, the species which is the subject of this article being distinctively called the RED O., when it and the Chimpanzee were the only *anthropoid* apes known. The name orang is Malayan, and signifies man or rational being; outang signifies wild, or of the woods. The genus *Simia* or *Pithecius* differs from *Troglodytes* (the Chimpanzee and Gorilla) in the more lengthened muzzle—the lower part of the face projecting suddenly and re-

markably; in the very large canine teeth; in the great breadth of the central incisors; and in the great length of the arms, which are so long that the fingers can touch the ground when the animal stands erect. The ears are also small, and lie close to the head. The eyes are close together; the nose is little elevated; the lips are scarcely visible when the mouth is shut. The apes of this genus are arboreal in their habits, and not gregarious. They are ill adapted for walking on the ground, and in a wild state probably almost never assume an erect posture, and although they can be taught to do it in confinement, they maintain it with difficulty, and only when standing still; even then often seeking to adjust the balance of the body by raising the arms above and behind the head. In climbing and swinging among the branches of trees, the hands of the hinder extremities are used as readily as those of the anterior, and the great length of the arms is useful in enabling them to take hold of distant branches. The fingers of all the extremities are very long.

Some of the most important distinctions between the anatomy of the anthropoid apes and that of man, are noticed in the article CHIMPANZEE. The O. and its congeners are regarded as differing more widely from man in their anatomical characters than the chimpanzee and gorilla; although the number of ribs is the same as in man, and there are a few other particulars in which the O. more nearly resembles a human being than any of the African apes do. The projecting muzzle is much less notable in the young than in the adult O., and the aspect of the adult males is further rendered hideous by great callosities on the cheeks. In the adult state, the ridges of the skull also greatly increase in thickness and prominence.

The species of this genus exhibit in a much greater degree than those of *Troglodytes* an anatomical character common also to many other apes and monkeys, a pouch in the throat, opening from the windpipe, and capable of being dilated with air at the pleasure of the animal. In the O., it branches into several subordinate pouches, which are situated among the muscles of the throat. The use of this organ is not known. It does not appear to have any connection with the voice; and has been supposed, not very probably, to be of some service in leaping, by diminishing the specific gravity of the animal.

There are at least two other species of the genus besides that best known as the O., one of these being the great Pongo (q. v.) of Borneo (*S.* or *P. Wormbiti*), and the other (*S.* or *P. morio*), also a native of Borneo, of comparatively small size. The natural history of these apes has not been thoroughly investigated; and, until recently, it was supposed that the species first known might be identical with the great ape believed to exist in the wood, and that the differences of size and other characters might depend merely on age. The O. is about three feet in length from the heel to the crown of the head. It is covered with brownish-red hair, which, on the back and arms, is five or six inches long, but very short on the backs of the hands and feet. There is little hair on the face, and none on the palms of the hands. When taken young, it is easily tamed, and becomes sufficiently familiar. It displays considerable sagacity, and some playfulness and love of mischief, but is not so frolicsome as many of the monkey tribe. Young specimens have sometimes been brought to Europe, but none have lived long. The temper is believed to change very much to the worse, when the animal reaches maturity.

**ORANGE**, the name of one or more species of *Citrus* (q. v.), of which the fruit is much prized. Botanists generally regard all the oranges as of one species, *Citrus aurantium*, but some follow Rissö in making the Sweet O., the Bitter O., the Bergamot O., &c., distinct species. The wild state of the O. is not certainly known, although its characters may be pretty confidently inferred from the degeneration of cultivated varieties; and no cultivated plant shews a greater liability to degenerate, so that seedling oranges are almost always worthless. Nor is its native country more certain, although there is much reason to believe that all the kinds have spread over the world from the warmer central and eastern parts of Asia. It has been alleged that the O. is a native of North America, near the Gulf of Mexico; but the probability rather seems to be that it has been introduced, and has become naturalised.

The COMMON O., or SWEET O. (*Citrus aurantium* of Rissö), is an evergreen tree of moderate size, with greenish-brown bark; the leaves oblong, acute, sometimes minutely serrated, the leaf-stalks more or less winged, the flowers white, the fruit roundish, the oil-cysts of the rind convex, the juice sweet and acid. It is cultivated

in almost every part of the world of which the climate is warm enough, but succeeds best in the warmer temperate or sub-tropical climates, as in the south of Europe, where it is very extensively cultivated, as far north as the south of France. The O. does not seem to have been known to the Greeks or Romans, but was probably brought to Europe by the Moors, and is supposed to have been introduced into Italy so recently as the 14th c., fully 1000 years after the citron. In the north of Italy, oranges are sometimes grown in conservatories, but often in the open air, except during winter, when they are covered with temporary houses of boards. In the south of England, they are sometimes in like manner grown in the open air, with a shelter of boards or matting in winter, but trained against a south wall; attaining a large size, and yielding good fruit. The abundant importation of the fruit, however, renders the cultivation of the O. in Britain unnecessary; and, in general, only small plants are to be seen in green-houses or conservatories, as mere objects of interest. In former times, when the evergreen shrubs in cultivation were much fewer than now, O. trees were very commonly cultivated in pots, both in green-houses and in windows of apartments in Britain, as is still the case in the northern parts of Germany. The O. loves rich soil, and succeeds well in a strong clay. There are many varieties in cultivation, which are perpetuated by grafting upon seedling O. stocks, and by layers.

Of the varieties of the Sweet O., perhaps the most deserving of notice are the PORTUGAL or LISBON O., the most common of all, having the fruit generally round or nearly so, and a thick rind; the CHINA O., said to have been brought by the Portuguese from China, and now much cultivated in the south of Europe, having a smooth thin rind and very abundant juice; the MALTESE or BLOOD O., remarkable for the blood-red color of its pulp; the EGG O., having fruit of an oval shape; and the TANGERINE O., having a small flat fruit, with a pleasant odor and finely flavored pulp. The ST MICHAEL'S O. appears to be a subvariety of the China Orange. The MAJORCA O. is seedless, resembling in this certain cultivated varieties of other fruits.

The BITTER O., SEVILLE O., or BIGARADE (*Citrus vulgaris*, or *C. bigardia*), is distinguished from the Sweet O. by the more truly elliptical leaves, the acid and bitter juice of the fruit, and the concave oil-cysts of its rind. Its branches are also spiny, which is rarely the case with the Sweet Orange. The varieties in cultivation are numerous. The Bitter O. was extensively cultivated by the Moors in Spain, probably for medicinal purposes. The rind is more bitter than that of the Sweet O., and is used as a stomachic and tonic. Its chief use, however, is for flavoring puddings, cakes, &c., and for making marmalade.

The BERGAMOT O. (*C. Bergamia*) is noticed in a separate article.

The MANDARIN O., or CLOVE O. (*C. nobilis*), recently introduced from China, has fruit much broader than long, with a thick rind, very loosely attached to the flesh, so that there is often a space between them. The leaves are smaller than those of any other kind of orange.

O. leaves are feebly bitter, and contain a fragrant volatile oil, which is obtained by distilling them with water, and is known in the shops as *Essence de Petit Grain*. O. flowers yield, when distilled with water, a fragrant volatile oil, called *Oil of Neroli*, which is used in making *Eau de Cologne*, and for other purposes of perfumery. The flowers both of the Sweet O. and of the Bitter O. yield it, but those of the Bitter O. are preferred. Dried O. flowers, to be distilled for this oil, are an article of export from the south of Europe. They are packed in barrels, and mixed with salt. The dried flowers have a yellowish color; the fresh flowers are white and very fragrant. The use of them as an ornament in the head-dress of brides is common throughout great part of the world.—The small green oranges, from the size of a pea to the size of a cherry, which fall from the trees, both of the Sweet O. and the Bitter O., when the crop is too great to be brought to maturity, are carefully gathered and dried, and are the O. berries of the shops. They are used in making Curacao. They also yield a fragrant oil on distillation, the original *essence de petit grain*; and they are smoothed in a turning-lathe, and employed as *tissue pease*; not readily acquiring a fetid odor, as pease do when employed for this purpose.—The dried and candied rind of the ripe Bitter O., well known as *Orange-peel*, is used as a stomachic, and very largely for flavoring puddings and articles of confectionery. The rind of the Sweet O. is sometimes employed in the same way, but is inferior. A fragrant

essential oil is obtained from the rind of the O. by distillation with water, and is sold by perfumers as *Oil of Sweet O.*, or *Oil of Bitter O.*, according as it is obtained from the one or the other, although the two kinds of oil are very similar. The rind of the O. is used in the preparation of a fine liqueur called *O. Rosoglio*, which is an article of export from some parts of Italy. Besides the use of the Sweet O. as a dessert fruit, and as a refrigerant in cases of sickness, its juice is extensively used as a refrigerant beverage, and is particularly valuable in febrile and inflammatory complaints.

O. trees are often extremely fruitful, so that a tree twenty feet high, and occupying a space of little more than twelve feet in diameter, sometimes yields from 8000 to 4000 oranges in a year. The O. tree attains an age of at least 100 to 150 years. Young trees are less productive than old ones, and the fruit is also less juicy, has a thicker rind, and more numerous seeds.

The wood of the O. tree is yellowish white and close-grained. It is used for inlaying and for turnery.

The fruit of the O. tree is of great commercial importance, for not only is it one of the most delicious and wholesome of fruits, but fortunately it is also the most easily kept and carried from place to place. No fresh fruit possesses in the same degree as the O., and its congeners, the lemon, citron, lime, &c., the property of being easily packed in boxes, when nearly ripe, and being in that state able to stand the close confinement of a ship's hold during a voyage of two or three weeks. The O. is much cultivated in the Azores, Malta, Sicily, Spain, and Portugal, and it is from these localities that Britain receives its supply. Those from St. Michael's, one of the Azores, and from Malta, are the best varieties in our markets; but the Mandarin O. of China and the Navel O. of South America are much superior. The latter occasionally reach this country in small quantities from Brazil; they are nearly double the size of the ordinary O., and have a peculiar navel-like formation on the top of the fruit, which is somewhat oval in shape. The very small O., now often seen in our shops, with an extremely aromatic rind, is the Tangerine O., of which there are two varieties—the greater and lesser. The latter is hardly an inch in diameter, but the flesh is sweet, and the rind deliciously fragrant. The larger variety is about half the size of a common O., and is the one generally seen.

The Bitter O. is called the Seville O. in consequence of large plantations, which the Moors planted round the city of Seville, having for a long time furnished the chief part of those used in this country; but it also has several varieties, which are all remarkable for the bitterness of the rind, and the not very pleasant sharpness of the juice. Their chief use is for making the well-known confection called Orange Marmalade, and for this the true *Large-fruited* variety is the best, but it is now somewhat scarce.

Oranges, when gathered for export, must not be quite ripe; those fully formed, and with the color just turning from green to yellow, are chosen. Each is wrapped in a piece of paper, or in the husk of Indian corn, and they are packed in boxes and half-boxes, chests and half-chests—the former are the Sicilian packages, the latter are St. Michael's, Spanish, and Portuguese. A box contains about 250, a chest about 1000 oranges; and the price ranges from 15s. to 30s. per box, and from 30s. to 60s. a chest. The crop begins to arrive early in November, and the ships continue to bring them until the spring. The quantity consumed in Great Britain alone is enormous; and since the duty was removed, has reached nearly two millions of bushels annually.

Orange-peel, or the rind of the O., is used both in medicine and in confectionary—for the former purpose, it is merely cut into long strips, and dried; for the latter, it is carefully separated, either in halves or quarters, from the fruit, and after lying in salt water for a time, is washed in clear water, and then boiled in syrup of sugar, or candied, and is sold, extensively as candied peel. The rinds of the citron and lemon are treated in the same manner.

ORANGE (the ancient *Arausio*), an ill-built, decaying, and dirty, but also an interesting town of France, in the department of Vaucluse, stands in a beautiful plain on the left bank of the Aigue, 16 miles by railway north of Avignon. Its chief manufactures are silks, muslins, serges, &c.; and there are numerous oilworks, dye-works, and tanneries. It carries on a considerable trade in wine, spirits, oils, truffles, saffron, honey, madder, and essences. Pop. (1872) 6290.

O. was the capital of a small independent principality of the same name (now comprised in the department of Vaucluse), which was ruled by its own sovereigns from the 11th to the 18th century. The last of these sovereigns, Philibert de Châlon, died in 1531, without issue. His sister, however, had married a Count of Nassau, and to that House the estates and titles passed. The Count of Nassau who obtained the principality of O. was William, the father of William I., the Stadholder of the United Provinces (see WILLIAM, PRINCE OF O.). William III., Prince of Orange and king of England, having died in 1702 without issue, there began a long-continued controversy as to the succession between Frederick I. of Prussia (as grandson of one of the last princes of O.), the representative of the older branch of the house of Nassau (q. v.), and the head of the younger line. At the peace of Utrecht (1713) the king of Prussia took the settlement into his own hands, so far as the territory of O. was concerned, by making it over, for certain equivalents, to the king of France. The title, Prince of O., remained with the younger Nassau line, afterwards kings of the Netherlands, and is now borne by the heir-presumptive to the Dutch throne.

In the vicinity of O. are several notable Roman remains. The triumphal arch, 60 feet high, is celebrated for the beauty of its architecture, and for its richly sculptured *bassi-relievi*. Of the theatre, the remains are sufficiently entire to give a good idea of the arrangements of this institution as it existed among the Romans.

O'RANGE, a township in New Jersey, U. S., four miles north-west of Newark, containing three villages, Orange, North Orange, and South Orange. Orange Mountain commands a noble view of New York City and Bay, and its slope is laid out in beautiful parks, and ornamented with villas. It is the site of a Roman Catholic College and a Water-cure establishment. Pop. in 1870, 9348.

ORANGE COLORS, for painters' use, are various shades of alteration produced on chrome yellow (see YELLOW), by acting on it either with diacetate of lead or a weak alkaline lye, both of which redden the otherwise pure yellow, and give it an orange tint.—For dyers, a beautiful orange red is obtained from safflower; and orange yellows are made by mixing, in proper proportions, any of the red with the yellow dyes.

#### ORANGE RIVER. See GARIEP.

ORANGE RIVER FREE STATE. The Orange River Free State is the name assumed by the republic of Dutch boers, who, after retiring from Natal when declared a British colony, established themselves in the country lying between the two great branches of the Orange River, the Ky Gariep and the Gariep, known to the colonists as the Vaal and Orange Rivers, and separated from the coast region by the great chain of the Quathlumba, Maluti, and Drachenberg mountains.

The Orange River Free State forms a sort of connecting-link between the Cape Colony, the Transvaal Territory, and Natal. It consists chiefly of vast undulating plains, which slope down from the Maluti Mountains to the Vaal River, dotted over here and there with rocky hills, locally called "Koppies," although in the northern part hundreds of square miles are found with hardly a break on the horizon. It comprises an area of above 50,000 square miles.

When the emigrant Dutch boers took possession of this country, it was inhabited by different tribes of Betsouanas and Coranas, all of whom have been dispersed, except the powerful Basuto tribe, under the chief Moshesh, who still maintain themselves in the fastnesses of the Maluti Mountains, and a few Batlapi and other Betsouanas, who dwell round the Wesleyan mission station of Thab' Unchu and Mera-metsu.

All the rivers of this region are affluents of either of the branches of the Gariep; amongst them may be named the Modder, Valsch, Great and Little Vet, which run into the Ky Gariep or Vaal River, and the Caledon, a considerable stream, which joins the Orange River after draining the Basuto country.

This region is a vast plateau, rising from 3000 to 5000 feet above the sea-level, with very little wood, except along the lines of the water-courses that traverse it. Travellers crossing this state from the Cape Colony to Natal arrive at the top of the passes leading to the latter colony without a mountain being in sight, and then find themselves suddenly on the edge of an immense mountain-chain, with the coast region several thousand feet below them, extending to the Indian Ocean. Immense herds of the larger antelopes formerly tenanted these vast plains, and are vividly

described by Captain Harris, Gordon Cumming, and others; they are now fast disappearing. The diamond-fields recently discovered lie in this state, and in Griqua Land, a narrow strip of territory bounding it on the west.

The Free State is divided into the following districts: Bloem Fontein (chief towns, Bloem Fontein the capital, Boshof); Winburg (chief towns, Winburg, Cronstadt); Smithfield (chief town, Smithfield); Harrismith (chief town, Harrismith); Fauresmith (chief town, Fauresmith). The chief town Bloem Fontein is situated about 150 miles north-west of Colesberg, on a tributary of the Modder River, in lat. 29° S. s. It contains about 250 houses; a Dutch, Episcopal, and Roman Catholic Church; has two local banks, and is the seat of an Episcopal see of the Church of England. It is distant about 800 miles overland from Cape Town, and has a post twice a week with it. The other villages or small towns are all increasing and flourishing, but do not present anything remarkable.

By the latest returns (1868) the population of the Free State was 37,000 whites, of whom about 2000 were English. In 1875—1876, the revenue, principally derived from local taxation and quit-rents of farms, was £108,691.

The history of the country forming the Free State may be summed up in a few words. Captain Harris describes it, before 1836, as a howling wilderness, inhabited by wandering hordes of Bushmen and broken tribes of Beijouana and Zulu refugees from the armies of the great Zulu tyrants, Chaka, Dingaan, and Masekutse. After the Kaffir war of 1835—1836, a spirit of dissatisfaction arising in the minds of many of the frontier boers, an extensive emigration took place along the north-east frontier of the Cape Colony; the majority of the emigrants, however, having Natal as their ultimate goal. However, after the British government had declared it an English colony in 1843, the boers again fell back on this region, and by degrees declaring their independence of the British crown, and forming a sort of Alsatis on our very borders, after some opposition, and one or two conflicts with our troops, the country was annexed by Sir H. Smith to the British empire, under the name of the Orange River Sovereignty; and continued so until 1854, when Sir G. Clerk formally gave it up, and allowed the inhabitants to form a government according to their own wishes. The government is now in the hands of a president, freely elected by the landrost and heemraad in the several districts; while the volksraad, or people's council, exercise legislative functions. This state labors under the very serious disadvantage of being, like the kingdom of Bohemia, entirely inland, and has no port on the ocean at which customs dues can be collected; thus throwing the whole of the expense of government on local taxation.

About the year 1862, a large number of Griquas—a tribe of Bastard Hottentots, who inhabited the south part of the state—sold their farms to the Free State government, and migrated in a body to the coast side of the mountains in Independent Kaffraria, occupying a large tract of country there known by the name of No Man's Land.

In 1866, a treaty was concluded with Moshele, chief of the Basutos, by which a portion of the territory known as Basuto Land was ceded to the O. R. F. S. The boundaries agreed on by this treaty were, however, somewhat modified by the governor of Cape Colony in 1869—a significant fact.

The Dutch boers profess the Dutch Reformed faith, and speak a dialect of Dutch, corrupted with Hottentot and English words. They marry young, and keep up, to some extent, nomadic habits. The roads and internal communication are good. Lime and timber are rather scarce, but building stone and thatch abundant. Woollen sheep have increased amazingly within the last few years; and farms that ten years ago would hardly fetch £50, now sell at from £2000 to £3000. The value of imports in 1875 was £697,025; of exports, £1,530,883.

O'RANGEMAN, one of the unhappy party designations which contributed for nearly a century to create and keep alive religious and political divisions of the worst character throughout the British empire, but especially in Ireland. The Orange organisation had its origin in the animosities which had subsisted between Protestants and Catholics in Ireland from the Reformation downwards, but which reached their full development after the Revolution of 1688, and the wholesale confiscations of Catholic property by which that event was followed. From that time, the Catholics of Ireland may be said legally to have lost all social, political, and religious status in Ireland. Some attempts which were made in the latter part of the 18th c. to ameliorate the

condition, excited, especially in the north, the alarm of the Protestant party, who regarded the traditional "Protestant ascendancy" as endangered. Acts of violence became of frequent occurrence, and, as commonly happens, combinations for aggressive and defensive purposes were formed, not alone by the Protestants, but also by their Catholic antagonists. The members of the Protestant associations appear at first to have been known by the name of "Peep-of-day Boys," from the time at which their violences were commonly perpetrated; the Catholics who associated together for self-defence being called "Defenders." Collisions between armed bodies of these parties became of frequent occurrence. In 1785, a pitched battle, attended with much blood-shed, was fought in the county of Armagh. The steps taken to repress these disorders were at once insufficient in themselves to prevent open violence, and had the effect of diverting the current into the still more dangerous channel of secret associations. The rude and illiterate mob of Peep-of-day Boys made way for the rich and influential organisation of the Orange Society, which, having its first origin in the same obscure district which had so long been the scene of agrarian violence, by degrees extended its ramifications into every portion of the British empire, and into every grade of society from the hovel to the very steps of the throne. The name of the Orange association is taken from that of the Prince of Orange, William III., and was assumed in honor of that prince, who, in Ireland, has been popularly identified with the establishment of that Protestant ascendancy which it was the object of the Orange association to sustain. The first "Orange Lodge" was founded in the village of Loughgall, county Armagh, September 21, 1795. The immediate occasion of the crisis was a series of outrages by which Catholics were forcibly ejected from their houses and farms. 12 or 14 houses being sometimes, according to a disinterested witness, wrecked in a single night; terminating, September 1795, in an engagement, called from the place where it occurred, the Battle of the Diamond. The association which began among the ignorant peasantry soon worked its way upwards. The general disaffection towards English rule, which at that time pervaded Ireland, and in which the Catholics, as a natural consequence of their oppressed condition, largely participated, tended much to identify in the mind of Protestants the cause of disloyalty with that of popery; and the rebellion of 1798 inseparably combined the religious with the political antipathies. In November of that year, the Orange Society had already reached the dignity of a grand lodge of Ireland, with a grand master, a grand secretary, and a formal establishment in the metropolis; and in the following years, the organisation extended over the entire province of Ulster, and had its ramifications in all the centres of Protestantism in the other provinces of Ireland. In 1803, it extended to England. A grand lodge was founded at Manchester, from which warrants were issued for the entire kingdom. The seat of the grand lodge was transferred to London in 1821. The subject more than once was brought under the notice of parliament, especially in 1813; and, in consequence, the grand lodge of Ireland was dissolved; but its functions in issuing warrants, &c., were discharged vicariously through the English lodge. The most memorable crisis, however, in the history of the Orange Society was the election of a royal duke (Cumberland) in 1827 as grand master for England; and on the re-establishment of the Irish grand lodge in 1828 as imperial grand master. The Catholic Relief Act of the following year stirred up all the slumbering antipathies of creed and race, and the Orange association was propagated more vigorously than ever. Emissaries were sent out for the purpose of organising lodges, not alone in Wales and Scotland, but also in Canada, in the Mediterranean, and in the other colonies. But the most formidable part of this zealous propaganda was its introduction into the army. As early as 1824, traces of this are discoverable, and again in 1826. No fewer than 32 regiments were proved to have received warrants for holding lodges in Ireland, and the English grand lodge had issued 37 warrants for the same purpose.

The organisation of this strange association was most complete and most extensive. Subject to the central grand lodge, were three classes—county, district, and private lodges—each of which corresponded, and made returns and contributions to its own immediate superior, by whom they were transmitted to the grand lodge. Each lodge had a master, deputy-master, secretary, committee, and chaplain. The only condition of membership was, that the party should be Protestant, and 18 years of age. The election of members was by ballot, and each lodge also annually

elected its own officers and committee. The general government of the association was vested in the grand lodge, which consisted of all the great dignitaries, i.e. grand masters of counties, and the members of another body called the grand committee. This lodge met twice each year, in May and on November 5—the day pregnant with associations calculated to keep alive the Protestant antipathies of the body. All the dignitaries of the society, as well as its various committees and executive bodies, were subject to annual re-election. In 1835, the association numbered 20 grand lodges, 80 district lodges, 1500 private lodges, and from 200,000 to 220,000 members. The worst result of the Orange Association was the constant incentive it supplied to party animosities and deeds of violence. The spirit of fraternity which pervaded its members was a standing obstacle to the administration of the law; and all confidence in the local administration of justice by magistrates was destroyed. An alleged Orange conspiracy to alter the succession to the crown in favor of the Duke of Cumberland, led to a protracted parliamentary inquiry in 1835; and this inquiry, as well as a shocking outrage perpetrated soon afterwards by an armed body of Orangemen, on occasion of a procession in Ireland, so discredited the association, and awakened the public mind to a sense of its folly and wickedness, that its respectability has since that time gradually diminished. For several years the Lord Chancellor laid down a rule, by which no member of the Orange Association was admitted to the commission of the peace; and the association became comparatively without influence, except among the very lowest classes in the north of Ireland. Of the colonial offshoots of the Orange Association, those of Canada have at all times been the most active, carrying with them all the bitterness of the domestic feud with the Roman Catholics. Outrages against Catholic churches and convents were of not unfrequent occurrence until recently; and on occasion of the visit of the Prince of Wales to Canada, an attempt was made to force from his Royal Highness a recognition of the association, which was only defeated by his own firmness, and by the judicious and moderate counsels of his advisers. In 1861 the Orange Association of the United States had in connection with it 1200 lodges, and about 150,000 members. —See "Reports on the Orange Association," presented to parliament in 1835.

The Orange Association in Ireland, which had begun to fall into general dispute, received an impulse among the working-classes from a series of sanguinary conflicts with Roman Catholics on occasion of the anniversary celebrations of the society; and even still, the peace of many districts in the north of Ireland is only preserved on such occasions by the presence of an overpowering force of military and constabulary. The repeal of the Processions Act has failed, up to the present time, to put an end to the traditional collisions of the parties.

**ORATORIO** (Ital. *oratorio*, chapel or oratory, the place where these compositions were first performed), a kind of sacred musical composition, either purely dramatic or partaking both of the drama and the epic, in which the text is illustrative of some religious subject, sometimes taken directly from Scripture; and the music consists of recitatives, airs, duets, trios, quartets, choruses, accompanied by an orchestra, sometimes also by an organ, and introduced by an instrumental overture. The oratorio is not intended for scenic representation.

St Filippo Neri, born in 1515, has been considered the founder of the oratorio. He engaged poets and composers to produce dialogues, on subjects from scriptural and legendary history, in verse and set to music, which were performed in his chapel or oratory on Sundays and church festivals. The subjects were "Job and his Friends," "The Prodigal Son," "The Angel Gabriel with the Virgin," and "The Mystery of the Incarnation." Stradella composed various oratorios, of which "San Giovanni Battista," produced in 1670, is praised by Dr Burney. A number of oratorios, or *azioni sacre*, by Apostolo Zeno and Metastasio, were set to music by Caldara in the beginning of 1st century. Sebastian Bach's "Passions-Musik" was a species of oratorio, originally performed during the service of the church, the congregation joining in the chorales. Its form arose out of the practice prevalent in the Lutheran Church, of having the gospels for the day repeated on Good Friday, and some other festivals, by different persons in a recitative and dialogue style. By far the greatest master of oratorio was Handel, who perfected that species of composition, and was the first to introduce it into England. At the age of 20, when on a visit to Italy, he produced his oratorio of "La Resurrezione" at Rome. "Esther," the first oratorio written by him in Eng-

land, was composed for the chapel of his patron, the Duke of Chandos, in 1720, the words altered from Racine. It was performed privately at Cannons in the same year, but laid aside, and not produced in public till 1732. An oratorio was then so complete a novelty in England, that it was deemed necessary to give the following explanation in advertising it: "By His Majesty's command, at the King's Theatre in the Haymarket, on Tuesday, the 2d May, will be performed the sacred Story of Esther, an oratorio in English, composed by Mr Handel, and to be performed by a great number of voices and instruments.—N. B.—There will be no acting on the stage, but the house will be fitted up in a decent manner for the audience." For many years after the appearance of "Esther," no more oratorios were produced by Handel, who devoted himself to operas and other secular music; and it was only after the temporary failure of his health, that at the ripe age of 53 he resumed the composition of oratorios. The great oratorios which have made his name immortal were all produced in the decline of life, some of them after he was afflicted with blindness, and they were performed for the most part in the old Haymarket Theatre. "Deborah" was first performed in 1733; "Athaliah," in 1734; "Israel in Egypt," in 1738; "The Messiah," in 1741; "Samson," in 1742; "Judas Maccabaeus," in 1746; "Joshua," in 1747; "Solomon," in 1749; and "Jephtha," in 1751. The two crowning works were "Israel in Egypt" and "The Messiah"—the former ranks highest of all compositions of the oratorio class. "The Messiah"—which, in consequence of its text being taken entirely from Scripture, was called by Handel "The Sacred Oratorio"—ranks very near it in point of musical merit, and has attained an even more universal popularity; from the time when it was first brought out, down to the present day, it has been performed for the benefit of nearly every important charitable institution in Britain. "Judas Maccabaeus" is perhaps best known from the flowing and martial grace of that unrivalled military march, "See the Conquering Hero Comes;" and "Saul" is associated in every one's mind with the most solemn of all funeral marches. The orchestra was but imperfectly developed in Handel's time, and his oratorios had therefore originally but meagre instrumental accompaniments; they have since been generally performed with additional accompaniments written by Mozart. From Handel's time downwards, it was the practice in London to have oratorios performed twice a week during Lent in the various theatres, which were only given up on the institution of the oratorio performances at Exeter Hall. Haydn composed three oratorios—"The Return of Tobias," "The Seven Last Words," and "The Creation." "The Seven Last Words," a work full of sweetness and of energy, hardly answers to the common conditions of an oratorio; it is rather a series of symphonies, intended to follow as many short sermons on the sentences uttered by our Lord on the cross, the text being a subsequent addition by the composer's brother, Michael Haydn. "The Creation" originated in a visit of Haydn to London, in 1791, when he heard for the first time some of the works of Handel, none of which were then known in Germany. Though less grand than the oratorios of Handel, it is full of fresh lovely songs, bright choruses, picturesque recitations, and exquisite instrumentation. Beethoven's sole oratorio, "The Mount of Olives," is a pure drama, rather than the mixed composition generally known under the name. Spohr's "Last Judgment," produced in 1825, contains some grand music, particularly in the choruses. Costa's "Eli" deserves mention among modern oratorios. But since the time of Handel no other writer of oratorios has approached Mendelssohn. The greatest works of that composer are his oratorios of "St Paul" and "Elijah"; the former was first produced at Düsseldorf in 1836, the latter at Birmingham in 1846; and at the time of his death he was engaged in a third oratorio, called "Christus," which he expected would be his greatest, and of which but a few fragments have been published. The oratorios of Mendelssohn have tended greatly to revive the popularity of this kind of composition in Britain. At Exeter Hall in London, and at the musical festivals throughout England, oratorios are performed on a large scale, and with a power, a precision, and a perfection unknown elsewhere. The choruses at the provincial festivals are, for the most part, supplied by Birmingham, Manchester, Leeds, and the other large towns. The greatest oratorio performances are now those of the Triennial Festivals at the Sydenham Crystal Palace. At the festival of 1874, the chorus amounted to 2972 voices, and there was an orchestra of 455 p<sup>r</sup>—

**ORÁTORIUM** (Lat. "oratory," called in Greek *eukterion* or *prosekukterion*), as contradistinguished from *ecclesia*, "a church," is the name given to an apartment or building designed for worship of a private or domestic character. From the earliest times, the use of oratorio is traceable in the history of the church; and before the regular organisation of parishes, they had probably a considerable place in the common, although not in the public worship. At a later period, oratorio became a common appendage of the castles and residences of the nobility, and were of two kinds; the first, simply for private or family prayer and other devotion; the second, for the celebration of mass. The latter fell properly under the jurisdiction of the bishop or the parochial clergy, and many jealousies and disputes grew out of their establishment or direction. The Council of Trent (Sess. xxii., "De Reformatione") placed them under very stringent regulations, which have been enforced and developed by later popes, especially by Benedict XIV.

**O'RATORY**, Congregation of the. The origin of this learned Congregation, and its early history, have been detailed under the head of ST PHILIP NERI (q. v.). It is remarkable, however, that this extraordinary man, unlike most other founders of religious bodies in the Roman Catholic Church, had never committed to writing any definite body of rules for the government and direction of the brethren. Even his scattered papers, from which his plans and intentions might have been collected, had been burned by his orders a short time before his death. Soon after that event, the Fathers, at the instance of Barouius, compiled from the existing practices and from memory a rule for the Congregation, framed so as to embody the spirit of St Philip. This rule was approved of by Paul V. on February 21, 1612. The Fathers of the Congregation are a body of priests living in community, but without vows, and under a constitution of a highly democratical character. They are at liberty to withdraw at any time, and to resume possession of the property which they had brought with them at entrance; and even during their association, each member manages his own financial concerns, only contributing a fixed sum to the common expenses of the community. There is no superior-general, as in other orders. Each house is distinct and independent. In each, the superior is elected only for three years, and his position does not give him any personal pre-eminence whatever. The members take their places according to seniority, not according to official rank, and the superior is compelled to take his turn in all the duties, even down to the semi-menial office of serving in the refectory. The main occupations of the Fathers, beyond those of attending to the public service of the church, and the duties of the pulpit and the confessional, lie in the cultivation of theological and other sacred studies, of which "conferences" for the discussion, in common, of theological questions, form a principal feature. The Congregation has produced many men of great eminence in sacred science, among whom have been already named the great church historian, Cardinal Barouius, and his continuators. To these may be added the celebrated explorers of the Roman catacombs, Bosio, Severani, and Aringhi; and the no less eminent patristical scholar, Gallandi. The houses of the Oratory in Italy before the Revolution were numerous, and in high repute. Few towns of any importance were without a house of the Oratory. The Congregation was early established in France by the celebrated Pierre (afterwards Cardinal) de Berulle, in common with two Italian Fathers, and from France it extended to the Low Countries. One important difference, however, is noticeable between the French Oratory and the Roman original. In the former, all the houses of the country are subject to a single superior-general. In France, also, the Oratorians took charge of seminaries and of theological teaching. The French Oratory, as well as the Italian, reckons many illustrious members; but the fame and utility of the French Congregation were much marred by the unhappy controversy about Jansenism. In the year 1847, this Congregation was introduced into England by Dr John Henry Newman (q. v.). Soon after his secession from Anglicanism, he established a house, the members of which were for the most part ex-Anglicans like himself, near, and finally at Birmingham; and soon afterwards, a second at London, which has since been transferred to Bromley.

**O'RIBIS PI'CTUS** (the *Pictured World*), the title of the first picture-book or illustrated manual of instruction for the young, by the celebrated educationist, Comenius, published at Nürnberg in 1657. It was long a great favorite with the youth of Germany, and continued to be reprinted, in various modified forms, down to recent

times. Comenius, with the instinct of a great teacher, felt that to give words without things to the pupil was not simply to retard his progress, but to lay the foundation of vague and inaccurate conceptions. Hence his introduction of the picture of things into the work above named, which, among other things, was intended for those beginning the study of Latin, the connecting of the word with the picture tending to give the pupil a firmer hold or a quicker perception of both word and thing. The great and distinguishing merit of Comenius's book is, that it brought distinctly into notice the necessity of giving children in the earliest stages of their education, not simply a word, but the form of the thing of which the word was the symbol. A further advance on this idea was made by Pestalozzi, who aimed at presenting to the eye of the child the thing itself, whenever it was practicable to do so; and he regarded this as essential to the right education of the human faculties in their infancy. From this, again, flowed the excellent custom of giving Object Lessons in Infant Schools.

O'RBIT, in Astronomy, is the path described in space by a heavenly body in its revolution round its primary.\* The path so described is of an elliptic form, and would be accurately an ellipse, were it not for the disturbing influence of the other heavenly bodies. See PERTURBATIONS. The complete determination of a planet's orbit is of the last importance to astronomers, as it enables them to predict the planet's place in the heavens at any period, and thus determine the exact date of eclipses of the sun and moon, of transits and occultations of the planets, and of the appearances and disappearances of comets. For the determination of a planet's orbit, it is necessary to know three things: 1. The situation of the *plane* of the orbit in space; 2. The position of the orbit in this plane; and 3. The situation at a given epoch, and rate of motion, of the planet in its orbit. Since the plane of the ecliptic is for convenience taken as the reference plane, the position of the plane of a planet's orbit is known when its inclination to the plane of the ecliptic (1), and the line of intersection of the two planes (2), are known. Since the sun, which is the focus of the planetary orbits, lies in this line of intersection, the orbit cannot lie wholly above or below the plane of the ecliptic, but must cut it in two points called *Nodes* (q. v.), and the position of the line of intersection, or line of nodes, is generally given in terms of the longitude (or angular distance) of the ascending node, reckoning from the equinox. The situation of a planet's orbit in its plane is determined when we know its form (3), size (4), and the position of its major axis or line of apsides (5). The size and form of the orbit depend upon the length of its major and minor axes, but astronomers prefer to employ the major axis and eccentricity (see ELLIPSE); and the position of the major axis is known by determining the heliocentric longitude of its *perihelion* (i. e., the extremity of it which is nearest the sun). To complete our knowledge of a planet's motion, all we now require are the epoch of its appearance at some determinate point of its orbit, say, at the perihelion (6), and the velocity of its motion in its orbit (7), for when this last is known, the law of areas, as given in Kepler's second law, enables us to determine the position of the planet in its orbit at any future period. These seven facts, the possession of which gives us a complete clue to a planet's motion, are called the seven "elements of a planet's orbit." What has been here stated concerning the planetary orbits, is equally true of the orbits of the comets and satellites, though, in the case of the latter, the effect of disturbing forces is so great as to produce a considerable change of the elements in one revolution.

O'RCHARD (Goth. *aurtigards*, Middle High Ger. *wurzgarte*, Ang.-Sax. *þyrtegeard*, *ortgeard*, a yard or garden for worts or vegetables), a piece of ground specially devoted to the growth of fruit-trees, and in which these are planted as near to each other as their profitable cultivation will admit of, no space being left for culinary vegetables, as in the fruit-garden. The introduction of such crops to any considerable extent is injurious to the trees of an orchard, by exhausting the soil, and the vegetables produced are not good. In some orchards, the soil is regularly digged, and manure pretty freely supplied, the trees being *dwarf standards*, trained to a low and bushy form, in rows about twelve feet apart, with rows of gooseberries, currants, or rasp-

\* The sun is the primary of the planets and comets, and each planet is the primary of its satellites (secondary planets).

berries between them. Such orchards are often very productive, and are not liable to suffer much from winds, whilst the trees also protect each other from frosts in spring. Other orchards are formed in old pastures, the turf being replaced when the trees are planted, or, if they are formed on land that has been under the plough, it is sown down with grass. In these, also, manure is occasionally given. In many cases, the grass of orchards is employed for pasturing cattle or sheep, the trees being standards or half-standards, with stems so tall that their branches are beyond the reach of the animals, and in this way the grass produced by the soil is returned to it in the form of manure. In forming orchards of this kind, it is not unusual to plant the stocks, upon which the proper grafts or buds are afterwards inserted. Great orchards of this kind exist in Devonshire, Herefordshire, and some other southern counties of England, devoted to the growth of apples for the production of cider, and to a smaller extent, of pears for the production of Perry. Orchards are not so common in Scotland as in England, where they are not only frequent appendages of the manor-house, but even of the farm-house. Apples, pears, plums, and cherries, not of the finest kinds, are the fruits chiefly produced in British orchards, although some in England also yield walnuts, chestnuts, medlars, mulberries, quinces, &c., and there are even a few small fig-orchards in the most southern parts. Fig and peach orchards are very common in the more southern parts of Europe; and oranges, lemons, &c., on the shores of the Mediterranean.

An orchard requires a dry soil, which ought also to be free and open, not a stubborn clay. A gentle slope, exposing it to the sun, is preferable to perfectly level ground. Protection from prevalent winds, especially in Britain from the south-west winds which often blow strongly in autumn, is very necessary; but it is not less important that there should be a free circulation of air, in default of which the trees become covered with lichens and mosses, and cease to be productive. An orchard is often surrounded by a hawthorn-hedge, but a small orchard must not have a very high hedge. Forest trees are often planted as a screen, but must not be too near. Where walnut and chestnut trees will ripen their fruit, they are often planted, on the side most exposed to winds, for shelter.

In laying out the ground for an orchard, it is not unusual to form it into ridges, on the crown of which the trees are planted. But, however this may be, the trees are planted in rows running north and south, so that the rays of the sun may penetrate among them somewhat equally. In planting the trees, their roots are spread out as much as possible, as it is found desirable to encourage them to extend near the surface, rather than to penetrate deep into the ground, particularly where no digging or cropping is intended. The remarks on soil and manures in the article *FRUIT-GARDEN* are applicable also to orchards.

The districts of Scotland most celebrated for their orchards are a portion of Clydesdale (Lanarkshire) and the Carse of Gowrie (Perthshire), in both of which the apple-orchards are of very considerable economical importance.

**ORCHARD-HOUSE**, a structure adapted to the cultivation of fruits, of finer kinds than can be produced in the open air, or in greater perfection, without the aid of artificial heat. It is the invention of Mr Rivers of London, and is a "glass-roofed shed," the front of which is lower than the back, so that the roof slopes towards the sun. The merit of the invention, however, consists not so much in the structure itself, or in the protecting of fruit-trees and admitting of the sun's rays by glass, as in the mode of their treatment, by which a limited space can be made to produce a prodigious quantity of fine fruit. The trees are planted in pots, are never allowed to attain a considerable size, and are so trained and pruned as to have the greatest possible amount of fruitful wood within the smallest possible compass. The pots have a large hole in the bottom, through which the roots may pass; and are placed upon a border carefully prepared for them, of loose and open materials, such as cinders, lime-rubbish, and broken bricks, enriched by manure. After the fruit is gathered, the roots are cut through at the bottom of the pot, and the trees are set aside to rest for the winter; and this treatment is repeated from year to year. The orchard-house is generally a very low structure, so that the foliage and fruit are very near the glass; its back being only 7 feet high, and its front only  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet, for a width of 12 feet. A path is excavated as a trench of 2 feet deep, and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet wide, through the middle of it. For details as to glazing, ventilation, &c., we refer to Mr Rivers's pamphlet, "The Orchard-house," and to Chambers's "Information for the People,"

i. pp. 591-2 (new ed.). Plants for orchard-houses may now be purchased in nurseries. In the pamphlet of Mr Rivers, instructions will be found as to the training and treatment of different kinds of trees.

O'RCHESTRA (Gr. *orchestra*, from *orcheomai*, I dance). In the Greek theatres, the place allotted to the chorus of dancers; in modern theatres, the part of the building assigned to the instrumentalists; and in the modern concert-room, the place occupied by the instrumental and vocal performers. The word orchestra is also used to denote the musicians collectively.

A complete orchestra consists of stringed and wind instruments, and instruments of percussion. The employment of stringed and wind instruments together was long deemed a barbarism. Glück was among the first composers who shewed that they could be effectively combined, and his ideas were more fully developed by succeeding composers. The perfecting of the old instruments, and the introduction of new ones, formerly confined to military bands, have added immensely to the power and resources of the modern orchestra, whose capacities, however, have sometimes been misused.

The proper strength of an orchestra must depend on considerations connected with the locality. The stringed instruments should in all cases greatly outnumber the wind instruments; and those latter, the instruments of percussion. The stringed instruments as in general use are the violin, viola, violoncello, and double-bass, and their force often amounts to as many as fifty, while even in a large orchestra there are seldom more flutes, hautboys, or bassoons than two of each. The horn, trumpet, and ophicleide or serpent, the other wind instruments admitted into the orchestra, are used as sparingly; and of instruments of percussion, a pair of kettle-drums is often considered sufficient, though cymbals and triangles are occasionally added. In a small orchestra, trumpets, trombones, the serpent, and the kettle-drum should be avoided as being too noisy. By far the greatest part of the work falls to the share of the stringed instruments, the parts for which form a complete quartett for first violin, second violin, viola, and violoncello, which should be perfect within itself, independently of the parts for the wind instruments. The object of the double-bass is to enforce the violoncello part. This full quartett is occasionally interrupted by harmony in two or three parts, or passages in unisons or octaves. The success of the combination of wind and stringed instruments depends on the skill and judgment of the composer. The bassoon, horn, or flute may double any given part of the stringed instrument quartett, so as to produce an effect of reinforcement, or it may have its own distinctive melody. An occasional variety is produced by the entire sensation of stringed instruments for a short period, letting the wind instruments be heard alone.

The orchestra of a concert-room should be so arranged that the front is about five feet above the level of the floor, and it should rise gradually in steps towards the end wall, whose angles ought to be rounded off so as to enable the whole body of sound to be reflected. Reverberation is essential to the proper effect of music. From the exigencies of dramatic representation, a theatrical orchestra must necessarily be much inferior to a concert orchestra; the instrumentalists, brought together in the lowest part of a theatre on a horizontal plane between the spectators and the stage, are deprived of most of the advantages arising from a proper arrangement.

ORCHIDÆ, or *Orchidaceæ*; often popularly called ORCHIDS, a natural order of endogenous plants, remarkable for the structure of their flowers, which are also of great beauty and exquisite fragrance. The perianth sometimes exhibits much variety of forms, even in the same species; but is always irregular, its segments differing much from each other. There are usually six segments, arranged in two rows (*calyx* and *corolla*); although some of the most extraordinary forms of orchidaceous flowers are produced by the combination of certain segments into one piece. Spurs and other appendages of some of the segments are also common. The inner segments are often beautifully colored. The inferior segment of the corolla is called the lip (*labelum*), and is often lobed, spurred, or furnished with curious appendages of different kinds. The stamens are united with the style into a single central column; the distinctive character of the Linnean class *Gymnandria*, of which the O. form the chief part. There is usually only one anther, with a tubercle on each side of it, the tubercles being abortive anthers; but sometimes the two lateral anthers are perfect, and the central one is abortive; and very rarely all the three anthers

are perfect. The anthers are usually two-celled; the grains of pollen cohering in two or more masses. The ovary is inferior, one-celled; the stigma usually a mere hollow in front of the column. The fruit is usually a capsule, opening with six valves, three of which have placentae; the seeds numerous and very small. In a few cases, the fruit is fleshy. The O. are generally herbaceous perennials; but some of those found in warm climates are shrubs, and some of these, as *Vanilla*, are climbers. The root is usually composed of simple, cylindrical fibres, which are often accompanied with one or two fleshy tubercles, a tubercle dying and a new one being produced annually. The leaves are always simple, alternate, often sheathing at the base, often leathery, sometimes arising, in tropical species, not directly from the stem, but from fleshy bulb-like excrencences of it.—The species of O. are very numerous, about 3000 having been described. They are found in all parts of the world, except the coldest and the most arid regions; but are most numerous in the humid forests of the torrid zone, and particularly in America. Many of them are epiphytes, adorning the boughs of trees with splendid flowers. This is chiefly the case with tropical species, those of colder climates mostly growing on the ground. Only about thirty-eight species are reckoned in the British flora.—SALEP (q. v.), a delicate and nutritious article of food, is obtained from the root-tubercles of a number of species. The only other product of the order, which is of any commercial importance, is *Vanilla* (q. v.). The fragrant Faam (q. v.) leaves are the leaves of an orchid. Several species are known to possess tonic, stimulant, and antispasmodic properties, but none are of much importance in medicine.

Orchids have of late been much cultivated on account of their flowers, and many tropical species are amongst our most esteemed hothouse plants; houses being sometimes specially devoted to them. Many of the epiphytal kinds may be planted in pots filled with loose fibrous peat, the roots of others are placed in baskets, or are fastened to blocks of wood, with a little moss or some such thing around them, to keep them from becoming too dry, and are thus placed on the shelves, or suspended from the roof of the house. Careful attention to temperature is necessary, and also to ventilation; and although much heat and moisture are requisite, the atmosphere must not be constantly very hot and humid, but seasons of rest must be given to the plants, which in their native climates have generally a wet and a dry season, the latter being to them in many respects what the winter is to plants of temperate regions.

Lindley has particularly signalised himself in the study of this interesting order of plants.

#### O'RCHIL AND ORCHELLA WEED. See ARCHIL.

O'RCHIS is a genus of *Orchideæ*, to which, as now restricted, eleven of the British species are referred. Some of them are among the most common of British *Orchideæ*, adorning meadows and pastures with their flowers in summer. The roots of some of the species yield sal. p. The lip of the flower in this genus has a spur. The flowers of the Early Purple O. (*O. mascula*), one of the most common species, are sometimes fragrant; but those of the Lizard O. (*O. hircina*), found in chalky districts in the south of England, are remarkable for their disagreeable goat-like or lizard-like smell.

ORCHO'MENOS, a famous and very ancient city of Boeotia, the capital of the once independent kingdom of the Minye, and hence called Minyean O., to distinguish it from another O. in Arcadia. It was situated northward from the Lake Copais, on the left bank of the Cephiseus, and extended from the marshy edges of the lake up the face of a steep rocky hill, on which stood the Acropolis. In the earliest times, its dominions extended to the sea. Homer compares its treasures to those of Egyptian Thebes, and tells us that it sent 80 ships to the Trojan war. Some time after this event, it became a member of the Boeotian confederacy. During the Persian war, like the other towns of Boeotia, it abandoned the national cause. Its government was thoroughly aristocratic, and after the Peloponnesian war, when Thebes became a democracy, O. took part with Sparta, and shared in its first triumph over Thebes; but the victory of Epaminondas at Leuctra (371 B.C.) placed O. at the mercy of the Thebans, who soon after destroyed it by fire, and sold its inhabitants as slaves. It was again rebuilt during the Phocian war, but a second time destroyed in the reign of Philip of Macedon, who, however, once more rebuilt it; but it never again became prominent in history. O. was famous for its great musical festival,

honor of the Graces, when poets and musicians assembled from all quarters to compete for prizes. The ruins of O. are still to be seen near the modern village of Skripú. —See K. O. Müller's "Orchomenos und die Minyer," Leake's "Northern Greece," and Mure's "Tour in Greece."

**ORCIN AND ORCEIN** are coloring matters obtained from lichens. Orcin ( $C_{14}H_8O_4 + 2Ag$ ) may be obtained by boiling certain species of *Roccella* or *Lecanora* with lime for some hours, removing the lime, by a current of carbonic acid, evaporating and extracting with boiling alcohol, from which the orcin separates in red crystals. With chloride of lime, it gives a purple red color, which quickly changes to a deep yellow. Orcin is the true color-producing substance or chromogen of these lichens. In the presence of ammonia, it absorbs oxygen, and is converted into orcein ( $C_{14}H_8NO_6$ ), a nitrogenous compound of strong flintorial power. When isolated, orcein forms a red flocculent powder, which is freely soluble in alcohol, forming a scarlet fluid. Potash and ammonia dissolve it readily, forming a splendid purple color, which is the basis of the ordinary archil of commerce. With metallic salts, its alkaline solutions yield beautiful purple lakes.

**ORDEAL** (Anglo-Saxon, *ordal*; from *or*, primitive, and *daal*, judgment; Ger. *Urtheil*, judgment), a practice which has prevailed largely among various widely-separated nations, of referring disputed questions, particularly such as relate to the guilt or innocence of an individual, to the judgement of God, determined either by lot, or by the success of certain experiments. Of its existence among the ancient Jews, we have an instance in Numbers v., where a Hebrew woman, accused of adultery, is required to drink the waters of jealousy as a test of innocence; a similar ordeal for incontinence is in use among the natives of the Gold Coast of Africa. Compurgation of accused persons by fire, as existing among the Greeks, is referred to in Sophocles's "Antigone." Among the Hindus, the ordeal has been in use to be practised in nine different ways—by the *balance*, by *fire*, by *water*, by *poison*, by the *coshā* or drinking water, in which images of the sun and other deities had been washed, by *chewing-rice*, by *hot oil*, by *red-hot iron*, and by drawing two images out of a jar into which they had been thrown. ("Asiatic Researches," vol. i. p. 389.)

The ordeal seems to be prevalent throughout Africa. "When a man," says Dr Livingstone, "suspects that any of his wives have bewitched him, he sends for the witch-doctor, and all the wives go forth into the field, and remain fasting till that person has made an infusion of the plant (called "goño"). They all drink it, each one holding up her hand to heaven in attestation of her innocence. Those who vomit it are considered innocent, while those whom it purges are pronounced guilty, and put to death by burning. The innocent return to their homes, and slaughter a cock as a thank-offering to their guardian spirits. The practice of ordeal is common among all the negro nations north of the Zambezi." The women themselves eagerly desire the test on the slightest provocation; each is conscious of her own innocence, and has the fullest faith in the *muavi* (the ordeal) clearing all but the guilty. There are varieties of procedure among the different tribes. The Barotse pour the medicine down the throat of a cock or dog, and judge of the innocence or guilt of the person accused by the vomiting or purging of the animal.

Throughout Europe in the dark ages the ordeal existed under the sanction of law, and of the clergy. The most prevalent kinds of ordeal were those of *fire*, *water*, and the *wager of battle*. *Fire ordeal* was only allowed to persons of high rank. The accused had to carry a piece of red-hot iron for some distance in his hand, or to walk nine feet barefoot and blindfolded over red-hot ploughshares. The hand or foot was bound up and inspected three days afterwards; if the accused had escaped unhurt, he was pronounced innocent; if otherwise, guilty. Under such a judicial system, there were probably few acquittals; but it is believed that in the severer kinds of ordeal, precautions were sometimes taken by the clergy to protect those whom they wished to clear from suspicion. Queen Emma, mother of Edward the Confessor, when suspected of a criminal intrigue with Alwyn, Bishop of Winchester, is said to have triumphantly vindicated her character by walking unhurt over red-hot ploughshares. *Water ordeal* was the usual mode of trial allowed to bondsmen and rustics, and was of two kinds—the ordeal of *boiling water* and of *cold water*. The ordeal of *boiling water*, according to the laws of Athelstane, consisted in taking a stone out of boiling

water, where the hand had to be inserted as deep as the wrist; what was called the triple ordeal, deepened the water to the elbow. The person allowed the ordeal of *cold water* (the usual mode of trial for witchcraft), was flung into a river or pond; if he floated without any appearance of swimming, he was judged guilty—while if he sank, he was acquitted.

The *wager of battle* was a natural accompaniment of a state of society which allowed men to take the law into their own hands. The challenger faced the west, the challenged person the east; the defeated party, if he craved his life, was allowed to live as a "percreant;" that is, on retracting the perjury which he had sworn to. See **BATTEL, TRIAL BY.**

Other kinds of ordeal were practised in particular circumstances in different parts of Europe. In the ordeal of the *bier*, a supposed murderer was required to touch the body of the murdered person, and pronounced guilty if the blood flowed from his wounds. The ordeal of the *Eucharist* was in use among the clergy: the accused party took the sacrament in attestation of innocence, it being believed, that, if guilty, he would be immediately visited with divine punishment for the sacrilege. A somewhat similar ordeal was that of the *corned*, or consecrated bread and cheese; if the accused swallowed it freely, he was pronounced innocent; if it stuck in his throat, he was presumed to be guilty. Godwin, Earl of Kent, in the reign of Edward the Confessor, when accused of the murder of the king's brother, is said to have appealed to the ordeal of the corned, and been choked by it. An early form of ordeal, abolished by Louis I. Debonnaire in 816, was that of the *cross*: the accuser and accused stood upright before a cross, and he who first fell, or shifted his position, was pronounced guilty. It was done away with, as being irreverent towards the mystery of the crosses. Besides these, there was the ordeal by *lot*, dependent on the throw of a pair of dice, one marked with a cross, the other plain.

Trial by ordeal at first carried with it the sanction of the priests, as well as of the civil power, though the clergy in the course of time came to disconvene it. In England it seems to have been continued till the middle of the thirteenth century. On the continent it was, generally speaking, abolished rather earlier, although as late as 1493 we find the truth of Savonarola's doctrine put to the test, by a challenge between one of his disciples and a Franciscan friar, to walk through a burning pile. In Scotland, in 1180, we find David I. enacting, in one of the assemblies of the frank tenantry of the kingdom, which were the germ of parliaments, that no one was to hold an ordinary court of justice, or a court of ordeal, whether of battle, iron, or water, except in presence of the sheriff or one of his sergeants; though if that official failed to attend after being duly summoned, the court might be held in his absence. The first step towards the abolition of this form of trial in Saxon and Celtic countries, seems to have been the substitution of compurgation by witnesses for compurgation by ordeal. The near relatives of an accused party were expected to come forward to swear to his innocence. The number of compurgators varied, according to the importance of the case; and judgment went against the party whose kin refused to come forward, or who failed to obtain the necessary number of compurgators. To repel an accusation, it was often held necessary to have double the number of compurgators who supported it, till at length the most numerous body of compurgators carried the day.

**ORDER.** In Classic Architecture, the Order or ordonnance comprises the column with its base and capital and the entablature. There are five orders: (1) Tuscan, (2) Doric, (3) Ionic, (4) Corinthian, (5) Composite. The first and fifth are Roman orders, and are simply modifications of the others. The remaining three are the Greek orders. See **COLUMN, GREEK ARCHITECTURE, ROMAN ARCHITECTURE.**

**ORDER**, in Natural History, a group constituted for the purpose of classification, inferior to *class* and *sub-class*, but superior to *family*, *tribe*, *genus*, &c. The term **NATURAL ORDER** is used in botany to designate an order belonging to the natural system of classification, in contradistinction to one of an artificial system devised for mere convenience of the student, and signifies that the limits of the order agree with the truth of nature, and that it thus exhibits affinities really existing. In all branches of natural history, classification now proceeds on this principle.

**ORDER.** This word is applied to an aggregate of conventional communities comprehended under one rule, or to the societies, half military, half religious, out of

which the institution of knighthood sprang. Religious orders are generally classified as monastic, military, and mendicant.

The earliest comprehension of monastic societies under one rule was effected by St Basil, Archbishop of Cæsarea, who united the hermits and cenobites in his diocese, and prescribed for them a uniform constitution, recommending at the same time a vow of celibacy. The Basilian rule subsists to the present day in the Eastern Church. Next in order of time was the Benedictine order, founded by St Benedict of Nursia, who considered a mild discipline preferable to excessive austerity. The offshoots from the Benedictine order include some of the most important orders in ecclesiastical history, among others the Carthusians, Cistercians, and Premonstrants. The order of Augustinians professed to draw their rule from the writings of St Augustine; they were the first order who were not entirely composed of laymen, but of ordained priests, or persons destined to the clerical profession.

The military orders, of which the members united the military with the religious profession, arose from the necessity under which the monks lay of defending the possessions which they had accumulated, and the supposed duty of recovering Palestine from the Saracens, and retaining possession of it. The most famous orders of this kind were the Hospitallers or Knights of St John of Jerusalem, the Knights Templars, and the Teutonic Order. Many other military orders existed, and not a few continue to exist, particularly in Spain and Portugal. The phraseology of the old military orders is preserved in the orders of knighthood of modern times, into which individuals are admitted in reward for merit of different kinds, military and civil.

The three mendicant orders of Franciscans, Dominicans, and Carmelites were instituted in the 13th century. Their principal purpose was to put down the opposition to the church, which had begun to shew itself, and also to reform the church by example and precept. At a later period the order of the Jesuits was founded, with the object of increasing the power of the church, and putting down heresy.—Notices of the more important orders, monastic, military, and mendicant, will be found under separate articles. See also KNIGHTS and MONACHISM.

ORDE'RICUS, Vitalis, a medieval historian, born at Atcham, near Shrewsbury, in 1075, was taken to France at the age of five, and educated for the monastic life in the abbey of Ouche, at Lisieux. He became a priest in 1107, and died, it is thought, about 1143. O. is the author of a so-called Church History ("Historia Ecclesiastica"), in 18 vols. It is a chronicle of events from the birth of Christ down to his own time. Books 3—6 give an account of the Norman wars in England, France, and Apulia down to the death of William the Conqueror. The last half of the book is the most valuable, being a record of the history of the author's own times. The first edition of the "Historia Ecclesiastica" was published by Duchene, in his "Hist. Norin. Scrip." (1619). It has also been printed by the French Historiæ Society (2 vols. 1840), and was translated into French by Dubois (4 vols. 1825—1827).

O'RDERLIES are soldiers or sergeants appointed to wait upon generals and other commanding officers, to communicate their orders, and to carry messages. The *Orderly Officer*, or officer of the day, is the officer of a corps or regiment, whose turn it is to superintend its interior economy, as cleanliness, the goodness of the food, &c. *Orderly Non-commissioned Officers* are the sergeants in each company who are "orderly" on duty for the week. On the drum beating for orders, they proceed to the *Orderly Room*, take down the general or regimental orders affecting their respective companies, shew them to the company officers, and warn the necessary men for any duties specified in those orders. An *Orderly Book* is provided by the captain of each troop or company in a regiment for the insertion of general or regimental orders from time to time issued.

ORDERS, Army, are general, divisional, brigade, or regimental. General orders are issued by the commander-in-chief of an army, and affect the whole of his force. The others emanate from generals of division or brigade, or from officers commanding regiments, and severally affect their respective commands.

ORDERS IN COUNCIL, orders by the sovereign with the advice of the privy council. The privy council of Great Britain has no power to legislate, except so far as authorised to do so by parliament; but in periods of emergency, it has neverthe-

less occasionally issued and enforced orders of a legislative kind; those who were concerned in passing, promulgating, or enforcing the orders, trusting to parliamentary protection, and taking on themselves the personal responsibility of the proceeding. In such cases, an act of indemnity afterwards passed has relieved from liability those who advised the order or acted under it, and given compensation to all who suffered by its enforcement. This course was adopted in 1766 with regard to an embargo on the exportation of corn, issued in consequence of a deficient harvest and prospect of famine. An important constitutional question was raised by the famous Orders in Council issued by Great Britain in 1807 and 1809, in reprisal for Napoleon's Berlin and Milan decrees. The Berlin decree, issued on the 21st of November 1806, declared the whole of the British islands to be in a state of blockade, and all vessels trading to them to be liable to capture by French ships. It also shut out all British vessels and produce both from France and from all the other countries which gave obedience to the French. A subsequent decree, issued soon afterwards, obliged all neutral vessels to carry letters or certificates of origin—that is, attestations by the French consuls of the ports from which they had sailed, that no part of the cargo was British. In retaliation for the Berlin decree, the British government issued, on the 7th January 1807, an Order in Council, subjecting all neutral vessels trading from one hostile port in Europe to another with property belonging to an enemy. This order was at first extensively evaded, while the French made vigorous efforts to enforce the Berlin decree; the result was, that new Orders were issued by the British government on the 11th and 21st of November 1807, declaring France and all states subject to the French to be in a state of blockade, and all vessels liable to seizure which were found to have certificates of origin on board, or which should attempt to trade with any of the ports of the world thus blockaded. Neutral vessels intended for France, or any other hostile country, were ordered, in all cases, to touch first at some British port, and to pay custom-house dues there, after which they were in certain cases to be allowed to depart for their destination; and vessels clearing from a hostile country were similarly to touch at a British port before proceeding on their voyage. On the 27th of December 1807, Napoleon's Milan decree was issued, which declared the whole British dominions to be in a state of blockade, and all countries were prohibited from trading with each other in any articles of British produce or manufacture. The Americans, and those of the public of Great Britain who were interested in the export trade, exclaimed loudly against the edicts of both powers, and the legality as well as the expediency of the Orders in Council were called in question in parliament. The result was, that an inquiry was instituted into the effect of the orders, from which no direct result followed. But, in the meantime, on the 26th April 1808, a new Order in Council was issued, limiting the blockade to France, Holland, a part of Germany, and the north of Italy, and the order which condemned vessels which had certificates of origin on board was rescinded. Subsequent orders introduced a system of furnishing licences to vessels to proceed to hostile ports after having first touched and paid custom-house dues at a British port; no fewer than 16,000 of these licences are said to have been granted. The legality of these Orders has been called in question, on the ground that they were more of a legislative than an executive character, in so far as a fictitious blockade, where there is no blockading force present, is contrary to the law of nations; it has been defended on the ground that they were issued in execution of the royal prerogative of declaring and conducting war. They are generally believed to have added to the general distress, and the check on the progress of manufactures produced by Napoleon's decrees; but, on the other hand, it has been maintained that they were essential to the effective prosecution of the war.

There are various matters connected with trade and the revenue as to which Orders in Council have been authorised by statute; parliament, in fact, delegating its legislative authority to the Queen in Council. For example, the International Copyright Act, 7 and 8 Vict. c. 12, contains a provision for empowering the crown, by Order in Council, to extend the privileges of British copyright to works first published in any state which gives a like privilege to the productions of this country.

**ORDERS,** Holy, an institution regarded in the Greek and Roman churches as a sacrament, by which ministers are specially set apart for the service of religion.

and are regarded as receiving a certain religious consecration, or, at least, designation for their office. While some of the reformed churches altogether deny the distinction of ranks in the ministry, none of them admits more than three ranks, of bishop, priest, and deacon. But in the Roman and Greek churches, a further classification exists. In the Roman Church, a distinction is made between the major (or holy) orders and the minor orders. Of the major orders, three have been described in general terms, under the head HIERARCHY (q. v.), viz., the classes of bishops, priests, and deacons. A fourth rank of sub-deacons is generally regarded as one of the major orders, but its functions closely resemble in their nature and their degree those of the deacon. The minor orders in the Roman Church are four in number—those of door-keeper, reader, exorcist, and acolyte. To none of these orders is any vow of celibacy annexed. Some of their functions had their origin in the peculiar religious condition of the early church. The duties of door-keeper arose chiefly out of the discipline in regard to the penitents and catechumens; but although these functions find no room in the modern discipline of the Roman Church, the door-keeper of the modern church is held to succeed to other functions of his ancient prototype in relation to the catechetical instruction of children and of the poor and ignorant. Preparatory to the receiving of these orders, candidates are initiated in what is called the *Tonsure*, which consists in the cutting off of the hair, as a symbol of separation from the world and its vanities—a rite which appears also as one of the ceremonies of the religious profession. Tonsure, however, is not reckoned as an order; it is but a distinguishing characteristic of a class. In the Roman Church, the sacrament of orders is held to produce an indelible character, and therefore to be incapable of being forfeited and of being validly repeated. This, however, applies only to the holy orders. The Greek Church has the distinction of major and minor orders, in common with the Roman. But the Greeks commonly exclude sub-deaconship from the major orders, and all the functions of the four minor orders of the Roman Church are united by the Greeks in one single order, that of reader (*anagnosites*).

In the Anglican and other Reformed Episcopal Churches, the three higher orders of bishop, priest, and deacon are alone retained. An Anglican clergyman may be deprived of his benefice, or suspended by his bishop for various ecclesiastical offences; and the right of the Court of Arches to pronounce sentence of deprivation has also been recognised. But in the usual case of deprivation, the clergyman does not forfeit his status of priest or deacon, which can only be lost by deposition or *degradation*. Statute 28, Hen. VIII., c. 1. s. 6, reserves to the ordinary the power of degrading clerks convicted of treason, p<sup>t</sup>it treason, murder, and certain other felonies before judgment. A bishop may be deprived of his see by his metropolitan, with or without the co-operation of a synod of the bishops of the province, but it has been questioned whether he can be lawfully deprived of his orders as bishop. A clergyman of the Church of England and Ireland cannot become a member of the House of Commons. In the Presbyterian and other non-Episcopal churches, the ceremony of ordination is not held to impart any indelible character. A minister found guilty of heresy or immorality, is deprived of his office by *deposition*, by which his clerical status is forfeited. His removal from his charge, however, in any other way, does not affect his office as a minister; and a minister removed from one charge to another, or, after a time, inducted into a new charge, is not re-ordained. A minister having no charge or flock, may yet dispense the sacraments, if duly called upon. A minister deposed ceases altogether to be a minister, and is no more capable of any of the functions of the office, than if he had never been ordained.

The ceremony of *imposition of hands* is used in almost all Protestant churches in the ordination of ministers, the ordaining bishop or presbyter placing the right hand on the head of the person ordained; and is always accompanied with prayer. It is deemed a proper and Scriptural form (1 Tim. iv. 14), but not essential.

In the Church of Scotland and other Presbyterian churches, when an already ordained minister is inducted into a new charge, no imposition of hands takes place. In the Scottish and American Presbyterian churches, candidates for the ministry are licensed to preach the gospel before being called to any particular charge, and are then styled *licentiates* or *probationers*. They are licensed according to an old phrase, "for trial of their gifts," but are not entitled to dispense the sacraments.

There is nothing to prevent a minister of the Church of Scotland, or any Pres-

byterian or Independent church, from being a member of the British House of Commons.

**ORDINAL**, the service used in Episcopal churches for the ordination of ministers. The English ordinal was drawn up by a commission appointed in the third year of Edward VI. (1550), and added to the "Book of Common Prayer." It was slightly modified in the reign of Elizabeth, and was again revised by the Convocation of 1661. The English ordinal, in its general structure, resembles the ancient services used for that purpose, but possesses much greater simplicity, and has some features—e. g., the numerous questions addressed to the candidates—peculiar to itself. There are separate services for the "making of deacons" and the "ordering of priests," but these are practically joined in one, and used on the same day. The service for the consecration of bishops is altogether distinct.

The ordination takes place at one of the Ember seasons, and during the public service, after morning prayer and a sermon on the subject, and begins with the presentation of the candidates by the archdeacon. The bishop inquires as to their fitness, and commends them to the prayers of the congregation. The litany is then said with special petitions for the candidates for each order, and the communion service commences with a special collect, epistle, and gospel. Between the epistle and gospel, the oath of supremacy is administered, and the candidates for deacons' orders are questioned by the bishop and ordained. The gospel is read by one of the newly-ordained deacons. The candidates for priests' orders are then solemnly exhorted and interrogated, and the prayers of all present are asked for the divine blessing upon them. For this purpose a pause is made in the service for silent prayer. After this the hymn, *Veni Creator Spiritus* (Come, Holy Ghost, our Souls Inspire)—a composition of great antiquity, supposed to be as old as the 4th c.—is sung, and the candidates kneeling before the bishop, he and the assistant prebendaries lay their hands upon the head of each, with the words, "Receive the Holy Ghost for the office and work of a priest in the Church of God," &c.

The only other ceremony is the presentation of each candidate with the Bible in token of authority to preach; as the deacons had been before presented with the New Testament with authority to read the gospel. The service concludes with the administration of the sacrament of the Lord's Supper.

The consecration of bishops is performed by an archbishop, or some bishop appointed in his place, and two or more of his suffragans, and may take place on any Sunday or holy day. The service is very similar to that for the ordination of priests.

**ORDINARIES**, or Honorable Ordinaries, in Heraldry, certain charges composed of straight lines, and in very common use, to which writers on heraldry had assigned abstract symbolic meanings, but whose real chief peculiarity seems to be that they originally represented the wooden or metal fastenings of the shields in use in actual warfare. The ordinaries are usually accounted nine—the Chief, Pale, Fess, Bar, Bend, Bend sinister, Cheveron, Saltire, and Cross. Heraldry varies a little in their enumeration, some taking in the Pile in place of the Bar. Each is noticed under a separate article.

**ORDINARY**, a term used in the British navy in two senses. First, as regards ships, vessels in ordinary are those out of actual use, commonly dismasted, and occasionally roofed over, to protect them from the weather. They are congregated near the several dock-yards, where their masts and gear lie ready for their immediate fitting for sea when required. A few men have charge of each vessel; a certain number of vessels constitute a division, with a lieutenant in command; and a line-of-battle-ship, called a "guard-ship of ordinary," is responsible for the different divisions at each port. The ships are moored in safe places, as up the Medway, in the recesses of Portsmouth and Plymouth harbors, &c.

As regards men, an *ordinary seaman* is one capable of the commoner duties, but who has not served long enough at sea to be rated as an Able Seaman (q. v.). His pay is 11d. a day on entering, and 13d. a day on promotion to the first class, or 1s. and 1s. 8d. if engaged for continuous service.

**ORDINARY** (Lat. *ordinarius*) is the name commonly given to a person, who, in virtue of his office, and in his own consequent right, is competent to do certain acts or to decide certain causes. In this sense, there are many functionaries who may be

called by the name ordinary. But the word in canon law, when used without other additions, is understood to mean the bishop, who is the ordinary of his own diocese, and is competent of himself to do every act necessary for its government, and for the ordering of the spiritual concerns of his flock. The jurisdiction of the ordinary is called by that name, in contradistinction to "extra-ordinary jurisdiction," which arises from some abnormal circumstances, and from "delegated" jurisdiction, which is imparted by the ordinary to another person to be exercised vicariously.

In English Law, the ecclesiastical jurisdiction which was formerly vested in bishops and their officers relating to wills and marriages, was recently abolished, and transferred to a new judge, called the Judge Ordinary, who is entirely disconnected with the church. The bishops still retain their jurisdiction in matters of discipline as regards the clergy.—In Scotland, the Judge Ordinary generally means the sheriff depute or substitute, who has ordinary jurisdiction in the county. Lord Ordinary is the name given to certain judges of the Outer House in the Court of Session.

ORDINARY OF ARMS, in Heraldry, an index or dictionary of armorial coats, arranged, not according to names, like an armory, but according to the leading charges in the respective shields, so as to enable any one conversant with heraldic language, on seeing a shield of arms, to tell to whom it belonged. A very imperfect ordinary for England is appended to Edmonson's "Heraldry": a far more complete and elaborate work of the same kind, Papworth's "Ordinary of British Armorial," partly edited by Alfred Morant, was published in 1874.

ORDINATION, the rite or ceremony by which ministers of the Christian Church are dedicated to their sacred office. The use of a ceremonial for such purposes is traceable among the Jews (Exod. xxix. 24, Levit. xxi. 10, Num. iii. 3); and the New Testament contains frequent reference to the specific ceremonial of "imposition of hands" (Acts vi. 1—7, xiii. 1—4, xiv. 23; 1 Tim. iv. 14, v. 22; 2 Tim. i. 6). In the Roman, the Greek, and the other Eastern Churches, this rite of ordination is held to be sacramental, and it is reserved, at least as regards the major orders (see ORDERS, HOLY), exclusively to bishops. In extraordinary cases it was permitted to cardinals and to certain abbots to confer the minor orders. Considerable controversy exists among Catholic writers as to what are the essential portions (*Materia Sacramenti*) of the rite of ordination. Some place it in the "imposition of hands," some in the "presentation of the instruments" symbolical of each order. The controversy derives some importance from the diversity which exists between the Greek and Roman ceremonial; but on this head Roman Catholics maintain that the essential rites are contained alike in both ceremonials. As regards the validity of the rite of ordination, the mere fact of its being conferred by a bishop suffices; but there is not any part of the Roman discipline which is more jealously guarded by laws than the administration of orders. The candidate can only be lawfully ordained by "his own bishop" (*proprius episcopus*), or with the authority of his own bishop, which must be communicated to the ordaining bishop by what are called dimissorial letters. The candidate may be claimed by a bishop as by "his own bishop" under any of four titles—of birth, of domicile, of benefice, or of connection by personal service; and if an ordination be attempted without some one of these titles, heavy ecclesiastical penalties are incurred as well by the ordainer as by the ordained. On the part of the candidate himself, certain qualifications are required; and certain disqualifications created or proponned by the canon law, called *irregularities*, are held to render an ordination in some cases invalid, and in all unlawful.

In the Church of England and other Reformed Episcopal churches, the rules of the ancient canon-law are retained, by which no one could be ordained without previous examination of his fitness, or who was disqualified by bodily infirmity, illegitimacy, immorality, or simony, or who was unprovided with a title (i.e., an appointment to serve in some church) which should provide him with a maintenance; or who, being a candidate for deacon's orders, was under 20, and for priest's, under 24 years of age; but the age for admission to deacon's orders is changed to 23. A college Fellowship is admitted as a title. (For the ceremony of Ordination see ORDINAL.) A person can only be ordained by the bishop in whose diocese he is to serve, except on *letters dimissory* from that bishop to another.

In other Reformed churches ordination is performed by the presbytery, or by

one or more ordinary ministers. Some small Protestant denominations have no ceremony of ordination whatever.

O'RDNANCE (*ordinance*, primarily, any disposition, arrangement, or equipment; and then applied incidentally to a particular part of the equipment or apparatus of war), a name applied to the guns and munitions of an army generally, and in particular to the great guns. Descriptions of the various sorts of ordnance will be found under CANNON, FIREARMS, GUN, HOWITZER, MORTAR, RIFLED ORDNANCE.

ORDNANCE DEPARTMENT, one of the oldest departments under the crown, was abolished by an Order in Council of the 25th May 1855, after an existence of at least 400 years. Its constitution, its important functions, and the causes which led to its dissolution will be found under BOARD OF ORDNANCE. The early history of the department is lost in the middle ages; but it appears to have risen gradually under the Lancastrian kings. A master of the Ordnance is mentioned in the time of Richard III.; but we read of John Louth being Clerk of the Ordnance as early as 1418. Henry VIII. constituted the Board, adding a Lieutenant, a Surveyor, and a Storekeeper, to whom a Clerk of the Cheque was subsequently joined. With the exception of the last, whose office was abolished in the beginning of the present century, this organisation was maintained until the abolition of the whole. In 1604, James I. dignified the Master and Lieutenant with the respective titles of Master-general and Lieutenant-general. The history of the Ordnance Office is of importance in British history, as in all wars it has been responsible not only for the management of the *materiel* of the armies, but also for the direction of the *personnel* of the artillery and engineers. By an Order in Council of June 28, 1870, the Department of Ordnance in a very modified form was revived under the Surveyor-general of the Ordnance, as a section of the War Office, responsible for all supplies and *materiel* of war.

ORDNANCE SELECT COMMITTEE was, until 1870, a committee composed of scientific officers, to advise the Secretary of State for War on all inventions in war *materiel*. It had its offices at Woolwich, in the midst of the manufactures of the Royal Arsenal, and near the headquarters of the royal artillery, by whom most of the designs had to be practically tested. The president of the committee was usually a general officer of artillery; and a captain in the royal navy served as vice-president. Since 1870, these functions have been fulfilled by officers of the Department of the Director of Artillery and Stores, who has his headquarters at the War Office.

O'RDNANCE SURVEY. By this term is understood the various operations undertaken by the Ordnance department of the British government for preparing maps and plans of the whole kingdom and its parts. The idea of a general map of the country to be executed by the government was first proposed after the rebellion in 1745, when the want of any reliable map of the northern parts of Scotland was much felt by the officers in command of the royal troops. Its execution was intrusted to Lieutenant-general Watson, the deputy quarter-master of North Britain; but it was mostly carried out by Major-general Roy, an officer of engineers. The drawing, on a scale of one inch and three-fourths to the mile, was completed in 1765; but in consequence of the war which broke out in that year, was never published. In 1768 it was proposed to extend the survey to the whole kingdom; but the first steps to effect this were taken only in 1784, when Major-general Roy commenced measuring a base-line on Hounslow Heath, near London. This principal triangulation was designed partly for astronomical purposes, and partly as a basis for a map on a small scale. The base-line was remeasured with great care in 1791; and detail plans were commenced by officers of the Royal Engineers, partly for practising them in military drawing, and partly for the purpose of forming plans of some portions of Kent for the use of the Ordnance. The principal object was, however, the instruction of a corps of military surveyors and draughtsmen, the plans themselves being regarded as of secondary importance. In 1794, the survey for the one-inch map was begun, and some sheets were published in 1796. As the series of principal triangles were extended westwards towards the Land's End, it was thought right to measure another base, for verification, on Salisbury Plain in 1794; and two other base-lines were subsequently measured—one in 1801 at Misterton Carr, and the other in 1806 on Ruddlan Marsh. Though first intended chiefly as a military map, the publication of the survey

soon created a desire on the part of the public for better maps, and surveyors were then hired to hasten its progress. This, however, was very slow, the map being at one time entirely suspended during the war in the beginning of this century, and even the parts which were executed, having been done by contract, were found very inaccurate. In this condition the survey of England continued during the first quarter of the present century, sometimes delayed by the government from motives of economy, at other times urged on by the county gentlemen, who wished the map either as a hunting-map or for local improvements.

In Scotland, the principal triangulation was begun in 1809, but was discontinued in the following year, to enable the persons who had been employed there to carry forward the subordinate triangulation required for constructing the detail maps in England. In 1813 it was resumed, and continued steadily up to 1819: a new base-line having been measured on Belhelvie Links, near Aberdeen, in 1817, and the great sector used at various stations, both on the mainland and in the islands. In 1820 it was again suspended, was resumed in 1821 and 1822, and anew broken off in 1823, the large theodolite being wanted in order to proceed with the principal triangulation in South Britain. In 1824 the survey of Ireland was begun, and nothing more was done in Scotland till 1838, except that some detail surveying for a one-inch map was continued for a few years in the southern counties. The chief strength of the surveying corps was now transferred to Ireland. A map of that country was required for the purpose of making a valuation which should form the basis of certain fiscal arrangements and other improvements which the social evils and anomalies of Ireland urgently demanded. For this map a scale of six inches to the mile was adopted, as best suited for the purposes in view. On this scale the whole map was completed, and published in 1845, though the first portions were in an imperfect form, and needing revision, which was proceeded with in 1873.

In 1838 the triangulation of Scotland was resumed; and the survey of Ireland having been finished in 1840, surveys for a six-inch map were begun for the northern portions of England which had not been mapped on the one-inch scale. In connection with this map, the base-line on Salisbury Plain was remeasured with great accuracy in 1849, and its length found 36577.8581 feet. In 1841, some secondary operations for a map of Scotland, also on a six-inch scale, were begun; but proceeded so slowly, that in 1850 only the map of Wigtownshire and some parts of Lewis were completed. Much dissatisfaction having been expressed in Scotland by the press and public bodies, as to the slow progress of the map and the six-inch scale on which only it was published, a committee of the House of Commons (Lord Elcho's) recommended the six-inch maps to be stopped, and the one-inch map completed as speedily as possible. This change produced much discussion as to the relative value of the one-inch and six-inch scales then in use, and the expediency of adopting a still larger scale as more valuable to the public. Circulars were issued, asking the opinion of various public bodies, and of scientific and practical men, as to the proper scale for a great national survey. The great preponderance of opinion was in favor of a scale of 1-2500 of nature, or nearly one inch to the acre. This scale was therefore ordered by a treasury minute of 18th May 1855 (Lord Palmerston's), and though subsequently stopped, in consequence of a motion by Sir Denham Norreys in the House of Commons in June 1857, was again recommended by a royal commission (December 1857), and ordered to be resumed by another treasury minute (11th September 1858). In 1861 a select committee was again appointed, and reported that it is desirable that the cadastral survey on the scales directed by the treasury minute of the 18th May 1855 be extended to those portions of the United Kingdom that have been surveyed on the scale of one-inch to the mile only. This recommendation has now been adopted by the government, and the survey is at present proceeding on the following scales: Towns having 4000 or more inhabitants are surveyed on a scale of 1 50J of the linear measurement, which is equivalent to 126.72 inches to a mile, or 41 $\frac{1}{2}$  feet to an inch; Parishes (in cultivated districts) 1-2500 of the linear measurement, equal to 25.344 inches to a mile, or one square inch to an acre; Counties on a scale of six inches to a mile; Kingdom, a general map one inch to a mile.

The sheets of the one-inch map join together, so as to form a complete map of the whole kingdom. This is true also of the sheets of each county on the six-inch scale, and of each parish on the 1-2500 scale, but the sheets of different counties and parishes are not connected. The 1-2500 scale also applies only to cultivated, popu-

ious and mineral districts; the Highlands of Scotland, and other extensive moorland and uncultivated tracts, being only surveyed on the six-inch scale, and published on the one-inch scale.

In the report on the progress of the Ordnance Survey, it is stated that in England, up to the end of 1875, an area of 27,491 square miles (the area of England being 58,600 sq. m.) had been surveyed, of which 11,86 sq. m. were surveyed in 1875. Since 1854, when the survey on the scale of 1-2500 h began, the English counties that had been surveyed were Durham, Westmoreland, Northumberland, Cumberland, Middlesex, Kent, Essex, Surrey, Hampshire, and Sussex, also (it having been decided that the mineral districts should take precedence of the rest of the kingdom) Cheshire, Flintshire, and Denbighshire, with portions of several other counties.

In Scotland, up to the end of 1875, 29,297 square miles (out of a total area of 80,000 sq. m.) had been surveyed, of which 11,86 sq. m. were done in 1875. After 1876 the Shetlands alone remained to be done. At the end of 1875, maps on the 1-2500 scale had been published for an area of 11,107 sq. miles. On the six-inch scale, an area of 21,832 sq. miles had been published. 15,950 sq. m. of the one-inch map have been completed and published with hills.—In Ireland, as stated, the six-inch maps have been long published, and are now in process of revision. A one-inch map of the whole in outline has been published, and is being completed by the addition of hills. The engraving of hills in the remainder is also being proceeded with. In all the three kingdoms, plans of many of the towns on the 10 and 5 feet scale are also published.

The sketch now given of the history of this great national undertaking will shew that it has been conducted at different times on different scales and plans, and that the system now pursued was only adopted after much discussion both in parliament and out of doors. The map was originally begun as a military map, and the scale of one inch to the mile chosen, without considering whether some other scale would not offer greater advantages. Many now think that a scale a little larger, and an aliquot part of nature, such as 1-50,000, or about  $1\frac{1}{4}$  inch to the mile, would have been preferable for the small map; in which case a scale of 1-10,000 of nature, or about  $6\frac{1}{4}$  inches, might have been chosen for the intermediate, instead of the six-inch scale selected at first for mere local purposes in Ireland. Be this as it may, the arguments in favor of the one-inch map are, that it is the most convenient both as a general and travelling map. For general views of the structure of a country, the distribution and relations of its mountains, plains, valleys, and rivers, the one-inch is admitted to be superior to the six-inch, and thus better adapted in the first instance for laying out roads, railways, or other extensive public works, or for the publication of a general geological survey. Such a map, on the other hand, is on too small a scale to admit of correct measurements of small distances; it is in some respects a generalized picture, and not a correct plan. The six-inch maps were at first selected in Ireland as the smallest size on which correct measurements of distances and areas could be made. On them every house and field, and almost every tree or bush, might be laid down. Hence they are superior for working out details, as in minute surveys of railways or roads, or the complex geological structure of rich mineral districts. On such sheets, too, a proprietor or farmer may find every field laid down, and the relative heights indicated by contour lines, and may therefore use them for drainage and other improvements. It has also been proposed to use these six-inch maps as a record of sales or encroachments of land, thus lessening the cost and simplifying the transfer of property. On the other hand, their size unfitts them for most of the purposes for which the one-inch map is useful, and the contour lines give a far less vivid and correct impression of the physical features of a country than the bill sketching of the one-inch map. Most of the purposes of the six-inch plans are attained in a still more perfect manner from the 25-inch plans or cadastral survey. This last name is taken from the French *cadastral* (a register of lands), and is defined (in the *Recueil des Lois*, &c.) as a plan from which the area of land may be computed, and from which its revenue may be valued. The purposes to which these large plans may be applied are, as estate plans, for managing, draining, and otherwise improving land, for facilitating its transfer by registering sales or encumbrances; and as public maps, according to which local or general taxes may be raised, and roads, railways, canals, and other public works, laid out and executed.

Nearly all the states of Europe have produced trigonometrical surveys, many of

them of great excellence as scientific works. All of these have been published, or are in course of publication, on convenient scales; generally smaller than one inch to a statute mile. The most important of these are:

Austria and Northern Italy, scale 1-80,000 or 4-5ths of an inch to a mile.

Bavaria, Baden, Wurtemberg, and the Hessen territories 1-80,000 or 4-5ths of an inch to a mile.

Belgium, 1-80,000 or 4-5ths of an inch to a mile.

Denmark, survey map in preparation.

—, Iceland, surveyed and published on different scales.

France, 1-80,000 or 4-5ths of an inch to a mile; and a reduction to 1-820,000 or 5 miles to an inch.

Great Britain, 1 inch, 6 inches, and, in the lowland districts, 25 inches to a mile; and the coast survey, general charts,  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles to an inch; harbors and bays, from 2 inches to 12 inches to a mile.

Hanover and East Prussia, 1-100,000 or 7-11ths of an inch to a mile.

Italy (see Sardinia, Tuscany, &c.), survey maps of Naples, Rome, &c., in progress.

Greece (French survey), 1-288,000 or 4-6-11 miles to an inch.

Netherlands, 1-51,000 or 1 3-11 inches to a mile.

Prussia, 1-100,000 or 7-11ths of an inch to a mile, and many smaller.

Russia, survey map in progress.

Sardinia, 1-250,000 or  $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch to a mile.

Saxony, 1-57,000 or 1-9 inches to a mile.

Switzerland, 1-100,000 or 7-11ths of an inch to a mile.

Spain and Portugal, surveys commenced.

Sweden and Norway, surveys in progress.

Tuscany, 1-200,000 or about 3 miles to an inch.

The greatest extra-European work of the kind is the "Trigonometrical Survey of India," which was begun 70 years ago, and has been conducted with great ability. The work is drawing to a close, but will still occupy several years. The maps are published on a scale of 1-260,000 or  $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch to a mile. In America, the Coast Survey of the United States, a map of great accuracy and minute detail, has been going on for many years. The general charts are published on a scale of 1-80,000 or 4-5ths of an inch to a mile; the harbors and ports, 1-20,000 or 3 1-5th of an inch to a mile. No systematic survey has yet been undertaken for the interior of the country.

No portion of South America has been trigonometrically surveyed, except the republics of Peru and Chili, which are in progress.

The Geological Survey, though under a different department of government (Science and Art), may be shortly noticed here. The English survey was begun in June, 1835, and has now been completed, with the exception of Cumberland, Yorkshire, Norfolk and Cambridge. The Irish survey was begun in 1840, but was subsequently suspended till 1845. It is now completed in the counties of Dublin, Meath, Westmeath, Longford, Kildare, Queen's County, King's County, Carlow, Wicklow, Wexford, Kilkenny, Waterford, Cork, Tipperary, Kerry, Limerick, and Clare. In 1854, the survey was extended to Scotland, and now extends over the counties of Edinburgh, Haddington, Fife, Kinross, Linlithgow, Peebles, Lanark, Ayr, Renfrew, Dumfriesshire, Stirling, Perth, Wigton, Kirkcudbright, Dumfries, Selkirk, Berwick and Roxburgh. The surveys are made on the six-inch maps in the parts of the country where these exist, but the results are published on the one-inch scale only, except some of the coal-fields, which are issued also on the six-inch scale. Besides the maps, sheets of sections, horizontal and vertical, with valuable memoirs, are also published.

O'REGON, one of the United States of America, in lat.  $42^{\circ}$ — $46^{\circ}$  n., long.  $116^{\circ}$   $40'$ — $124^{\circ} 25'$  w., bounded n. and e. by Washington, from which it is chiefly separated by Columbia River; e. by Idaho, the Lewis or Snake River intervening; s. by Nevada and California; and w. by the Pacific Ocean; being 350 miles from east to west, by 275 from north to south, with an area of 95,274 sq. m. The principal rivers are the Columbia, and its branches—the Willamette, Fall River, Snake River, and the Owyhee. The Columbia is a large river, navigable 96 miles to the Cascade Mountains, through which it passes, but the entrance is difficult. The Willamette drains a large and fertile valley between the mountains and the ocean. The Cascade Mountains,

which have extinct volcanic peaks of 4,000 to 10,000 feet high, run north and south, dividing the state into two unequal regions. The western third of the state, bordering the Pacific, has a mild, equable, and moist climate, with valleys of great fertility, where pines grow from 250 to 300 feet high, and fir from 4 to 10 feet in diameter. The rainfall at Astoria, mouth of the Columbia River, is 86 inches. East of the mountains, the climate is dry and variable, and the soil less fertile. Gold and silver are found in the Cascade Mountains, with copper, platinum, iridium, and osmium. Coal has been discovered on Coos Bay. The chief agricultural productions are wheat, oats, potatoes, and apples. The great forests, bound with the grey and black bear, panther, wild-cat, elk, deer, antelope; among the birds are the California vulture, golden eagle, American swan, Canadian goose, &c.; while the rivers swarm with salmon. There were, in 1870, 22 organised counties. Most of the settlements are on the Columbia River and in the Willamette Valley. The chief towns are—Salem, the capital, on the Willamette River, pop. 4000; Portland, 10,000; and Oregon City, about 2000. Within the state are about 10,000 Indians and 2600 Chinese. Four colleges have been founded, 1 medical school, numerous academies, common schools, daily and weekly papers, and churches of several denominations. O. was the name formerly given to the whole territory west of the Rocky Mountains, claimed by the United States, as far north as lat.  $54^{\circ} 40' N.$  This claim was resisted by the British government, which asserted a right to the entire territory, and in 1818 a treaty was made, and renewed in 1827, giving joint occupation, which was terminated in 1846 by notice from the United States government, and the question seemed likely to involve the two countries in war, when a compromise was offered by Lord Aberdeen, on the part of the British government, and accepted by that of the United States, by which the boundary was settled on the 49th parallel. The northern portion is now Washington, and the eastern Idaho Territory. The coast was discovered, and Columbia River entered, in 1792 by Captain Gray of Boston. It was explored in 1804 and 1805 by Captains Lewis and Clarke, U. S. army. In 1811, John Jacob Astor founded Astoria as a trading dépôt of the American Fur Company, but sold out afterwards to the North-west Fur Company. In 1845, the gift of 320 acres of land to each married couple of settlers caused a large emigration. The territorial government was organised in 1848, and in 1859 it was admitted as a state. Pop. in 1860, 52,464; in 1870, 90,776.

**OREIDE**, a new alloy lately introduced by the French as a substitute for ormolu, which it excels in its gold-like character. There are two formulas for composing it. In the first the ingredients are: copper, 100·0; tin, 17·0; magnesia, 6·0; sal ammoniac, 3·6; quicklime, 1·80; argols, or unrefined tartar, 9·0. In the second, zinc is substituted for the tin. The latter does not possess the same brilliancy as the former. The metals are first melted, and the other ingredients, after being thoroughly incorporated together by powdering and mixing, are slowly added, and the whole is kept in a state of fusion for about an hour, and the scum removed from time to time.

**OREL**, a government in the south-west of Central Russia, bounded on the west by Little Russia and the government of Smolensk. Area, 17,951 square miles; pop. (1870) 1,596,831. The surface is flat, with rising grounds in the vicinity of the towns of Kromy and Malo-Archangelsk, from which the Oka and Sosna respectively take their rise. The government is drained by the Desna on the west, an affluent of the Dnieper; the Oka on the north, an affluent of the Volga; and the Sosna on the east, an affluent of the Don. The soil is fertile, and the climate mild. The western part of the government abounds in woods. In the district of Briansk, in the north-west, there are a number of iron mines. Agriculture and the cultivation and preparation of hemp are the chief employments of the people. Corn is very extensively grown, and great quantities are sent to St Petersburg, Riga, and the Black Sea ports, or export. The principal article of export is wheat, in grain and in flour. Sailcloth, rope and hemp-yarn manufactures are carried on; glass and iron works are numerous. The hemp of O. is reckoned the best in Russia; and the oil obtained from hemp-seed, and used in Russia as an article of food, is extracted at 2000 mills. The rearing of cattle and horses is much attended to; almost all the considerable landowners keep studs.

**ORE'L**, a thriving town of Great Russia, capital of the government of the same name, stands on the Oka, at its confluence with the Orlik, 226 miles south-south'

west of Moscow, and 678 miles south-south-east of St Petersburg. It was founded in 1566, as a stronghold in defence of what was then the Russian frontier, against the invasions of the Tartar tribes of the Crimea. Its importance as a fortress ceased after the annexation of Little Russia, and it then became a commercial town. The town owes much to its advantageous position on a navigable river in the midst of the most fertile provinces of Russia. The railway from Moscow to Odessa, on the Black Sea, passes through O., and the Vit-bsk line affords it direct railway communication with the port of Riga, and thus its export trade has been greatly promoted. It is the seat of a bishop, and contains numerous churches; its houses are for the most part constructed of wood. There is an important ferry here over the Oka. The chief manufacturing establishments in the town are yarn and rope factories. The principal articles of export are cereals and hemp. On the 7th June 1848. O. suffered severely from a great fire, which destroyed 1237 houses, four bridges, and a number of granaries. Pop. (1867) 48,575.

ORELLI, Johann Kaspar, an eminent philologist and critic, was born at Zürich, 13th February 1787. His father was long the *Landvogt* of Wädenswil. He studied in the *Carolinum* at Zürich, and betook himself enthusiastically to the study of the ancient and of modern languages and literature. In 1806, he was ordained as a clergyman. He spent some years as a tutor at Bergamo; and while there, published, in 1810, two parts of a work entitled "Beiträge zur Geschichte der Ital. Poesie." In 1813, he became a teacher in the cantonal school at Chur; in 1819, Professor of Eloquence and Hermeneutics in Zürich; and after the foundation of the Zürich High School, in which he took an active part, he was one of its chief ornaments. There never was a man more zealous in the cause of education. It was during this latter and most distinguished period of his career that he produced most of his learned works, and trained to a correct knowledge of antiquity a numerous band of scholars. His political sympathies and opinions were not, however, confined to the ancient world; he took the liveliest interest in the struggles of Greece for freedom, and in the political reformation of his native country. He died 6th January 1849. O. edited many classical authors with great learning, taste, and acute discrimination; in particular, his editions of Horace (2 vols. Zür. 1837–1833), Tacitus (2 vols. Zür. 1845–1847) and Cicero (4 vols. Zür. 1826–1831) deserve mention; also an "Onomasticon Tullianum" (3 vols. Zur. 1836–1839), executed in association with Baier, and an "Inscriptionum Latinarum Selectarum Collectio" (2 vols. Zür. 1828).

O'RENBURG, a Russian government in the Ural region, lies partly in Europe and partly in Asia, and extends between the governments of Tobolsk on the n. e. and Siumiar on the s. w. Area of the government, 73,600 square miles; pop. (1870) 900,547. The government is divided into four districts—Orenburg, Verchne-Uralsk, Ovsk, and Troitsk and Tchelabinsk. Capital, Orenburg (q. v.). Till 1865, O. comprised within its area the whole of what is now the distinct government of Ufa (q. v.); but in that year the part of O. lying to the north-west of the Ural mountain range was organised into the new government. The populations, the surface, soils, flora, and fauna of this extensive country are of the most various kinds. The government is one of the most elevated in the empire; but it also contains extensive low-lying tracts and steppes. It is traversed by numerous navigable rivers, by means of which and by canals it is in communication with the Caspian and Baltic Seas, and with the Arctic Ocean. The main streams are the Bielaia (running into the Kama, a tributary of the Volga), the Tobol and the Ural. As many as 2300 larger and smaller lakes lie within the frontiers. Of the whole area, about three-tenths are forest, a half is waste land, and only about a twentieth part is cultivated. The hill country has much pleasant scenery, but great tracts of the steppe regions are utterly barren and desolate. The inhabitants are made up of Russians, Bashkir, Tartar, and Kirghis tribes, Kumaks and certain Finnish peoples, with a few Germans. The trade is chiefly with Bokhara, Khiva, Tashkend, and the Kirghis; the exports are gold, silver, and other metals, corn, skins, and manufactured goods; the imports, cattle, cotton—the demand for and supply of which have greatly increased since the commencement of the American war—and the other articles of Asiatic trade. The imports are either disposed of to Russian merchants in the custom-house on the frontier, or are carried by Asiatic traders into Russia, and sold at the great national market of Nijni-Nov-

gorod. There are in the province numerous iron and copper works, as well as valuable gold diggings, both belonging to the crown and to private individuals. The salt mines are valuable. There is a small-arm's factory on a large scale, and a few other factories. Cattle-breeding is very extensively carried on. The number of horses in O. is larger than in any other Russian government. The southern frontiers are defended, at intervals of 12 or 15 miles, by fortified settlements, inhabited by Cossacks; those on a larger scale being surrounded by a bulwark and a moat. This line of forts extends over a frontier of 2000 miles eastward to the boundaries of China; the series from the mouth of the Ural to the Tobol, occupied by upwards of 242,000 Ural and Orenburg Cossacks, being known as the Orenburg line. The region of which O. forms part was originally called Bashkir-land, and became subject to the Czar of Moscow in 1556. Besides the towns giving name to the governmental districts, the only other place of consequence is Mjask.

ORENBURG, a town on the eastern frontier of European Russia, in the government of the same name, on the river Ural, 1393 miles south-east of St Petersburg, lat.  $51^{\circ} 45' N.$ , long.  $88^{\circ} 6' E.$  The foundation of the fortress and town were laid here in 1742. Pop. (1907) 83,431. It is the centre of the governorship of the government of the same name, has an excellent custom-house, and carries on an extensive trade with Kirghiz and other Asiatic tribes. It imports cotton, silk-stuffs, and shawls from Bokhara, Khiva, and Tashkent; tea (brought mostly on camels) from China; and sheep and cattle from the Kossacks and Kirghiz. The sheep are killed in autumn for the fat and skins, which are purchased by Russian merchants. Corn, skins, and metals are the principal exports. In the neighborhood is the very rich rock-salt mine of Iletsk. At O. the Ural is frozen from October till March.

ORENSE (anc. *Aqua calida Ciliorum*, or *Aqua Originis*), a city of Spain, the capital of the province of Orense, in Galicia, near the frontier of Portugal, on the left bank of the Minho. O. contains a number of interesting ecclesiastical edifices. It is highly reputed for its hot sulphurous springs, called *Las Burgas*, which issue—three in number—almost boiling from a granite rock in the western part of the town. The baths of O. were known to the Romans, and were in much repute among the Goths. O. carries on manufactures of linen, leather, and chocolate. It has a large trade in hams, which are in great repute throughout Spain. Pop. 10,775.

OREODAPHNE, a genus of trees of the natural order *Lauraceæ*, sometimes called MOUNTAIN LAUREL. The fruit is succulent, partly immersed in a deep thick cup formed of the tube of the calyx. *O. opifera* is a native of the countries on the lower part of the Amazon. A volatile oil obtained from the bark is used as a liniment, and when kept for a short time deposits a great quantity of camphor.—*O. corymbiflora* is a very large tree with strong-scented wood, the bark of which yields the cinnamon of Mauritius. It grows also in Bourbon and Madagascar.—*O. foetens*, a native of the Canaries, has wood (*Til-wood*) of a most disagreeable odor. *O. bullata*, found at the Cape of Good Hope, is also remarkable for the disagreeable odor of its wood, the *Stink-wood* of the colonists; but it is hard, durable, beautiful, takes an excellent polish, and is used in ship-building.

ORES. Any mineral or combination of minerals containing as much metal as to be profitably extracted, is reckoned by miners an ore. The proportion necessary for this purpose is, of course, very various, according to the value of the particular metal and the facility or difficulty of reducing the ore. A rock containing only 1 per cent. of iron is never called an ore; one containing the same proportion of gold is a very rich ore. Metals rarely exist in ores in a pure or native state; they are almost always chemically combined with oxygen, sulphur, or other elements.

Ores present themselves in a multiplicity of forms and positions in the solid crust of the earth. Sometimes they are sprinkled through the whole mass of the rocks in which they occur, as is often the case with gold, tin ore, and magnetic iron ore. Sometimes they are deposited in regular parallel beds between the strata of other rocks, as in the case of many iron-stones and of emperious schist. At other times, they occur in irregular lumps or concretions; or they fill up the fissures of other rocks, forming veins, particularly silver, copper, and lead ores; or lastly, they are found in detritus, gravel, sand, and other alluvial deposits. This last form is evidently the result of disturbance and transport from some of the other positions above specified. And as the metallic parts of the mineral masses or rocks so disturbed and

transported are the heaviest, and are insoluble in water, they are more concentrated in these deposits than in their original position, and can therefore be extracted with greater advantage. Such deposits are called *washings*, from the metal being separated from the other débris by the process of washing. Gold and platinum are mostly got in this way in the Ural and Altai Mountains, and gold in Guyana, California, and Australia. Tin ore is also found in alluvial deposits in Cornwall and India. The reduction of ores is treated of under METALLURGY and the names of the several metals.

**ORFILA**, Mateo José Bonaventura, a celebrated physician and chemist, and the recognised founder of the science of toxicology, was born at Mahon in Minorca, 24th April 1787. His father, who was a merchant, intended that his son should follow the same pursuit; but young O. shewed so strong a predilection for the study of medicine, that all thoughts of a mercantile career for him were dismissed, and he was sent to the medical schools of Valencia and Barcelona. In the latter of these seminaries, he so distinguished himself, that the junta of the province resolved to defray the expense of his further education in Paris, on condition of his returning to Barcelona to fill one of the chairs in their medical school; and accordingly O. departed for Paris in 1807. The junta were prevented from fulfilling the agreement by the outbreak of war with France; but O., who had now made many friends in Paris, was unable to continue his studies. In October 1811, he received the degree of Doctor of Medicine, and immediately commenced a private course of lectures on chemistry, botany, and anatomy, which was largely attended, and, along with his successful practice, soon rendered him famous. In 1813 appeared the first edition of his celebrated work on poisons, entitled "*Traité des Poisons tirés des Régnes Minéral Végétal, et Animal, ou Toxicologie Générale*" (Paris). The work was commended by the Institute, and rapidly passed through a number of editions. In 1816, on the occasion of a short visit to Minorca, he met with an enthusiastic reception; and on his return to Paris, became court physician. In 1819, he was created a citizen of France, and became professor of jurisprudence; and in 1823, was transferred to the chair of chemistry, to which, in 1831, was added the deanship of the faculty. His prosperity was now at the full; his lectures were more popular than ever; his works were reckoned as master-pieces; and he himself, by the geniality of his disposition and his many accomplishments, was a universal favorite in society. In all cases of suspected poisoning, he was a most important witness. From 1834, he was a member of the council of public instruction, and procured the passing of many useful measures, such as the creation of secondary medical schools, and the multiplication of means of instruction and observation. He also organised the clinical hospital, founded a new botanic garden, and a museum of comparative anatomy, which is now known by his name. On the outbreak of the revolution of 1848, he was deprived of his place in the medical faculty on account of his conservative opinions, but retained his professorship. He died at Paris, March 12, 1853. His great work on toxicology has gained for him undying fame; it is a vast mine of information, the result of the author's solitary indefatigable researches; and includes symptoms of poisoning of all kinds, the appearances in the body to which poisons give rise, their action, and the means for their detection. It is well written, and exhibits the accuracy of language equally with the sound judgment of its author. His other works are not nearly so famous, partaking more of the character of compilations; the chief of them are—"Éléments de Chimie appliqués à la Médecine" (Paris, 1817; 8th edition, 1851); "Traité de Médecine Légale" (1823—1825; 4th edition, 1847); "Mémoires sur Plusieurs Questions Medico-légales" (Paris, 1839); and "Recherches sur l'empoisonnement par l'Acide Arsenieux," &c. (Paris, 1841). He also contributed largely to various journals, dictionaries, encyclopædias, and other periodicals. He has left a number of Memoirs, which have not yet been published.

**OROSZHÁZA** (pronounced *Oroszháza*), a thriving town of Hungary, in the county of Békés Csárad, 31 miles northeast from Szegedin. Pop. (1869) 14,554.

**ORGAN** (Gr. *organon*, a contrivance requiring skill on the part of the user of it), a musical instrument played by finger-keys, and in general partly also by foot-keys, and consisting of a large number of pipes of metal and wood made to sound by a magazine of wind accumulated by bellows, and admitted at will by the player. The following description is necessarily restricted to the most fundamental arrangements

of this very complicated instrument. As met with in cathedrals and large churches, the organ comprises four departments, each in most respects a separate instrument with its own mechanism, called respectively the *great-organ*, the *choir organ*, the *swell organ*, and the *pedal-organ*. Each has its own clavier or key-board, but the different claviers are brought into juxtaposition, so as to be under the control of one performer. Claviers played by the hands are called *manuals*; by the feet, *pedals*. Three manuals, belonging to the choir, great, and swell organs respectively, rise above each other like steps, in front of where the performer sits; while the pedal-board by which the pedal-organ is played is placed on a level with his feet. The condensed air supplied by the *bellows* is conveyed through wooden tubes or trunks to boxes, called *wind-chests*, one of which belongs to each department of the organ. Attached to the upper part of each wind-chest is a *sound-board*, an ingenious contrivance for conveying the wind at pleasure to any individual pipe, or pipes, exclusively of the rest. It consists of two parts, an *upper board* and an *under board*. On the upper board rest the *pipes*, of which a number of different quality, ranged behind each other, belong to each note. In the under board is a row of parallel *grooves*, running horizontally backwards, corresponding each to one of the keys of the clavier. On any of the keys being pressed down, a valve is opened which supplies wind to the groove belonging to it. The various pipes of each key stand in a line directly above its groove, and the upper surface of the groove is perforated with holes bored upwards to them. Were this the whole mechanism of the sound-board, the wind, on entering any groove, would permeate all the pipes of that groove; there is, however, in the upper board, another series of horizontal grooves at right angles to those of the lower board, supplied with *sliders*, which can, to a small extent, be drawn out or pushed in at pleasure by a mechanism worked by the *draw-stops* placed within the player's reach. Each slider is perforated with holes, which, when it is drawn out, complete the communication between the wind-chest and the pipes: the communication with the pipes immediately above any slider being, on the other hand, closed up when the slider is pushed in. The pipes above each slider form a continuous set of one particular quality, and each set of pipes is called *stop*. Each department of the organ is supplied with a number of stops, producing sounds of different quality. The *great-organ*, some of whose pipes appear as show-pipes in front of the instrument, contains the main body and force of the organ. Behind it stands the *choir-organ*, whose tones are less powerful, and more fitted to accompany the voice. Above the *choir-organ* is the *swell-organ*, whose pipes are enclosed in a wooden box with a front of louvre-boards like Venetian blinds, which may be made to open and shut by a pedal, with a view of producing *crescendo* and *diminuendo* effects. The *pedal-organ* is sometimes placed in an entire state behind the *choir-organ*, and sometimes divided, and a part arranged on each side. The most usual compass of the manuals is from C on the second line below the bass staff, to D on the third space above the treble staff; and the compass of the pedals is from the same C to the D between the bass and treble staves. The real compass of notes is, as will be seen, much greater.

*Organ-pipes* vary much in form and material, but belong to two great classes, known as *mouth-pipes* (or *flute-pipes*) and *reed-pipes*. The essential parts of the mouth-pipe are the *foot*, the *body*, and a flat plate, called the *language*, extending nearly across the pipe at the point of junction of foot and body. There is an opening in the pipe, at the spot where the language is discontinuous. The wind admitted into the foot rushes through the narrow slit, and, in impinging, imparts a vibratory motion to the column of air in the pipe, the result of which is a musical note dependent for its pitch on the length of that column of air, and consequently on the length of the body of the pipe: by doubling the length of the pipe, we obtain a note of half the pitch, or lower by an octave. Such is the general principle of all mouth-pipes, whether of wood or of metal, subject to considerable diversities of detail. Metal pipes have generally a cylindrical section; wooden pipes, a square or oblong section. A mouth-pipe may be stopped at the upper end by a plug called a *tompion*, the effect of which is to lower the pitch an octave, the vibrating column of air being doubled in length, as it has to traverse the pipe twice before making its exit. Pipes are sometimes half-stopped, having a kind of chimney at the top. The *reed-pipe* consists of a reed placed inside a metallic, or occasionally a wooden pipe. This *reed* is a tube of metal, with the front part cut

away, and a tongue or spring put in its place. The lower end of the spring is free, the upper end attached to the top of the reed; by the admission of air into the pipe, the spring is made to vibrate, and in striking either the edge of the reed or the air, produces a musical note, dependent for its pitch on the length of the spring, its quality being determined to a great extent by the length and form of the pipe or bell within which the reed is placed. When the vibrating spring does not strike the edge of the reed, but the air, we have what is called the *free reed*, similar to what is in use in the Harmonium (q. v.). To describe the pitch of an organ-pipe, terms are used derived from the standard length of an open mouth-pipe of that pitch. The largest pipe in use is the 32-feet C, which is an octave below the lowest C of the modern pianoforte, or two octaves below the lowest C on the manuals and pedal of the organ: any pipe producing this note is called a 32-feet C pipe, whatever its actual length may be. By a 32-feet or 16-feet stop, we mean that the pipe which speaks on the lowest C on which that stop appears, has a 32-feet or 16-feet tone.

The *stops* of an organ do not always produce the note properly belonging to the key struck; sometimes they give a note an octave, or, in the pedal-organ, even two octaves lower, and sometimes one of the harmonics higher in pitch. *Compound* or *mixture stops*, have several pipes to each key, corresponding to the different harmonics of the ground-tone. There is an endless variety in the numbers and kinds of stops in different organs; some are, and some are not continued through the whole range of manual or pedal. Some of the more important stops get the name of *open* or *stopped diapason* (a term which implies that they extend throughout the whole compass of the clavier); they are for the most part 16-feet, sometimes 32-feet stops; the *open diapason* chiefly of metal, the *close* chiefly of wood. The *dulciana* is an 8-feet manual stop, of small diameter, so called from the sweetness of its tone. Among the reed-stops are the *clarion*, *oboe*, *bassoon*, and *vox humana*, deriving their names from real or fancied resemblances to these instruments and to the human voice. Of the compound-stops, the most prevalent in Britain is the *sextaina*, consisting of four or five ranks of open metal pipes, often a 17th, 19th, 22d, 26th, and 29th from the ground-tone. The resources of the organ are further increased by appliances called *couplers*, by which a second clavier and its stops can be brought into play, or the same clavier can be united to itself in the octave below or above.

Organs are now generally tuned on the equal temperament. See **TEMPERAMENT**. The notation for the organ is the same as for the pianoforte, in two staves in the treble and bass clefs; but in old compositions, the soprano, tenor, and alto clefs are used.

Instruments of a rude description, comprising more or less of the principle of the organ, seem to have existed early. Vitruvius makes mention of a hydraulic organ, but his description is not very intelligible. The organ is said to have been first introduced into church music by Pope Vitalian I. in 666. In 757, a great organ was sent as a present to Pepin by the Byzantine emperor, Constantine Copronymus, and placed in the church of St Corneille at Compiegne. Soon after Charlemagne's time, organs became common. In the 11th c., a monk named Theophilus wrote a curious treatise on organ-building. But it was not till the 15th c. that the organ began to be anything like the noble instrument which it now is. The family of the Antignati, in Brescia, had a great name as organ-builders in the 15th and 16th centuries. The organs of England were also in high repute, but the puritanism of the civil war doomed most of them to destruction; and when they had to be replaced after the Restoration, it was found that there was no longer a sufficiency of builders in the country. Foreign organ-builders were therefore invited to settle in England, the most remarkable of whom were Bernhard Schmidt (generally called Father Smith) and his nephews, and Renatus Harris. Christopher Schreider, Smetzler, and Byfield succeeded them; and at a later period, Green and Avery, some of whose organs have never been surpassed in tone. The largest English organs are those of York Cathedral, Birmingham Town Hall, Christ Church, London; and a gigantic and exceedingly perfect instrument, completed in 1876 for the Hall, Primrose Hill, London. The latter surpasses in size the famous Haarlem organ, long reckoned the largest in the world, which is 103 feet high and 50 broad. The German organs are remarkable for preserving the balance of power well among the various masses, but in mechanical contrivances they are surpassed by those of England.

For a full account of the structure of the organ, see Hopkins and Rimbault,

"The Organ, its History and Construction" (Lond. 1855). Kink's "Praktische Orgelschule," Leipzig, v. y., is the best work on organ playing.

**O'RGAN**, **Orga'nic**, **O'rganism**. The word *organ* is derived from the Greek *organon*, an instrument, and is sometimes employed almost in its original sense. But it has received a signification more peculiarly its own, and with which alone the word *organism* is connected, as the designation of any of the parts or members of a living body, the *organism* being the living whole, animal or vegetable, which these organs compose. The idea of an organism or of organisation is almost as much involved in obscurity and difficulty as that of *life*, with which it is so closely connected. But it is observable that a living body is entirely composed of organs, and these themselves of other organs, until we come to elementary cells; and also, that all the parts are mutually dependent on each other; and therefore an organism has been defined as a natural whole, in which all the parts are mutually to each other means and end. The juice which nourishes a plant is elaborated by the plant itself, although the supplies are drawn from without. The leaves of a plant are produced by the stem, but re-act upon the stem in promoting its growth. This mutual dependence of parts strongly distinguishes an organism from a *machine*, in which the parts concur for a common end, to which each contributes in its own way, but in which each does not contribute to the support of all or any of the rest. In organisms, moreover, besides this support and maintenance of the different parts or organs, there is a provision for the production of new organisms of the same kind, the reproduction or propagation of the species, to which there is nothing analogous beyond the sphere of organic life. Amongst organic beings, as we ascend in the scale from the lowest kinds of plants and animals to the highest, we observe an increasing number of organs and of functions of organs. In the animal kingdom, organic life appears as possessed of sensation and spontaneous motion; whilst plants are limited to growth, assimilation, and propagation. The question as to the nature of organic processes connects itself with a most difficult question as to the relation of chemical processes with psychical functions, chemical processes being certainly carried on, but singularly modified or directed by the living powers of the organic being.—The term *organic* is frequently applied to those things in which an analogy is traced to living creatures, in the mutual dependence of parts. Such an analogy may be traced in social life and in political life; and the more perfectly this relation of mutual dependence or mutual usefulness is established, the better is the state of things, social or political. It is also the highest praise of a work of art, that it suggests this idea of an organic relation of its parts to each other, and to the whole. —*Organic Laws* are those which are fundamental or most essential to the system to which they belong.

**ORGANIC ANALYSIS.** When a complex organic substance is submitted to chemical examination, the first point is to determine its *proximate* constituents, or, in other words, the several definite compounds of which it is made up. Opium, for example, is thus found to have as its proximate constituents meconic acid, morphia, codein, and some ten or twelve other substances. The modes by which these proximate constituents are separated are various; the chief being the action of certain solvents, such as ether, alcohol, and water, which extract some of the materials and leave others undissolved. Thus ether is the special solvent of fatty and waxy matters, resins, and camphors; alcohol dissolves the same substances with less facility, but on the other hand takes up many substances which are insoluble in ether; while water, which scarcely acts upon the above-named matters, dissolves saccharine, gummy, and starchy matters, and salts of organic acids. The proximate constituents being thus determined, the next point is to determine their qualitative and quantitative (or ultimate) composition; and it is to these processes—especially the last—that the term *organic analysis* is for the most part restricted.

**Qualitative Analysis.**—It is shewn in the article **ORGANIC COMPOUNDS**, that the ordinary ingredients for which we must seek are carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen, and sulphur. *Carbon* and *hydrogen* may be simultaneously detected by burning the compound (which must be previously well dried) in a glass-tube in contact with oxide of copper, which readily yields up its oxygen. The carbon is thus converted into carbonic acid, which if passed into baryta water forms a white precipitate of carbonate of baryta, and the hydrogen into water, which collects in drops in a small

cooled receiver attached to the tube. Carbon may also be usually recognised by the black residue which almost always remains on burning an organic matter, especially in a narrow test-tube in which there is little air. The presence of *nitrogen* may in most cases be readily ascertained by heating a portion of the substance in a test-tube with an excess of hydrate of potash, when a distinct odor of ammonia is perceived. *Sulphur* is detected by igniting the compound with hydrate of potash and nitre, whereby sulphuric acid is formed; and phosphorus and arsenic may be detected by the same means. The presence of *oxygen* cannot, as a general rule, be directly determined.

*Quantitative Analysis.*—The first attempts to determine the quantitative composition of organic bodies were made, more than half a century ago, by Gay Lussac and Thenard. The process originally proposed by them has been modified and improved by various chemists, especially by Berzelius, Prout, and Liebig, and it is mainly owing to the great simplifications introduced by the last-named chemist, and to the consequently increased facility of conducting an ultimate analysis, that our knowledge of the composition of organic bodies has so vastly enlarged during the last twenty years.

The operation is always effected by causing complete combustion of a known weight of the body to be analysed, in such a manner that the carbonic acid and water which are formed in the process shall be collected, and their quantities determined, from which, of course, the carbon and hydrogen they respectively contain may be readily calculated. The apparatus required for the analysis of a compound containing carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen only, consists of (1) a *combustion tube*, composed of hard white Bohemian glass, having a diameter of half an inch or less, and a length of from 14 to 18 inches. One end is drawn out in a point and closed, while the edges of the other (or open) end are made smooth by fusion in the blow-pipe flame. (2.) A thin sheet-iron furnace, in which the tube is placed and supported during combustion. (3.) A small light tube (which may be either a bulb-tube, or a U-tube), which is filled with fragments of spongy chloride of calcium to absorb the watery vapor that is driven through it; and (4) Liebig's bulb-apparatus, containing a solution of potash of specific gravity 1.27, for the purpose of absorbing the carbonic acid. The chloride-of-calcium tube is connected by a well-dried perforated cork to the open extremity of the combustion tube, and by a little tube of flexible caoutchouc, secured by silk cord to the potash apparatus.

In performing an analysis a little freshly prepared oxide of copper is first introduced into the combustion tube, then a mixture of about 5 grains of the substance to be analysed, with an excess of the oxide, while the tube is lastly filled to within an inch of its open mouth with the oxide alone. The tube is then placed in the furnace, which may be heated with charcoal or gas. (Hofmann's gas furnace, in which is a peculiar form of burner called the *atmopyre*, is the best. It is described in vol. xi. of "The Journal of the Chemical Society.") Red-hot charcoal is now placed round the anterior part of the tube, containing the pure oxide of copper; and when this is red-hot, the fire is slowly extended towards the further extremity by shifting a movable screen. When the tube has been completely heated from end to end, and no more gas is disengaged, the charcoal is gradually removed from the further extremity of the tube, and the point of the latter broken off; after which a little air is drawn through the whole apparatus, so as to secure any remaining carbonic acid and watery vapor. The parts are then detached, and the increase of weight of the chloride-of-calcium tube and potash apparatus is determined by an accurate balance. The following account of an actual analysis of crystallised cane-sugar (borrowed from Fownes's "Chemistry") will serve to illustrate the preceding remarks:

|   | Grains.     |
|---|-------------|
| Quantity of sugar employed.....                 | 4750        |
| Potash apparatus, after experiment.....         | 781.13      |
| "    ", before experiment.....                  | 773.82      |
| Carbonic acid.....                              | 7.81        |
| Chloride-of-calcium tube, after experiment..... | 223.05      |
| "    ", before experiment.....                  | 223.30      |
| Water.....                                      | <u>2.75</u> |

7.31 grains carbonic acid = 1.994 grains carbon; and 2.75 grains water = 0.3056 grains hydrogen: or in 100 parts of sugar, carbon, 41.98; hydrogen, 6.43; oxygen by difference, 51.59.

For the methods of determining other elements quantitatively, such as nitrogen, chlorine, sulphur, phosphorus, &c., we must refer to the various works that have been published on organic analysis, amongst which those of Liebig, Fresenius, and Rose deserve special mention.

**ORGANIC BASES.** The present remarks must be regarded as supplementary to the article **ALKALOIDS**. They refer (1) to the classification of organic bases and (2) to their formation.

(1) From the fact that nearly all artificial organic bases are (as will be afterwards shewn) actually constructed from ammonia, and that, whether artificially or naturally formed, they exhibit the property of basicity, which is the leading characteristic of ammonia, chemists have been led to refer organic bases generally to the typical body ammonia, and have succeeded in demonstrating that they are constructed upon or derived from the simple type  $\text{NH}_3$ . Berzelius believed that all the alkaloids actually contained ammonia as an ingredient of their composition, a view which is now untenable; and it is to Liebig that we are indebted for the idea that they are derivatives of ammonia, or, in other words, amidogen bases or ammonia in which an equivalent of hydrogen is replaced by an organic radical. The subject has been thoroughly worked out by Dr Hofmann, who originally proposed to classify these bodies under the heads of *amidogen*, *imidogen*, *nitrile*, and *ammonium bases*; but afterwards adopted the terms *primary amines*, *secondary amines*, and *tertiary amines*, in preference to amidogen, imidogen, and nitrile bases—the word *amines* being applied to all organic bases that are derived from ammonia ( $\text{NH}_3$ ). The amines may be (1) *monamines*, (2) *diamines*, (3) *triamines*, (4) *tetraamines*, or (5) *pentamines*, according as they be constructed upon a single, double, treble, quadruple, or quintuple atom of  $\text{NH}_3$ . We shall confine our illustrations of the meaning of these terms to the monamines, both because they form the most important group and because they are much more readily elucidated than the other groups, which are extremely complicated in their composition. *Monamines* are constructed upon the single atom of ammonia,  $\text{H}_3\text{N}$ . In *primary monamines* one of the atoms of hydrogen is replaced by an organic radical,  $\text{R}$ ; and hence their general formula is  $\text{R}\text{H}_2\text{N}$ . Ethyl-amine or ethylia ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{H}_2\text{N}$ , or  $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{N}$ , is an example. In *secondary monamines* two of the atoms of hydrogen are replaced by two atoms of either the same or of different radicals. Hence their general formula is  $\text{RR}'\text{H}\text{N}$ , where  $\text{R}$  and  $\text{R}'$  may be the same or different radicals. Diethylia ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2\text{H}\text{N}$ , or  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{11}\text{N}$ , and methyl-ethyl-amine, or methyl-ethylia ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{H}\text{N}$ , or  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_9\text{N}$ , are examples. In *tertiary monamines* the three atoms of hydrogen are replaced by three atoms of the same or different radicals; their formula therefore is  $\text{RR}'\text{R}''\text{N}$ , when  $\text{R}$ ,  $\text{R}'$ ,  $\text{R}''$  may or may not differ from one another. Trimethylamine or trimethylia ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_3\text{N}$ , or  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{10}\text{N}$ , and methyl-ethyl-phenyl-amine or methyl-ethyl-phenylia ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{N}$ , or  $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{13}\text{N}$ , afford examples of the radicals being all the same and of their being all different. This last example affords a good illustration of the fact, that although the modern nomenclature of organic chemistry includes long and apparently complex words, these words to a great degree represent the composition of the substance they are used to indicate; methyl ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5$ ), ethyl ( $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5$ ), and phenyl ( $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ ), mainly contributing to form methyl-ethyl-phenylia.

(2) Although all attempts at forming in the laboratory those alkaloids that naturally exist in plants, such as morphia, quinia, and strychnia, have hitherto failed, a large number of organic bases have been prepared by artificial means, such as : *a.* By the destructive distillation of organic bodies containing nitrogen. Thus, in the preparation of coal-gas, four at least of these compounds are obtained—viz., aniline, picoline, leukol (or quinoline), and pyridine. *b.* By the distillation of certain nitrogenous compounds with caustic potash. In this way aniline is obtained from indigo. *c.* By the combination of ammonia with the aldehydes and with certain volatile oils which possess the properties of aldehydes. Thus acetic aldehyde yields dimethylia, and oil of mustard yields thiosulphamine. *d.* By the substitution (by the action of strong nitric acid) of one atom of nitroso acid ( $\text{NO}_2$ ) for one atom of hydrogen in certain hydrocarbons. *e.* By the processes of fermentation and

putrefaction. Thus wheaten flour yields by putrefaction trimethylia, ethylia, and amyilia.

**ORGANIC COMPOUNDS.** It was formerly believed that the compounds to which the term *organic* is applied could only be produced by a vital force acting in a more or less complex animal or vegetable organism. It is, however, now known that this view is altogether untenable, and that many substances which are products of animal or vegetable organisms may also be formed artificially in the laboratory. Thus urea, the chief and most characteristic organic constituent of urine, may be formed by the direct union of chlorine and carbonic acid (which form *phlogene gas*) with ammonia; and glycose or grape-sugar may be artificially produced from starch, woody fibre, paper, linen, &c. Although such cases as that of urea, in which a complex organic product ( $C_2H_4O_2N_2$ ) is produced by the direct union of three inorganic substances (and many other cases of the same nature might be adduced), shew that there is no definite line of demarcation between organic and inorganic products, it is useful, as a matter of convenience, to classify chemical compounds, according to their natural origin.

The following are the leading characteristics of organic compounds: Those which occur naturally rarely consist of more than four elements—viz., carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen—although a few contain sulphur, and possibly (but this is doubtful) phosphorus. By artificial means, however, organic compounds can be formed containing chlorine, bromine, iodine, selenium, tellurium, and many of the metals. Carbon is universally present both in natural and artificial organic compounds. The number of equivalents entering into the composition of organic compounds is usually higher than in the case of inorganic compounds. There is no organic compound into which less than two equivalents of carbon enter, and, according to some chemists, both oxygen and sulphur only enter these compounds in double equivalents. Melissic acid, for example (one of the constituents of wax), is represented by  $C_{60}H_{60}O_4$ ; that is to say, each equivalent of the acid is composed of 124 equivalents of the elements entering into its composition; and each equivalent of the solid fat, commonly known as stearine, contains 114 equivalents of carbon, 110 of hydrogen, and 12 of oxygen. No instance is known in which an organic compound has been formed by the direct union of its elements in a free state, as many sulphides, chlorides, and oxides (for example) are formed in inorganic chemistry. Their extreme readiness to decompose under the influence of heat, fermentation, putrefaction, &c., is another characteristic of organic compounds, although some artificially prepared inorganic compounds—as, for example, chloride of nitrogen—are also very unstable.

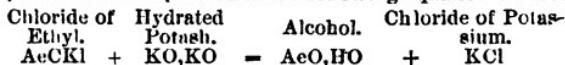
The following scheme may serve to elucidate the arrangement of the elements in organic compounds. Such compounds may be composed of carbon and oxygen, as carbonic oxide,  $C_2O_2$ ; or of carbon and hydrogen, as oil of turpentine,  $C_{20}H_{36}$ ; or of carbon and nitrogen, as cyanogen,  $C_2N$ ; or of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, as grape-sugar,  $C_{12}H_{12}O_{12}$ ; or of carbon, nitrogen, and oxygen, as anhydrous cyanic acid,  $C_2NO$ ; or of carbon, hydrogen, and nitrogen, as nicotine,  $C_{10}H_{14}N_2$ ; or of carbon, hydrogen, and sulphur, as oil of garlic,  $C_6H_6S$ ; or of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, and oxygen, as caffeine,  $C_{10}H_{10}N_4O_4$ ; or of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, and sulphur, as oil of mustard,  $C_{8}H_{16}NS_2$ ; or finally, of carbon, hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, and sulphur, as tannin,  $C_{11}H_{16}NO_6S_2$ . Hence organic compounds may be binary, ternary, quaternary, or quinary in their composition.

**ORGANIC RADICALS.** Under the term Organic or Compound Radicals (or Radicles, as some chemists write the word) are included a number of groups of elements, of which carbon is always one, which comport themselves chemically like simple elementary bodies. The careful study of organic compounds led chemists to perceive that many of these contained as a proximate constituent a more or less complex atomic group, which in its combining relations behaves precisely like the elementary substances, and which, like them, may be transferred from one compound to another; and hence the inference was drawn, that all organic compounds were combinations of organic radicals with oxygen, sulphur, hydrogen, or other elements, or of one organic radical with another. In accordance with this view, Liebig defined organic chemistry as "The Chemistry of Organic Radicals." In order to shew how much the theory of organic radicals serves to elucidate the com-

position of organic compounds, and to reduce the laws of organic to those of inorganic chemistry, we will point out some of the chemical analogies between the radical *ethyl* ( $C_2H_5$ ) and the metal potassium (K), and between the radical *cyanogen* ( $C_2N$ ) and the halogen chlorine (Cl). Ae is the symbol for ethyl, and Cy for cyanogen.

|                    |                                   |                     |                                       |
|--------------------|-----------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------------------------|
| KO                 | = Oxide of potassium, or potash.  | AeO                 | = Oxide of ethyl or ether.            |
| KO,HO              | = Hydrated potash.                | AeO,HO              | = Hydrated oxide of ethyl or alcohol. |
| KO,SO <sub>3</sub> | = Sulphate of potash.             | AeO,SO <sub>3</sub> | = Sulphate of oxide of ethyl.         |
| KCl                | = Chloride of potassium.          | AeCl                | = Chloride of ethyl.                  |
| KS                 | = Sulphide of potassium.<br>&c.   | AeS                 | = Sulphide of ethyl.<br>&c. &c.       |
| HCl                | = Hydrochloric acid.              | HCy                 | = Hydrocyanic acid.                   |
| KCl                | = Chloride of potassium.          | KCy                 | = Cyanide of potassium.               |
| NH <sub>4</sub> Cl | = Chloride of ammonium.           | NH <sub>4</sub> Cy  | = Cyanide of ammonium.                |
| HgCl               | = Chloride of mercury.<br>&c. &c. | HgCy                | = Cyanide of mercury.<br>&c. &c.      |

Again, if under certain conditions chloride of ethyl is brought into contact with hydrated potash, the reaction expressed in the following equation occurs:



which shews that the ethyl and the potassium may mutually replace one another in compounds; and the same might be similarly shewn of cyanogen and chlorine.

Comparatively few organic radicals have been obtained in an isolated state; and in most cases the existence of any special radical is only inferred from the fact, that the group of atoms of which it is supposed to be composed can be transferred from one elementary substance to another, and can be made to enter into combination with other organic radicals. The existence of ethyl was thus inferred long before the substance itself was isolated, and the radical benzoyl,  $C_6H_5O_2$  (symbol, Bz), which exists in the oil of bitter almonds, and on which Liebig specially bases his whole theory of organic radicals, has never been isolated. The simplicity obtained by adopting the radical theory in place of using merely empirical formulas, is well shewn in the two contrasted modes of symbolically representing the compounds which are obtained from this oil:

| Empirical Formula.                    | Rational Formula (Bz = $C_{14}H_8O_2$ ). |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| Oil of bitter almonds, $C_{14}H_8O_2$ | $BzH$ , Hydride of benzoyl.              |
| Benzoic acid, $C_{14}H_8O_2$          | $BzO$ , HO, Hydrated oxide of benzoyl.   |
| Chlorine-compound, $C_{14}H_8O_2Cl$   | $BzCl$ , Chloride of benzoyl.            |
| Sulphur-compound, $C_{14}H_8O_2S$     | $BzS$ , Sulphide of benzoyl.             |
| Cyanogen-compound, $C_{16}H_8O_2N$    | $BzCy$ , Cyanide of benzoyl.             |

The organic radicals are either binary or ternary in their composition. Many of them—as, for example, ethyl—consist of carbon and hydrogen; others, as carbonyl (or carbonic oxide), of carbon and oxygen; others, as cyanogen, of carbon and nitrogen; and others again, like benzoyl, of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. Into a few radicals a metallic element enters; these are termed organo-metallic radicals; and cacodyl, which contains arsenic, is represented by the formula  $\text{As}(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_2$ ; it is the best example of this class. All recent works on organic chemistry are based either on the theory of organic radicals or on the more complicated theory of types, which will be noticed in a special article.

ORGANISTA, the common name of a number of small South American birds, allied to wrens, and remarkable for the sweetness of their song. The Peruvian *O. (Troglodytes leucophrys)* of Tschudi) has a modest, cinnamon-brown plumage, with head and neck of dark olive. "The tender melancholy strains, and the singular clearness of the innumerable modulations, charm the ear of the astonished traveller, who, as if arrested by an invisible power, stops to listen."—Tschudi's "Travels."

**O'RGANO-METALLIC BODIES.** Under this term are included a large number of chemical compounds in which organic radicals, such as methyl ( $C_2H_5$ ), ethyl

( $C_4H_8$ ). &c., are united to metals in the same way as chlorine is combined with zinc, forming chloride of zinc. If, for instance, in chloride of zinc ( $ZnCl$ ) we replace the chlorine by ethyl, we produce one of the bodies belonging to this class—viz., zinc-ethyl,  $Zn(C_2H_5)_2$ . This substance (which we take as a good example of the class) is obtained by digesting a mixture of equal volumes of iodide of ethyl and ether with granulated zinc, at a temperature of about  $260^\circ$ , for several hours. Subsequent distillation gives a mixture of zinc-ethyl and ether, from which the former may be obtained pure by rectification, in the form of a colorless, transparent, mobile liquid, which refracts light strongly, has a powerful but not disagreeable odor, and is rather heavier than water, its specific gravity being  $1.182$  at  $64^\circ$ . With the exception of cacodyl,  $As(C_2H_5)_2$ , these bodies are the creation of the last ten or twelve years, during which period numerous compounds of organic radicals with zinc, cadmium, magnesium, antimony, arsenic, bismuth, mercury, lead, sodium, and potassium have been discovered.

For further information on this subject, the reader is referred to an article by Dr Frankland (who has most successfully devoted his attention to this class of compounds) in the 18th volume of "The Quarterly Journal of the Chemical Society," and to an elaborate article on "Organic-Metallic Bodies" (by the same chemist) in "The English Cyclopaedia."

ORGAN-POINT, or Pedal-Point, in Music, a bass note sustained through a series of chords, with only the first and last of which it is in harmony. The sustained note may be the dominant or tonic, and sometimes occupies an upper part instead of the bass.

ORGANZINE, a name applied to silk which after having been first wound off from the cocoons into hanks, is then placed on a winding machine, which reels off the hanks on wooden reels. These are then placed on spindles, and the fibres of each are made to pass through a minute orifice and small brush, which together clean the thread and remove any knots or projections from it, throwing it at the same time into hanks again. Then the threads of two hanks are taken, and again reeled off, this time on to one hank, being twisted together to the left; then two of these doubled reels are taken, and the ends being laid together, are twisted to the right. These operations, consisting of winding, cleaning, throwing, and twice twisting and doubling, constitute organzine silk. See SILK.

ORGÉAT, a kind of culinary preparation, which is both used as an agreeable syrup to mix in certain drunks, or medicinally as a mild emollient. It is prepared by making an emulsion of almonds, which are blanched for the purpose, and beaten into a paste in a mortar and then rubbed up with barley-water. The proportions are—1 lb. of sweet and 1 oz. of bitter almonds, to a quart of barley-water. To this emulsion are added 2 lbs. of powdered loaf-sugar, and a quarter of a pint of orange-flower water. There are other modes of making it, but this is the simplest and best. It is much used in France under the name of *Siroop d'Orgeat*.

ORGIES (probably from Gr. *erdo*, in the perfect, *ergon*, to sacrifice), or Mysteries, secret rites or customs connected with the worship of some of the pagan deities; as the secret worship of Ceres (q. v.), and the festival of Bacchus, which was accompanied with mystical customs and drunken revelry. The name is now applied to scenes of drunkenness and debauchery.

ORGUES are thick, long, wooden beams, pointed and shod with iron, hung vertically by separate ropes in the gateway of and over the entrance to a fortified place. They answer the purpose of a portcullis or door, and are dropped into position by cutting the ropes from which they hang. Their descent is inevitable, in which they possess an advantage over the portcullis, which may be held up by the enemy or blown in by petards, whereas petards have little effect on orgues, for if one beam be destroyed, another can be dropped to fill up the gap.

O'RIEL COLLEGE. In 1324, Adam de Brom, almoner of Edward II., procured from the sovereign a charter of incorporation for a college under the name of St Mary's House, in Oxford. The origin of the name "Oriel College" is uncertain. It consisted originally of a provost and 10 fellows. The number of fellows was by subsequent benefactions raised to 18, and several exhibitions and scholarships were also founded at various times. By the commissioners under 17 and 18 Vict. c. 81, all the fellowships are thrown open, but two are in the meantime suspended for the

purpose of increasing the number and value of the scholarships, and of augmenting the salary of the professor of modern history. By the same authority the scholars are placed on the foundation of the college, a position they did not before enjoy; the scholarships are made ten in number, tenable for five years, of value £80 per annum, with rooms free. This college was one of the first to throw open such of its fellowships as it could to competition, and hence the fellows of Oriel have long been among the most distinguished men in the university. For several years back, however, its undergraduates have done little in the schools. The fellows divide upwards of £200 a year, in addition to allowances; and the income of the provostship, to which is annexed a living in Essex and a canonry in Rochester Cathedral, is estimated at £2000 a year. There are thirteen benefices in the gift of this college.

**ORIEL WINDOW**, a projecting window having more sides than one, usually three, and commonly divided into bays by mullions. It is one of the most picturesque features in medieval and Elizabethan domestic architecture, and adds much to the convenience of the interior. The word oriel (Med. Lat. *oriolem*, probably dim. from *or. oris*, as if a small opening or recess) formerly meant chamber or apartment, and a window is so called which makes a small apartment, as it were, off a large room. Oriels are also called Bay or Bow Windows (q. v.).

**ORIENTATION.** As Christians from an early period turned their faces eastward when praying, so Christian churches for the most part were placed east and west, in order that the worshippers, as they looked towards the altar, might also look towards the east. Modern observation, however, has found that few churches stand exactly east and west, the great majority inclining a little either to the north or to the south. Thus, of three ancient churches in Edinburgh, it was ascertained that one (St Margaret's Chapel in the Castle) pointed e.s.e.; another (St Giles's Cathedral), e.-by-s.w.; a third (Trinity College Church, now destroyed), e.w. This deviation from the true east has received, among English ecclesiologists, the name of "Orientation." Its origin or cause has not been satisfactorily explained. Some have supposed that the church was turned not to the true east, but to the point at which the sun rose on the morning of the feast of the patron saint. But, unfortunately for this theory, neighboring churches, dedicated in honor of the same saint, have different orientations. Thus, All Saints' at West Beckham, in Norfolk, points due east; while All Saints' at Thwaite, also in Norfolk, is 8° to the north of east. There are instances, too, in which different parts of the same church have different orientations; that is to say, the chancel and the nave have not been built in exactly the same line. This is the case in York Minster and in Lichfield Cathedral. Another theory is, that orientation "mystically represents the bowing of our Saviour's head in death, which Catholic tradition asserts to have been to the right [or north] side." But this theory is gainsaid by the fact, that the orientation is as often to the south as to the north. Until some better explanation is offered, it may, perhaps, be allowed to hold, that orientation has had no graver origin than carelessness, ignorance, or indifference.

**ORIFLAMME**, or Auriflamme (Lat. *auri flamma*, flame of gold), a banner which originally belonged to the Abbey of St. Denis, and was borne by the Counts of Vexin, patrons of that church, but which, after the county of Vexin fell into the hands of the French crown, became the principal banner of the kingdom. It was charged with a saltire wavy or, with rays issuing from the centre crossways. In later times the oriflamme became the insignia of the French infantry. The name seems also to have been given to other flags; according to Sir N. H. Nicolas, the oriflamme borne at Agincourt was an oblong red flag split into five parts.

**ORIGENES** (ORIGEN), called *Adamantinos* or *Chalchentezes*—both epithets expressive of his firmness of purpose and iron assiduity—one of the most eminent of the early Christian writers, “the father of biblical criticism and exegesis in Christendom,” was born 185 A.D., at Alexandria, where his father, Leonidas, seems to have held some superior office in the church. O. received a most liberal education. While, on the one hand, he was initiated at an early age into Hellenic science and art, the teachings of Christianity were instilled into his mind by men like Pantaeus and Clemens of Alexandria. During the persecutions against the Christians, instituted by Sept. Severus, his father died the death of a martyr, and O., then 17 years of age, would have shared it of his own free will, had not his mother, left unsupported,

with six children, prevented him. After a short time his zeal and erudition procured for him the office of catechist in the Alexandrian church; but no salary being affixed to it, he was fain to dispose of his much-loved collection of classical authors for a daily stipend of four oboli (2d.) for several years. His wants were extremely limited, and his asceticism led him even to self-mutilation (in accordance with the few he took of Matt. xix. 12): an act for which he afterwards expressed the deepest sorrow, and which became a dangerous weapon in the hands of his antagonists. Not a few of his hearers being masters of Greek (Neoplatonic) philosophy, O., in order to ward off more successfully their attacks upon his doctrines, and to combat them on their own ground, applied himself particularly to this science, and Ammonius Saccas himself is said to have been his teacher. From this period also may be dated O.'s transition from unconscious to conscious belief. He examined henceforth, with as little prejudice as possible, all the different systems of human speculations that came under his notice during the many journeys he undertook, proceeding on the principle "that we are not, under the presence of piety, to pin our faith on that which is held by the multitude, and which therefore alone seems to stand on high authority, but on that which results through examination and logical conclusions from established and admitted truths." This liberality of his mind and doctrines could not fail, on the one hand, to bring about many conversions to the faith, as he taught it, both among "pagans" and "heretics," the latter chiefly of the Gnostic sects; and on the other hand, to raise an outcry among less liberal professors and teachers of the faith, who had not been so successful in their labors. What gave the greatest offence in his teachings was his way of explaining, after the manner of the Midrash, known to him through the Jewish masters (from whom, at an advanced age, he had also learned Hebrew), allegorically and symbolically that which in the Scripture warred with the common human understanding, or seemed repugnant in manner or matter. Furthermore, while upholding all the ethical portions of the Bible, he rejected a great deal of its supposed historical and legal contents for all purposes save, perhaps, as starting-points for homiletics. "What edification," he says, "could we find in literally interpreting the story of Abraham's first telling Abimelech a lie, and then, with Sarah's consent, handing her over to him and prostituting her?" As to the discrepancies in the different gospels respecting the life of Christ, he says: "One of two only is possible. Either these things are true in a *spiritual* sense only, or as long as the discrepancies are not satisfactorily explained away, we cannot believe in the gospel being dictated by the Holy Ghost, and redacted under the influence of his inspiration."

In 211 he went to Rome, but soon afterwards, at the wish of Bishop Demetrius, he returned to Alexandria, which, however, he was obliged to leave precipitately, and to seek refuge from certain popular tumults in Palestine. Here the bishops received him with great honors, and desired him to institute public lectures, in which they themselves became hearers. Recalled again by the Alexandrian bishop, he was sent to Achaea to combat certain heresies that had broken out there. The wrath that had silently been gathering against him found its first vent when, in 228, the bishops assembled in Cesarea in Palestine consecrated him presbyter. The Bishop of Alexandria took umbrage at this outrage, as he called it, on his authority. Two councils were convoked, and in 232, O. was deprived of his priestly office, and excommunicated, the principal heresy charged against him being his denial of eternal punishment. Yet the churches of the East remained faithful to him. Palestine, Arabia, Phoenicia, and Achaea remained in constant communication with him; and men like Gregory Thaumaturgus (q. v.), Athenodorus, and others remained or became his faithful disciples ever after, while the Bishop of Cesarea allowed him openly to expound the Scripture in his church. The persecutions under Maximinus again forced him to seek refuge for two years in Cappadocia. Returning under Gordianus, he resumed his labors and journeys, until, when Decius ascended the throne, he was seized, imprisoned, and tortured for his faith. He did not survive his sufferings long, but died, in 254, at Tyre, where his tomb, near the high-altar of the cathedral, was shewn for many centuries, until it was destroyed during the Crusades.

The number of his works is stated by Epiphanius and Rufinus to have exceeded 6000, and although this is probably only meant as an exaggerated round number, yet the amount of writings that issued from his always busy brain and hands cannot but have been enormous. Seven secretaries and seven copyists, aided by an uncer-

tain number of young girls, are by Eusebius reported to have been always at work for him. The great bulk of his works is lost; but among those that have survived, the most important by far are his two editions of the Old Testament, called respectively "Tetrapla" (*fourfold*) and "Hexapla" (*sixfold*). See **HEXAPLA**. The labor bestowed upon this work must have been immense, and no less than twenty-eight years is O. supposed to have been engaged upon it. On its importance for Biblical criticism it is needless to enlarge here. Fragments only have come down to us, the original having been lost during the siege and capture of Caesarea by the Arabs; and the Greek as well as the Roman clergy having almost laid an interdict upon the copying of any of O.'s much suspected writings. Montfaucon has collected and edited these fragmenta ("Hexaplorum Origenis quae supersunt," 2 vols. fol. Paris, 1714), which were re-edited by C. F. Bahrdt (1769—1770). Of his other partly extant, partly lost works, the chief are his books "On the Resurrection," "On Myrrydion," "Eight Books against Celsius," "On Prayer," besides Epistles, &c. He further revised and enlarged Philo's Lexicon of Hebrew Names ("Hebraicorum Nominum S. Scripturae et Meusnarrarum Interpretatio"), whence it has often, together with many other spurious works, been ascribed to him exclusively. Little also has survived of his many exegetical writings, commentaries, brief notes, and homilies on both Testaments. The best editions of his collected works are by De la Rue (Rudens), (Paris, 1733—1759, 4 vols. fol.); by Oberthür (Wurzburg, 1785—1794, 15 vols.); and by Lommatzsch, which is critical and more complete (Berlin, 1881), &c.

**ORI'GINAL SIN.** According to this theological tenet, when stated in its extremest form, men come into the world with the reason and will utterly corrupt. This corruption originated in the fall of Adam, and has been inherited equally by all his posterity, so that the natural man is not only incapable of knowing and loving God and goodness, but is inclined to contemn God and pursue evil; on which account the anger of God has subjected him to temporal death, and destined him to everlasting punishment in hell. The doctrine is founded on the account of the fall given in Genesis, and on some passages in Paul's Epistle to the Galatians, and in that to the Romans; which passages, however, are held by others to contain no such doctrine; and indeed nearly every point in the history of the doctrine is the subject of as much controversy as the details of the doctrine itself. The early church, it is maintained by one school, was unacquainted with it; and the most orthodox admit that the doctrine had not at that time been fully developed. The Christian fathers, Justin Martyr, Clemens Alexandrinus, Ireneus, and others, ascribe to the natural man a certain ability to know God and choose the good, they are said to reject distinctly all propagation of sin and guilt, and even to refer human mortality not to Adam's sin, but solely to the constitution of the body. Origen, on the other hand, in opposition to the Gnostics and Manichees, who grounded the sinfulness of men on the connection of the soul with a material body, asserted that the sinfulness was in existence at birth, but ascribed the development of actual sins and their consequences not to propagation, but to the moral operation of precept and example. He accordingly found the cause of sin to be in the freedom of the will, the abuse of which he explained partly by the operation of evil powers, partly by the predominance of the sensuous part of man's nature over the rational mind. The orthodox teachers of the Greek Church, again, held that Adam, by the fall, rendered himself and all his posterity mortal, but, according to the less rigid schools, they looked for the origin of sin in the freedom of the will acted upon by the flesh, and by demoniacal influences, and ascribed to man the power of resisting every evil if he chose. These views, it is alleged, continued to be held, in substance, by the Christian teachers in the east, and were fully developed by Chrysostom; but Catholic writers maintain that in all this Chrysostom and the other Greek fathers are speaking not of the *natural* powers of the will, but of the will as assisted by divine grace.

The doctrine took another shape in the Latin Church. Tertullian, following up his dogma of Traducianism, according to which the child derives not only its body, but its soul from its parents, maintained that sinfulness had been propagated, along with mortality, from Adam to all mankind; he thus defended an *origens ritum*, without conceiving it as actual sin and denying all capacity for good in man. This view was followed by Cyprian, Ambrose, and even by Augustine in his earlier writings. It was only during his controversy with Pelagius and Cælestins that Augus-

time came to develop the doctrine of original sin into the full form given above. His great influence in the western churches procured the condemnation of his opponents, the Pelagians (q. v.), as heretics at the Councils of Carthage (412, 416, 48), although the Councils of Jerusalem and Diospolis (416) decided in their favor. Building upon the foundation of Traducianism, Augustine laid down that every natural man is in the power of the devil, and upheld the justice of this as a punishment for the share which the individual had in Adam's transgression: for as all men existed in the loins of Adam, all sinned with him. Pelagius, on the other hand, who rejected the Traducian theory, denied that sin is propagated physically, or that the fall of Adam has exercised any prejudicial influence on the moral constitution of his posterity; and maintained that all men are born in a state of innocence, possess the power of freewill, and may therefore live without sin. He and his followers objected to Augustine, that his doctrine was in direct contradiction to clear passages of Scripture, and that it made God the originator of evil and an unrighteous judge.

Great as was the respect for Augustine, the harshness of his doctrine was too shocking to the natural sentiment to meet with lasting acceptance. In the eastern church it never gained a footing, and even in the west it met with opposition. In Gaul, John Cassian, Faustus, Arnobius, and others, took up a view midway between the views of Augustine and Pelagius, from which they were called Semipelagians. They attributed to man a capacity for good which makes it possible for him, not indeed to merit the favor of God, but to make himself capable of receiving it; and maintained that it is only a certain inborn weakness that men inherit from the first pair. The Semipelagian doctrine found acceptance especially among the monks (in particular among the Franciscans), continued to prevail during the middle ages, and among the scholastics found partisans in the Scotists. Augustine's views also found advocates among the scholastic philosophers, who, however, added to it many limitations and explanations. Regarding the way in which original sin is propagated, many held by the Traducian theory, while others conceived it to be a sort of infection of the soul by the defiled body, or an imputatio[n] of guilt to all partakers of the human nature. Petrus Lombardus adhered to Augustine. Anselm of Canterbury conceived original sin to be a want of requisite righteousness, and thought that this want was imputed to all the posterity of Adam, although not in the same degree as if they had themselves sinned. Anselm's view was adopted by Duns Scotus, while Bonaventura and Thomas Aquinas sought to combine the opinions of Anselm and Augustine. Anselm had thought that his theory afforded a better explanation of the sinless birth of Christ; and about the 12th c. it began to be maintained that Mary also was conceived without sin.

The reformers of the 16 c. everywhere made original sin a leading doctrine, and thus were enabled to combat effectively the Roman Catholic doctrine of the merit of works; while the Catholic Church, in the fifth session of the Council of Trent, stamped what the Calvinist school would call Semipelagianism as the orthodox doctrine. The reformed churches agreed with the Lutheran on the point of original sin. In this they followed Calvin rather than Zwingli, who looked upon it as an evil or disease, and as becoming sin only when a commandment is transgressed. The Arminians and Socinians, on the other hand, denied the doctrine of hereditary sin in the ecclesiastical sense. The Mennonites spoke of a loss of the divine image in consequence of the fall of Adam, but still asserted the freewill of man. The Quakers rejected the name of original sin altogether; they held that there is a germ of sin in man, from which imputable sin springs, and that, however corrupt he has still the susceptibility of being awakened to the inward light. The whole Protestant Church held, besides, that Jesus alone was free from sin, both original and actual. The Roman Catholic Church ascribed this attribute also to Mary, though no public and distinct declaration on the point was given by the Council of Trent. See **IMMACULATE CONCEPTION**.

The harshness of the Augustinian dogma led, at the time of the Reformation, to keen controversies; Erasmus disputed the point with Luther, and would only admit a weakness of the freewill arising from original sin, and by no means a complete annihilation of it. From that time the doctrine in Germany continued to be variously attacked and defended. It has been discussed by the schools of philosophy. Kant shewed the moral insignificance of the dogma, and made out original sin to be a propensity to evil inherent in man. The Schelling-Hegel school, again, explained

It is the finite nature with which the individual is born. In recent times, the theologians of the old Lutheran and strictly orthodox tendencies, such as Olshausen, Tholuck, Hengstenberg, and others, have come forward as adherents and defenders of the Augustinian doctrine; while the more liberal theologians modify it in various ways, not admitting any moral inborn corruption arising from the fall, but only a weakness in man's nature for the knowledge and performance of good. How far, and with what differences, the extreme Augustinian view is held by the churches of England and Scotland, will be seen from the following extracts from the "Thirty-nine Articles" and the "Westminster Confession of Faith."

From Art. ix. of the "Thirty-nine Articles": "Original sin standeth not in the following of Adam (as the Pelagians do vainly talk); but it is the fault and corruption of the nature of every man, that naturally is engendered of the offspring of Adam, 'whereby man is very far gone from original righteousness,' and is of his own nature inclined to evil, so that the flesh lusteth always contrary to the spirit; and therefore in every person born into the world, it deserveth God's wrath and damnation."

From chap. vi. of the "Westminster Confession": "By this sin" (i. e., the eating of the forbidden fruit), "they" (i. e., our first parents) "fell from their original righteousness and communion with God, and so became dead in sin, and wholly defiled in all the faculties and parts of soul and body." They being the root of all mankind, the guilt of this sin was imputed, and the same death in sin and corrupted nature conveyed to all their posterity, descending from them by ordinary generation. From this original corruption, 'whereby we are utterly indisposed, disabled, and made opposite to all good, and wholly inclined to all evil,' do proceed all actual transgressions."

ORIHUELA, an ancient town of Spain in the modern province of Alicante, and 86 miles south-west of the city of that name, stands on the banks of the Segura, in a plain remarkable alike for its beauty and its fertility. It is long and straggling, while its palm-trees, square towers, and domes give it an oriental appearance. It contains a cathedral, numerous churches and convents, barracks, &c. The manufactures are linen goods and hats, and many corn and oil mills and tanneries are in operation. Olive oil is very extensively made. The vegetation here is gigantic; the oaks are actual trees. O. has been possessed by Carthaginians, Romans, Moors, and Spaniards in turn. Pop. 24,000.

ORILLON, in Fortification, and especially in the earlier systems, is a semicircular projection at the shoulder of a bastion, intended to cover from the observation of the enemy the guns and defenders on the flank, which, with such a construction, is somewhat retired or thrown back. The flank thus protected is held by many distinguished engineers to be most valuable in the defence of the ditch, in clearing it from an attacking party, or from hostile miners. The retired flank is sometimes straight, at others curved. The orillon is as old as the bastion, and is found in the works of Pagan and Speckle.

ORINO'CO, a great river of South America, flows through Guiana and Venezuela, and reaches the Atlantic Ocean south of Trinidad, in lat.  $8^{\circ} 40'$  n. The country in which it takes its rise is inhabited by an aboriginal race called the Guicas, who have hitherto prevented all access by foreigners to its sources; but it is known to rise in the Sierra Parime, one of the chief mountain chains of Guiana, near lat.  $8^{\circ} 40'$  n., long.  $64^{\circ} 30'$  w. It has been explored by Humboldt to the village of Esmeraldas (lat.  $3^{\circ} 8'$  n., long.  $66^{\circ} 5'$  w.), and by Schomburgk to within 30 miles of its source. After flowing west-south-west 20 miles past Esmeraldas the river bifurcates, and the southern branch, the Cassiquiare (q. v.), flowing south-west, joins the Rio Negro, an affluent of the Amazon. From this point the O. flows north-west to its junction with the Guaviare, then north-north-east to its junction with the Apure, after which it flows in an eastward direction to its mouth. Length of course, 1960 miles. The head of uninterrupted navigation is at the confluence of the O. with the Apure, 777 miles from the mouth of the river. Above this point the course of the river is interrupted by "randals" or cataracts, of which those of Maypure and Atures are the most celebrated. Its principal affluents from the left are the Guaviare, the Vichada, the Mera, and the Apure; from the right, the Ventuari, Canan, and Caroni. The O., which is joined by 486 rivers, and upwards of 2000 streams, drains an area (usually stated at 250,000 square miles) which, according to Wappau's "Republikien von Sü-

Amerika," may be estimated at 650,000 square miles. It begins to form its delta 130 miles from its mouth, by throwing off a branch which flows northward into the Atlantic. Several of the mouths are navigable, and the main stream, the Boca de Navios, is divided by a line of islands into two channels, each two miles in width. Bolivar, a town upwards of 250 miles from the mouth of the river, marks the head of tide-water, and here the river is 4 miles wide and 390 feet deep. Below the junction of the Apure the character of the scenery seems to be uniform—forests on the right bank, and llanos on the left.

O'RIOLE (*Oriolus*), a genus of birds of the Thrush family (*Merulidae* or *Turdidae*), having an elongated conical beak, broad at the base; the upper mandible ridged above, and notched at the point; wings of moderate size, the first feather very short, the third the longest; the tail of moderate length, and rounded; the tarsus not longer than the middle toe; the outer toe joined at its base to the middle toe; claws strong and curved. The species are numerous, all natives of the Old World, and chiefly of the warmer parts of it; the adult males generally of much brighter plumage than the females and young males, the prevalent color yellow. Only one species is found in Europe, the GOLDEN O. (*O. galbula*), pretty common in Italy and some other parts of Europe, but a rare summer visitant of England, and never seen in Scotland, although it occasionally breeds in the south of Sweden.—The name O. is still very commonly given to the Baltimore Bird (q. v.), and other American birds of the Starling family, the chief resemblance of which to the true orioles is in color.

ORION, in Greek Mythology, was a gigantic hunter, and reputed the handsomest man in the world. His parentage is differently given. According to the commonly received myth, he was the son of Hyrcus of Hyrcania, in Bœotia, and was called in his own country Kindaon. Another account makes him a son of Poseidon and Euryale, while some state that he was *Autochthonos*, or "earth-born." So immense was his size, that when he waded through the deepest sea, he was still a head and shoulders above the water; and when he walked on dry land, his stature reached the clouds. Once on a time he came to Chios, in the Aegean Sea, where he fell in love with Aero or Merope, daughter of Cœnopion. He cleared the isle of wild beasts, and brought their skins as presents to his sweetheart; but her father always put off their marriage; whereupon O., one day giving way to passion (when under the influence of wine), sought to take the maiden by force. Cœnopion now called upon Dionysus (Bacchus) for help, who put out the eyes of the inebriate lover. O., however, recovered his sight in Lemnos, by following the advice of an oracle, and returned to Chios to take vengeance on Cœnopion. Not finding him, he went to Crete, where he spent the rest of his life hunting in company with Artemis (Diana). The cause and manner of his death are differently related. Artemis, say some, slew him with an arrow, because Eos, inflamed by his beauty, had carried him off to Ortygia, and thereby offended the gods. Others aver that Artemis, virgin-goddess though she was, cherished an affection for him, that made her brother Apollo fiercely indignant. One day, pointing out to her at sea a black object floating in the water, he told her that he did not believe she could hit it. Artemis, not recognising her favorite, drew her bow, and pierced him through the head; a third myth makes him find his death from the sting of a scorpion. Asklepios (Esculapius) wished to restore him to life, but was slain by a bolt of Zeus. After his death, O. was placed with his hounds among the stars, where, to this day, the most splendid constellation in the heavens bears his name.

ORISSA, an ancient kingdom of Hindostan, the authentic history of which goes back to 473 A.D., extended from Bengal—a part of which it included—on the n., to the banks of the Godavari on the s., and from the coast on the e. to the river Gondwana on the w. From its remains of sculptures, inscriptions, &c., we may infer that its earliest civilisation was high. The temple of the sun at Konarak—erected about the 12th c.—exhibits carvings representing the planets, sculptured figures of animals, &c., which shew that at that date the plastic and mechanical arts were in a more advanced state in O. than they were in England. It maintained its position as an independent monarchy till 1658, when, its royal line having become extinct, it became an outlying province of the empire of the Great Mogul. On the breaking up of this empire, the more valuable portions of O. were seized by the Nizam of Hyderabad. The French, who had taken possession of a part of the country long known as the Northern Circars, attempted to drive the English (who had also formed commercial

settlements on the coast) out of India. The result of the contest for supremacy in India between the French and English is well known. The Mahrattas, who had seized a portion of O. in 1740, were forced to surrender it to the English in 1803. The soldiers of the East India Company were marched into O. at the commencement of the present century, and an engagement was subsequently entered into between the Company and the native chiefs and princes, by which the former bound themselves to perform certain services for the country (as maintaining the river-banks in good repair), while the latter engaged to pay a yearly tribute. Of the many principalities into which O. was divided, a large number got into arrears with the government, and the result was that numbers of the estates were sold, and the government, as a rule, became the purchaser. Much of the territory originally forming a portion of this kingdom thus fell into the hands of the British. The ancient O., which existed as an independent monarchy for four centuries, and flourished as a principality of the Mughal empire after 1568, is now hardly to be recognised in the British commissionership of O., with an area of 28,901 sq. m., and a pop. of (1872) 4,817,999. This country was decimated by famine in 1868-69; and careful surveys of its coast were made in 1870. O. is traversed by a branch of the Eastern Ghats running parallel with the coast. The hill-districts, which nowhere present an elevation of more than 8000 feet, are inhabited by the Gonds, the Koles, the Sourahs, and the Khonds. The Khonds occupied an area extending from north of the Mahanaddi, south to the banks of the Godavari. Their mountain-haunts are admirably suited for defence, as the districts which they inhabit are almost inaccessible; and although they do not yet appear to have adopted firearms, they manage their battle-axes and bows and arrows with an adroitness and courage that make them formidable enemies. The Khonds are a totally distinct race from the inhabitants of the plains, and there is but little resemblance between them and the other hill-tribes, the Gonds and Sourahs. The chief peculiarities of the Khonds are, that their language, which is quite distinct from those of the neighboring tribes, is not in the least understood by the inhabitants of the plains; and that human sacrifice formed, till within the last few years, one of the distinguishing features of their religion. They do not barter or traffic, and all commercial transactions are managed for the Khonds by the Panus, Douns, &c., regarded by their employers as inferior races. There are, however, no caste prejudices among the Khonds such as generally prevail throughout the plains of India. Agriculture and war are the only employments. The revolting custom of human sacrifice prevailed among the Khonds from the earliest times, although it was not till 1886 that the attention of the government was specially called to the subject, at the conclusion of an insurrection, in the course of which British officers had been brought into contact with the Hill tribes. The Khond victim, call'd Meriah, were always bought with a price, sometimes from families of their own tribe, who had fallen into poverty, but generally kidnapped from the plains by miscreants of the Panu race. The Meriah victims were of both sexes, and of every age; though adults were held in the highest esteem, because, being the most costly, they were supposed to be more acceptable to the deity. The object of the sacrifice was to propitiate the earth-god; and abundant crops, security from calamity, and a general prosperity were supposed to be insured to any one who had cut off a portion of the flesh of the human victim, and buried it in his farm. The consecration of the Meriah sacrifice was often attended with circumstances of the most revolting and disgusting cruelty. In some cases the event was preceded by a month's feasting, intoxication, and dancing round the Meriah. On the day before the sacrifice, the priest thus addressed the victim: "We have bought you with a price, and did not seize you; now we sacrifice you according to custom, and no sin rests with us." On the following day the victim was made senseless from intoxication, and then suffocated; after which the officiating priest cut a portion of the flesh from the body, and buried it as an offering to the earth-god. The people following his example, hewed the flesh from the bones, and carried the bloody trophy to their distant villages, where it was buried. In many cases the victim was not intoxicated before sacrifice; but the joints of his arms and legs were broken with a hatchet, in order to prevent the possibility of resistance. In 1887, General (then Captain) Campbell was appointed assistant-collector in Ganjam, the adjoining district in the plains, and with varied success devoted much of his time to endeavoring to suppress the rite. He was succeeded in 1841 by Major (then Lieutenant)

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Macpherson, C. B. Encouraged by the success of his labors, the government in 1843 established, under Macpherson, a separate agency for the suppression of Meriah sacrifices in the Hill tracts of O., in which he was succeeded in 1847, by Major-general Campbell, who carried on, with undiminished success, the good work commenced by Macpherson, pushing his inquiries and exerting his authority among tribes unvisited by his predecessor; and reports have been sent in from all parts of the country, stating that for several years hardly any Meriah sacrifices have taken place in the great Hill tract of Orissa. In the year 1862-1863, all victims retained for sacrifice were demanded, and in only one instance had the demand to be followed up by force. The practice of female infanticide, in this district at one time dreadfully common, to which attention was first called by Major Macpherson, has now also become almost wholly suppressed.

See "Report by Lieutenant M'Pherson," 1841; "An Account of the Religion of the Khonds in Orissa, read in the Trans. of Ant. Societies," 1851; Campbell's "Personal Narrative of service amongst the Wild Tribes of Khondistan," 1864; "Calcutta Review," Nos. IX., XI., XV., and XX.; Kaye's "History of the Administration of the E. I. Coy.," 1858; "Memoir: Administration of India during Last thirty Years," 1859; "Indian Records—History of the rise and Progress of the Operations for the Suppression of Human Sacrifice and Female Infanticide in the Hill Tracts of Orissa," (1854); and "Orissa," by W. W. Hunter, Director-general of the Statistical Survey of India, (1879).

ORISTA'NO, a town, and inferior river port on the west coast of Sardinia, 58 miles north-west of Cagliari. It stands in a fruitful, well-cultivated plain, about a mile from the left bank of the Tirso or Oristano, and 8 miles from its mouth in the Gulf of Oristano, which is about 10 miles in length, with a breadth of 5 miles. It is surrounded by ancient walls flanked with towers; contains a cathedral with a great clock tower, the most conspicuous object in the town; an archbishop's palace, college, and several churches and convents. It carries on manufactures of ironware, cutlery, and agricultural implements, and a number of its inhabitants are engaged in the tunny fishery on the coast. Corn, salt fish, and the wine of Vernaccia are exported. In winter the town is busy and lively; but in summer it is unhealthy, and during that season all who can afford to do so, leave it. Pop. 2500.

ORIZA'BA, a town of Mexico, in the state of Vera Cruz, 70 miles west-south-west of the town of that name, and 26 miles south of the volcano of Orizaba. The vicinity is unusually fertile, and is covered with forests. The town contains numerous churches, a high school, and an extensive cotton spinning factory. Coarse cloths and tobacco are largely manufactured, and there is much general industry. Pop. 15,000.

ORKNEY ISLANDS, which, with Shetland, form one county, separated from Caithness by the Pentland Firth (q. v.), lie between  $58^{\circ} 41' 24''$  and  $59^{\circ} 23' 2''$  n. lat., and between  $2^{\circ} 22' 2''$  and  $2^{\circ} 25' 10''$  w. long.; and are 78 in number at low-water, of which 23, besides Pomona, or the Mainland, are inhabited. The area of the O. I. is 610 square miles, or 390,147 imperial acres. The surface is very irregular, and the land is indented by numerous arms of the sea. The highest hill is the Ward of Hoy, 1555 feet. The rocks are of the old red sandstone formation, except a small granitic district near Stromness. Previous to the middle of last century, the agriculture of Orkney was, in more than an ordinary degree for the time, in a primitive state. There was little communication then with the mainland, and improvements were slowly adopted. The spinning-wheel, for instance, was not introduced there for half a century after it was in use elsewhere. Until towards the end of last century, little advance seems to have been made in the management of the land, the inhabitants deeming it more important and profitable to direct their attention to the manufacture of kelp. The people used to suffer periodically from bad seasons and violent storms, when less help could be afforded to them from without. In 1778, a great hurricane of four hours' duration drove the sea-spray over the islands. The grain crop was in consequence sea-gusted, and rendered almost worthless, and there required to be imported 18,000 bushels of meal and bere, besides other articles, costing £15,000, or nearly twice the gross rental of the county. Orkney was formerly divided into 32 parishes, having 8 parish ministers. It now contains 22 parishes, forming 3 presbyteries and 1 synod. There are also about 30 congregations belonging to the

Free and United Presbyterian Churches, besides 3 Independent, and one or two others.

The temperature of Orkney is comparatively mild, considering its northern latitude. This arises partly from its being surrounded by the sea, but chiefly from the neighborhood of the Gulf Stream to the western shores. For the 3 years ending 1869, the mean annual temperature was  $46^{\circ}$ ; the mean temperature of January and February, the coldest months,  $39^{\circ}$ ; and that of July,  $55^{\circ}$ . The annual rainfall varies from about 28 inches on the east side of the Isles to 87 inches on the west.

The carrying-trade and merchandise of Orkney have greatly increased of late years. The exports rose from £48,808 in 1848 to £181,483 in 1861. According to a carefully prepared return in connection with a Piers' Bill, the value of exports, in 1871, exceeded £250,000. The exports are chiefly of fish and agricultural produce, of which cattle are the principal.

The total acreage in 1875 under all kinds of crops, bare fallow, and grass, was 93,615; barley and bere, 5601 acres; oats, 29,549 acres; turnips, 12,201 acres; potatoes, 3151 acres. The number of horses in 1875 was 5614; cattle, 25,762; sheep, 81,898; swine, 4156. The number of occupants of land was 3147.

The chief towns are, Kirkwall (q. v.), the capital (situated in Pomona), and Stromness, in which there are 8 distilleries, producing upwards of 20,000 gallons of whisky annually; but Kirkwall is the only royal burgh in the shire. The valued rent of the O. I. in 1653 was £57,149 Scots, or £4763 sterling. The valuation (exclusive of the burgh of Kirkwall) in 1875-76 was £60,284. In 1871, inhabited houses in the O. I., 6283; pop. 31,274. Constituency returning a member of parliament, with Shetland, in 1875-76, 1281.

The Orkneys, under the name *Orcades* [whence the modern adjective, Orcadian], are mentioned by the ancient geographers, Pliny, Ptolemy, Mela, and by other classical writers, but of their inhabitants we know almost nothing till the dawn of the Middle Ages. They were most probably of the same stock as the British Celts. From an early period, however, the Nor-men resorted to these islands, as a convenient spot from which to make a descent on the Scotch and English coasts. In 876, Harald Haarfager conquered both them and the Hebrides. During the greater part of the 10th c., they were ruled by independent Scandinavian jarls (earls), but in 1098 they became formally subject to the Norwegian crown. Thus they remained till 1468, when they were given to James III. of Scotland as a security for the dowry of his wife, Margaret of Denmark. The islands were never redeemed from this pledge; and in 1590, on the marriage of James I. with the Danish Princess Anne, Denmark formally resigned all pretensions to the sovereignty of the Orkneys. During their long connection, however, with Norway and Denmark, all traces of the primitive population disappeared. The present proprietors of land are chiefly of Scotch descent; and the inhabitants generally are a mixed race of Scandinavian and Scotch descent.

**ORLE**, in Heraldry, one of the charges known under the name of sub-ordinaries, said to be the diminutive of a Bordure (q. v.), but differing from it in being detached from the sides of the shield. It may be the sole charge in a shield. **Or**, an orle gules was the coat borne by John Balliol. An orle of heraldic charges of any kind denotes a certain number (generally eight) of these charges placed in orle, as in the coat of the old Scottish family of Gladstanes of that Ilk; **argent**, a savage's head couped, distilling drops of blood proper, thereon a bonnet composed of bay and holly leaves all proper, within an orle of eight martlets sable.

**ORLEANS**, an important-commercial town of France, capital of the department of Loiret, and formerly capital of the old province of Orleans, which now forms the greater part of the departments of Loiret, Eure-et-Loir, and Loir-et-Cher. is situated on the right bank of the Loire, here crossed by a bridge of 9 arches, and is  $75\frac{1}{4}$  miles south-south-west of Paris by railway. Close to the city is the Forest of O., one of the largest in the country, consisting of 94,000 acres, planted with oak and other valuable trees. O. stands on the verge of a magnificent plain sloping toward the Loire, and watered by the Loire and Loiret, and is surrounded on the land-side by a wall and dry ditches, on either side of which there are pleasantly shaded boulevards. Around it are eight prosperous and populous suburbs. Among its principal buildings are the cathedral, with two lofty and elegant towers, one of the finest

Gothic edifices in the country; the tower; bishop's residence; the houses of Joan of Arc, of Agnes Sorrel, of Diane de Poitiers, of Francois I., of Pothier; the churches and hospitals, which are numerous; the *musee*, theatre, &c. The town contains three statues of Joan of Arc, of which the equestrian one was inaugurated in 1855. The situation of the town has many commercial advantages, arising from its position on a navigable river, on lines of railway which connect it with Paris and the great trading towns in the south of France, and on the canal which connects the Loire with the Seine. Hosiery, cotton and linen goods, refined sugar, vinegar, bleached wax, leather, &c., are manufactured; and the trade is chiefly in stockings, sheepskin, wine, brandy, corn, and sugar. Pop. (1872) 45,205.

O., originally called *Genabum*, afterwards *Aurelianum* (probably from the Emperor Aurelian), of which the modern name is only a corruption, was besieged by Attila in 451, but relieved by the Romans, who here defeated Attila. It afterwards passed into the hands of the Franks, was taken by the Northmen in 865, and again in 865. In 1428, it was besieged by the English under the Duke of Bedford, but was delivered from the besiegers by the inspiring exertions of Joan of Arc (q. v.), who on this account is also named the Maid of Orleans. During the religious wars of the 16th c., O. suffered severely, as also during the war 1870-71.

#### ORLEANS, House of. See BOURBON.

ORLEANS, Jean Baptiste Gaston, Duc d', third son of Henry IV. of France and Marie de' Medici; was born at Fontainebleau, 25th April 1608. He possessed tolerable abilities, but his education was neglected. On his marriage with Marie of Bourbon, Duchess of Montpensier, in 1626, he received the duchy of Orleans as appanage. His wife soon died, leaving one daughter, the celebrated Mademoiselle de Montpensier. His brother, Louis XIII., regarded him with dislike as heir-presumptive to the throne, the queen having no children; and the treatment which he received at the hands of the king and of Richelieu led him to join with his mother in attempting the overthrow of that minister. He left the court with a number of other great nobles in February 1631; sought the support of the Duke of Lorraine, whose sister he married; and raised in the Spanish Netherlands a corps of 2000 men, at the head of which he crossed the French frontier, assuming the title of Lieutenant-general of the Kingdom; but was completely defeated by Marshal Schomberg at Ca-telhun-dary, and fled to the Duke of Lorraine, whom he thereby involved in ruin. In 1634, however, he returned to the French court. Richelieu sought to have his marriage with Margaret of Lorraine declared invalid, but after a long struggle, and much disputing among jurists and theologians, its validity was sustained. The duke was, however, again obliged to leave France in consequence of fresh intrigues against Richelieu. After Richelieu's death, a reconciliation was effected between him and his brother, the king, by the ministers Mazarin and Chavigny; and Louis XIII. appointed him Lieutenant-general of the kingdom during the minority of Louis XIV. Mazarin and the queen-mother, Anne of Austria, attempting to assume all power to themselves, the duke placed himself at the head of the Fronde (q. v.); but with his usual vacillating weakness and selfish sacrifice of his friends, soon made terms again with the court. Yet, when Mazarin returned from banishment, in 1652, the duke again assembled troops for the Prince of Condé, upon which account, after the disturbances were ended, he was confined to his castle of Blois, where he died on 2d February 1660. He left three daughters by his second marriage.

#### ORLEANS, New. See NEW ORLEANS.

ORLEANS, Philippe, Duc d', regent of France during the minority of Louis XV., was the son of Philippe, Duc d'Orleans, and the grandson of Louis XIII., and was born 4th August 1674. He possessed excellent talents, and made unusual attainments both in science and belles lettres; but his tutor, Cardinal Dubois (q. v.), did not scruple to minister to the strong passions of the young prince, and exercised a most pernicious influence over him. He gave himself up to debauchery. The king compelled him to marry Mademoiselle de Blois, his daughter by Madame de Montpensier. He astonished and alarmed the court by protesting against his exclusion by the testament of Charles II. from all right of succession to the throne of Spain, and by the attention which he immediately began to give to military and political affairs. His military talents, however, led to his employment in the wars in Italy and in Spain; but his presence in Madrid after his victories was regarded with apprehension both

by Philip V. and by Louis XIV. He had, indeed, formed the design of taking possession of the Spanish throne for himself. In consequence of this, he lived for some years in complete exile from the court, and much dreaded by it; spending his time both in vicious excesses, and in the cultivation of the fine arts and the study of chemistry. This study afforded a pretext to Madame de Maintenon and her party for accusing him of poisoning the dauphin and others of the royal family, who died suddenly, in rapid succession, of malignant fever, in 1711. The king refused an investigation which the duke demanded. Louis, having legitimised his sons, the Duke of Maine and the Count of Toulouse, appointed the Duke of Orleans only president of the regency and not regent, giving the guardianship of his youthful heir and the command of the household troops to the Duke of Maine; but all this was set aside at his death, and the Duke of Orleans became sole regent. He was popular, and his first measures increased his popularity; but the financial affairs of the kingdom were perplexing, and the regent's adoption of the schemes of Law (q. v.) led to disastrous results. Meanwhile, on the 26th August 1718, he held the celebrated *Lit de justice*, in which he prohibited the parliament of Paris from meddling with financial or political affairs, and declared the legitimised sons of Louis XIV. incapable of succeeding to the throne. Dubois, who still possessed an unhappy influence over his former pupil, became prime-minister, and eventually ruler of France; the regent, who was really a man of far higher abilities, neglecting all duties, and pursuing a course of prodigacy almost unequalled in the worst instances of antiquity. His eldest daughter, the Duchess de Berry, followed his example, and brought herself to an early grave. Dubois, wishing to be made a cardinal, persuaded the regent to sacrifice the Jansenists, and to compel the parliament in 1722 to recognise the bull "Unigenitus" (q. v.). After the king's coronation, 15th February 1722, and the death of Dubois in August, the Duke of Orleans, although disliking public affairs, consented to become prime-minister; but died on the 2d December of the same year, physically exhausted by his incessant debauchery. The influence of his religious and other opinions, and the example of his insoucieties, powerfully tended to promote that state of things which eventually produced the horrors of the French Revolution.

**ORLEANS.** Louis Philippe Joseph, Duc d', born April 18, 1747, was the great-grandson of the preceding. He possessed very good abilities; but early fell into the grossest debaucheries, in which he continued to the end of his career. Louis XVI. disliked him on account of his debased character, and the queen for his obstinacy. He became gradually estranged from the court, sought popularity and obtained it, and embraced the cause of American independence. In the assembly of Notables in 1787 he declared against the ministerial proposals; and when the king sought to overcome the resistance of the parliament by a *Lit de justice*, he protested against the proceeding. On the assembly of the States-General, he took the popular side, and voted with the extreme left in the National Assembly; seeking at the same time to please the populace by profuse expenditure, with the hope of being made Lieutenant-general of the Kingdom, or perhaps of opening for himself a way to the throne. When the insurrectionary movements began in Paris in 1789, he promoted them, by secret agents and money. The court sent him on an ostensibly diplomatic mission to England, from which he returned after more than six months' absence, in July 1790, and unscrupulously engaged in new intrigues hostile to the king. But he began to find that he himself was made the mere tool of a party, who availed themselves of his influence and wealth for their own purposes, and this discovery cooled his revolutionary fervor. He withdrew from the Jacobin Club, was reconciled to the king, and appeared at court; but was treated with such disrespect by the courtiers, that he turned away, and from that time followed in blind rage the stream of the revolution. He joined Danton's party, was concerned in insurrections, disclaimed all pretensions to the throne, renounced his titles, assumed the name of Philippe Egalité, was addressed as Citizen Egalité, and was returned by the department of Seine and Marne to the National Convention, in which he took his place among the Mountain party. He voted for the death of the king, being, it is said, himself threatened with death by the Jacobins if he should do otherwise, but alleging his sense of duty and his belief that every one who did anything contrary to the sovereignty of the people deserved death. The vote was received with a cry of disgust, and by no means increased the safety of his own position. The Mountain party

were dissatisfied with him, because he did not give up the whole of his immense wealth for party purposes. After the desertion of his son, the Duke de Chartres (see LOUIS PHILIPPE), the decree for the imprisonment of all the Bourbons was applied to him. He was thrown into prison with his family in Marseille, and was brought before the tribunal of the department of Bonches de l'Rhône on a charge of high treason. He was acquitted, but the Committee of Public Safety immediately brought him before the Revolutionary Tribunal in Paris; and on the 6th of November 1793 he was condemned, and on the same day executed amidst the execrations of the multitude which had so often applauded him.

ORLEANS CLOTH, a kind of stuff made for ladies' dresses, in which the warp is of cotton and the weft of worsted. It is so called from having been first made at Orleans in France, but it is now extensively manufactured at Bradford in Yorkshire.

ORLOFF, or Orlov, a Russian family that first rose to eminence during the reign of Paul III., when one of its members, Count Gregori O., attracted the notice of the Grand Duchess Catherine, afterwards the Empress Catherine II., and succeeded Poniatowski as her favorite. It was Gregori who planned the murder of Peter III., and his brother Alexis who committed the deed, and both received high honors and rich rewards for this and other services. The flourishing family of the Counts Bobrinski resulted from Gregori's intercourse with the empress. The legitimate line of O. soon became extinct; but Feodor, a brother of Gregori and Alexis, left four illegitimate sons, one of whom, Mikail, distinguished himself in the campaign of 1814; and another was Count Alexei O., the celebrated diplomatist. Count Alexei was born in 1787, signalised himself by courage and military talents during the French war, negotiated the treaties of Adrianople (1829) and Unklar-Skelessi (1838), and represented Russia at the London conference of 1839 on the affairs of Belgium and Holland. In 1844, he was placed at the head of the secret police; and the ability and energy with which he directed its vast machinery, rendered him the most dreaded official in Russia. He was high in the favor of the Emperor Nicholas, who employed him in the negotiations with Austria previous to the Crimean war. In 1866, he sat in the congress of Paris as the representative of Russia, and on his return was made president of the grand council of the empire. He died at St Petersburg, 20th May 1861.

O'RLOP (Dutch, *overloop*, that which runs over, or covers), in ships of war, is the lowest deck, immediately above the hold. It contains the magazine, bread-room, and various store-rooms; and is used in time of action for the reception and treatment of the wounded, as, from being below the water-line, it is the safest part of the ship.

ORME'S HEAD, Great, a headland in the north-east of Caernarvonshire, North Wales, five miles north-north-west of Conway, is an enormous mass of limestone rock, surmounted by a light-house, and forming the extreme point of the western shore of Orme's Bay. Lat.  $53^{\circ} 20' n.$ , long.  $3^{\circ} 51' w.$ —Little Orme's Head forms the eastern extremity of the same bay.

ORMOLU is a variety of brass, consisting of zinc 25 parts, and copper 75 parts, which has a nearer resemblance in color to gold than ordinary Brass (q. v.). It is extensively used for castings of ornaments for furniture, candelabra, and such articles. When the casting is made, its color is brought out by a *pickle* of dilute sulphuric acid, after which the acid is removed by water, and a liquor varnish is put on to keep it from tarnishing.

ORMOND, James Butler, Duke of, was the first of the ancient Anglo-Irish family of Butler on whom the ducal title was conferred. The family was of illustrious antiquity. Genealogical legend carried it back to the dukes of Normandy before the Conquest, and it is certain that at the dawn of the 13th c., it held the hereditary office of royal cup-bearer or *butter*, whence the family name.—The subject of the present article was born in London in 1610. His father, the son of the celebrated Walter, Earl of Ormond, was drowned in crossing the Channel; and the old earl having incurred the displeasure of the king, James I., and being thrown into prison, James, who on his father's death became, as Viscount Thurles, the heir of the title, was seized as a royal ward, and placed under the guardianship of the Archibishop of

Canterbury. On the restoration of his grandfather to liberty, he also was released; and in his twentieth year he married his cousin, Lady Elizabeth Preston, and in 1682 succeeded, upon his grandfather's death, to the earldom and estates of Ormond. During the Strafford administration in Ireland, O. distinguished himself so much, that on Strafford's recall he recommended O. to the king; and in the rebellion in 1640, O. was appointed to the chief command of the army. During the troubled times which followed, he conducted himself with undoubted ability, although, as a necessary consequence of the numberless divisions and subdivisions of party which then prevailed in Ireland, he failed to satisfy any one of the conflicting sections; and when, in 1643, he concluded an armistice, his policy was loudly condemned as well by the friends as by the enemies of the royalist party in England. During the long contest of Charles with the parliament, O. continued to uphold the royal interest in his Irish government; and when the last crisis of the King's fortunes came, he resigned his Irish command, and retired to France, from which country he again returned to Ireland with the all but desperate design of restoring the royal authority, and after a gallant but unequal struggle, was compelled, in 1650, to return once more to France. His services to the royal cause continued unremitting during his exile; and at the restoration he accompanied Charles II. on his return, and was rewarded for his fidelity by the ducal title of Ormond. His after-life was less eventful, although he twice again returned to the government of Ireland. It was in 1679 that the well-known attempt was made by the notorious Colonel Blood (q. v.) upon the life of Ormond. As he was returning from a civic festival, he was attacked by Blood and a party of ruffians, and was dragged from his coach with the intention of his being hanged at Tyburn. The attempt drew additional interest from its being commonly supposed to have been instigated by the profligate Duke of Buckingham, O.'s inveterate foe. He escaped uninjured, and lived till the year 1688. His letters and other papers are full of deep historical interest. See Carte's "Life of Ormond."

ORMSKIRK, a market town of England, in Lancashire, in the centre of a rich and populous agricultural district, 12 miles north of Liverpool by the Lancashire and Yorkshire railway. The parish church has both a tower and spire. Its grammar-school has an annual income from endowment of £150. Silk-weaving, rope-making, basket-making, and brewing are the principal branches of industry. There are large collieries in the vicinity. Pop. (1871) 6127.

ORMUZ, or Hormuz, a small island in the strait of the same name, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, and within ten miles of the Persian coast. It is about twelve miles in circumference, and belonged to the Imam of Muscat till 1854. In the 16th c. it was taken by the Portuguese, and being made by them an entrepôt for goods from India, Persia, and Turkistan, it became important, and the town of the same name rose in population until it had 40,000 inhabitants. The town was demolished, in 1622, by Shah Abás, assisted by the English, and its trade was removed to Gombrooz (q. v.).

ORMUZD (Ahurnazd, Auramazda, Hormazd, Ormazd), corrupted from Ahūr-Mazdā, i. e., that Ahura (Vedic Asura) or "Spiritual Being," who is called Mazdā (i. e. Vedic Medhā) — "Creator of all things;" the name of the supreme deity of the ancient Persians, and of their descendants the Guebres and Parsees. It was at first emphatically employed in this sense by Zoroaster, or Zarathustra Spitama. O. is, according to Zoroaster's original doctrine, the creator of the earthly and spiritual life, the lord of the whole universe, in whose hands are all creatures. He is the light and the source of light, the wisdom and the intellect, and is in the possession of all good things, such as "the good mind," "immortality," "wholesomeness," "the best truth," "abundance," &c.; which gifts he bestows upon the pure in thoughts, deeds, and words, while the wicked are punished by him according to their wickedness. ("For thou art through purity, the holy over the wicked, the ruler over all, the heavenly, the friend of both worlds, Māzdu! . . . . Father of the pure creatures at the beginning, who hath created the way of the sun, of the stars, who causeth the moon to wax and to wane. . . . . He holdeth the earth and the unsupported [heavenly bodies?], the waters and the trees, and giveth swiftness to the wind and the clouds. . . . . The creator of the good mind, the working good, hath made light as well as darkness, sleep and waking, the morning dawn, the noon, the nights," &c.—"Yazna," 43.) Sprung from Zarvan-Akaranā (the bound-

less time), i. e., being from eternity, self-existing, neither born nor created, he unites within himself—as does man and everything else existing—the two-primeval principles of good and evil, the Oento-malnyus—i. e., the white, holy spirit; and the Angro-malnyus (corrupted into Ahriman)—the dark spirit. This Zoroastrian conception of the two sides of the divine being—itself one and indivisible—has, however, in the course of time, partly through misunderstandings and wilfully false interpretations, undergone important changes. While the Zervan-Akarana was transformed by the Magi—in opposition to the Zendiks—into the Supreme Being itself, the philosophical notion of a duality in O. became the theological dogma of god and devil, jealous of each other's power, bent upon the destruction of each other's works, and consequently in constant war with each other, they and their armies. Both are—according to this corrupted view of later times, by means of which the genuine one has been forgotten up to our day—supreme rulers; both have their fixed number of councillors (sprung from an egg, *Put, Isis and Ostis*), who are the actual governors of the whole universe, each in his special province; which councillors, however, are neither more nor less than certain abstract ideas of Zoroaster. One personal archangel alone is assumed by the latter, viz., Sraosha (Srosh, cf. Saur. Shrnti), i. e., hearing, tradition. He is vested with very high powers, and stands between O. and man; he is the teacher of good religion; he shews the way to heaven, and pronounces judgment over human actions after death. He is the personification of the whole divine worship and its outward manifestations, the symbols, prayers, sacrifices, rites, &c., and the chief combatant of the influence of the Devas; who stand symbolically for the Brahmanic religion. O. is represented as sitting upon a throne of light, as a venerable man, or seated upon a bull, &c.—For further particulars about the seasons and the manner of his worship, as well as the general relations between his and the Brahmanic religion (both the result of a prehistoric conflict between the Iranians and those Aryan brother-tribes who immigrated into Hindustan Proper), we must refer to PARSEES, PERSIA, and ZOROASTER.

ORNAMENTATION, or Decoration, in Architecture, applies to something which is added to the simple constructive features, or to the form given to those features, for the purpose of making them beautiful or elegant. Thus, the Doric shaft, while answering the constructive purposes of a simple square or round pier, is ornamented with fluting; and its capital, with its beautifully proportioned echinus and abacus, supports as a plain slab would do the weight of the entablature. The other classic orders illustrate this in a richer manner. Thus, the Corinthian column, with its fluted and elegant shaft, resting on an ornamented base, and crowned by an ornamented capital, takes the place of what might have been, had utility alone been consulted, a plain pier of rubble-work, with a rough stone to rest upon, and another on the top to receive the load.

In classic architecture, as in every good style, the same principle pervades all the ornamental features—viz., that they are constructive features ornamented in a manner suitable to their use; for instance, a column being a member for support, should be of such a form as to denote this—the constructive use of a cornice being to protect the top of the wall, and to shield the front of it from the rain and sun, it should be made of such a form as to do this, and also to look as if it did it—to express its purpose. In classic architecture, the cornice consists of several members, in which the constructive decoration is well seen; the mutules and modillions beautifully indicating in an ornamental manner their original use, while the leaf enrichments of the small mouldings give life and animation to the building. In medieval art the same principle prevails in a much greater degree, and over a more complex system of construction. The shafts, with their elegant and purpose-like bases and caps, are arranged so that each supports a separate member of the vaulting. The arch mouldings are divided so as to indicate the rings of their constructive formation. The buttresses, so elegant in outline, express the part they serve in supporting the vaulting; the pinnacles, with their ornamental finials, are the decorated dead-weights which steady the buttresses. The foliage and smaller ornament is also beautifully and suitably applied, as the growth and vigor of the supporting capitals and corbels, and the running foliage of the string-courses, arch-mouldings, &c., fully illustrate.

There are, no doubt, many styles of art to which these remarks can hardly be said to apply, as, for example, the Assyrian, Egyptian, and Hindu styles, where we find many features applied in a manner meant to be ornamental, although actually con-

try to their constructive use. In these styles (and also in Greek architecture), human figures, bulls, and other animals are placed as columns to carry the weight of a superincumbent mass. This is evidently wrong in principle, except when the figure is placed in an attitude to indicate that he is supporting a weight, as the Greek Atlantes do; but in the former cases religious notions seem to have overcome true artistic feeling. There are also many forms of ornament used in all styles, the origin of which is obscure, and their advantage doubtful; such are the zigzag, chevron, billet, &c., so common in early medieval art, and the scrolls of Ionic and Indian art, and the complications of the interlacing work of the North in the middle ages. Such things may be admissible in colored decoration, such as the confused patterns of Saracenic art, and the shell-patterns of Indian art; but where ornamental form is wanted, unless the requirements of the construction are carefully followed as the guide to the decoration, all principle is lost, and the ornament runs wild. This has frequently occurred in the history of art, and in no case more markedly than in the art of the Renaissance.

The material in use must also have an influence on the form and style of the ornament. Thus, stone-carving and metal-work must evidently require different treatment. Fac-simile leaves might be formed in iron, but could not be so carved in stone. This constructive element should be carefully attended to in designing. All imitative art must be to some extent conventional. Natural objects, such as leaves, flowers, &c., cannot be copied absolutely literally; and in suiting the conventional treatment to the nature of the material used, lies the great skill of the artist.

ORNE, a department of France formed, out of the old provinces of Normandy and Perche, is separated on the north from the English Channel (La Manche) by the department of Calvados. Area, 1,506,727 acres, more than one-half of which is cultivable land; pop. (1872) 898,250. A range of wooded hills, nowhere rising above 1870 feet, extends across the south of the department from east to west. North of this range the surface slopes toward the English Channel; south of it, toward the Atlantic. The principal rivers are the Orne (which gives name to the department), the Rille, the Sarthe, and Suisne. The climate is damp, though in general temperate, and the winters are severe. The soil is fertile, but agriculture is not in an advanced state. The inhabitants consume one-third more grain produce than is grown on the land. There are several millions of apple and pear trees planted along the roads, &c., and cider is extensively made. Cattle, and horses of the purest Norman breed, are reared. Mining is an important branch of industry; the chief products are iron and copper; marble, granite, and other stones for building are quarried. The department is divided into four arrondissements, Alençon, Argentan, Domfront, and Mortagne; capital, Alençon.

ORNITHOLOGY (Gr. *ornis*, a bird, and *logos*, a discourse), that branch of zoology of which the subject is birds. By Aristotle, Pliny, and others of the ancients, this study was prosecuted to some extent, along with other parts of natural history; but it is only in modern times that ornithology has assumed the rank of a distinct branch of science. The first modern author to attempt a scientific classification of birds seems to have been Pierre Belon, noted also as an ichthyologist, whose "Historia Avium" was published about the middle of the 16th century. Some of his classes are very heterogeneous assemblages; but the first three, viz., Birds of Prey, Web-footed Birds, and *Graffen*, are so natural as to have been acknowledged, with some modification of their limits, in all subsequent systems. In the 17th c. much progress was made in the observation and description of species, not only of the birds of Europe, but of other parts of the world. In the latter part of the century, attention began to be given to the anatomy of birds. An ornithological system, more perfect than that of Belon, was proposed by Willughby about 1676, and afterwards matured and improved by Ray. On this system that of Linnaeus was founded. During the 18th c., the progress of ornithology was very rapid. The birds of many countries were described in works specially devoted to them, and the habits of birds began to be carefully observed; but the system of Linnaeus, as framed by him before the middle of the century, continued to prevail almost unmodified till the publication of Cuvier's "Règne Animal" in 1817. Latham, Lacépède, Illiger, Temminck, and others, had indeed previously proposed systems more or less different from it; and systems have since been proposed by others, particularly by Mr Vigors and Mr Swainson, who have endeavored to accommodate the classification to certain first principles which they sup-

posed to pervade nature, but which other naturalists in general regard as fanciful. The system of Cuvier is now generally received by ornithologists, as that of Linnaeus formerly was; not, however without modifications, by which it has been sought to accommodate it to the progress of science, and some of the names introduced by other authors have obtained very general acceptance. The system of Linnaeus divided birds into six orders—*Accipitres*, *Picae*, *Anseres*, *Graliae*, *Gallinace*, and *Passeres*. That of Cuvier also divided them into six orders—*Birds of Prey* (the *Accipitres* of Linnaeus, now often called *Raptorex*), *Passerina Birds* (*Passerines*, now more generally called *Inseparatae* or *Perching Birds*, including most of the Linnean *Passeres*, and part of *Picae*), *Climbers* (*Scansores*, part of the Linnean *Picae*, and often designated *Zygodactyls* or *Zygodactylous Birds*), *Gallinaceous Birds* (now often called *Rasores*, the Linnean *Gallinæ*, but including also the pigeons or *Columbidæ*, which Linnaeus placed among *Passeres*), *Stilt-birds*, often called *Waders* (*Grallatores*, the Linnean *Graliae*), and *Web-footed Birds* (*Palnipedes*, now also known as *Natatores* or *Swimmers*). These orders are noticed in separate articles. Perhaps the most important modification of Cuvier's system, which has been proposed, is the separation of the *Brevipennæ* or *Stratiotis* Birds from *Graliae*, and their formation into a distinct order, sometimes called *Cursors* or *Runners*; and next to this may be mentioned the proposed separation of *Columbidæ* from Gallinaceous Birds.—The progress of ornithology since the commencement of the 19th c. has been very rapid; every department of it has been assiduously cultivated, and many of the works published have been not only of great merit, but very sumptuous and beautiful. The works of Audubon and Gould perhaps merit particular notice.

#### ORNITHORHY'NCHUS. See DUCK-BILL.

OROBA'NCHEÆ, or Orobanchaceæ, a natural order of exogenous plants, all herbaceous and destitute of true leaves, but having their stems covered with brown or colorless scales. They all grow parasitically upon the roots of other plants. The calyx is divided, persistent, inferior; the corolla monopetalous, hypogynous, and irregular. The stamens are four, two long and two short; the ovary 1-celled, seated in a fleshy disc, composed of two carpels, with one style. The fruit is capsular, enclosed within the withered corolla, 1-celled, 2-valved. The seeds are numerous, and very minute. There are about 120 known species, natives chiefly of temperate climates, and generally characterised by astringency and bitterness, upon account of which some of them have been used in medicine (see CANCER ROOT). Eleven species are natives of Britain, chiefly belonging to the genus *Orobanche*, or BROOM-RAPE; to some of which important medicinal virtues were once erroneously ascribed. The enlarged base or rootstock of a species of *Orobanche* is cooked or dried, and eaten by the Indians of the north-western parts of America.

O'ROB'US, a genus of plants of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, suborder *Papilionaceæ*, allied to Vetches, and sometimes called BITTER VETCH; the style linear, downy beneath the stigma; the calyx obtuse at the base and oblique at the mouth; its upper segments deeper and shorter; the pod 1-celled, 2-valved; the leaves pinnate, without tendrils. The species are perennial herbaceous plants, chiefly natives of Europe. They afford good food for cattle. Two are natives of Britain, of which the most common is *O. tuberosus*, whose racemes of purple flowers often adorn heaths and bushy places, especially in hilly districts. The stem is unbranched, erect, about a foot high, with narrow membranous wings; the leaflets in 2–4 pairs; the pods long, cylindrical, black; the root creeping and swelling out into tubers at irregular intervals. The tubers have a sweet taste, resembling that of liquorice, and are sought after by children; they are also bruised and steeped in water in some parts of the Highlands of Scotland to make a fermented liquor, and a kind of liquor is made by steeping them in whisky; they are well-flavored and nutritious when boiled or roasted, and are used in this way in the Highlands of Scotland, in Holland, Belgium, and other countries.

ORO'NTÈS, the ancient name of a river in Syria, now called *Nahr-el-Asi*. It rises in the highest part of Coele-Syria, near Baalbek, flows northward between the mountains of Libanus and Anti-Libanus, as far as the city of Antioch, and then westward to the Mediterranean Sea, after a course of 240 miles, passing by a cross valley, through the mountains of the Syrian coast. Its lower course is remarkably beautiful, surpassing everything else that can be seen in Syria. Its rocky banks are 300

feet high, and the windings of the river shew them off to the greatest advantage. Myrrh-bushes, laurels, figs, wild vines, arbutus, dwarf-oaks, and sycamores (*Acer pseudoplatanus*) are scattered about in picturesque confusion. Here and there the eye catches a glimpse of some cavern mouth or ivy-matted precipice, while from the abyss below ath awends for ever the roar of the impatient stream. The country through which it flows is of great fertility, and in many parts is richly cultivated.

**OROSIUS**, Paulus, a Spanish pre-abt and historian, was born at Tarragona, and flourished in the early part of the 5th century. He went to Africa about 418 A.D., where he made the acquaintance of St Augustine, and thence to Palestine, to study under St Jerome, then living at Bethlehem. He finally settled in Africa, but the date of his death is unknown. His chief work, the "Historiarum adversus Paganos Libri 7," begins with the creation and goes down to 417 A.D. It is apologetic in design, being intended to refute the notion then current among the pagans, that the misfortunes of the Roman Empire and the wretchedness of the great masses were owing to the anger of the gods at the abandonment of their worship, and the profanation of their altars. The work is a trivial, inaccurate uncritical miscellany of facts, culled from such second-rate authorities as Justin and Eutropius; the style is elegant, but also, as Bacon says, "watery." Yet it has obtained a place in literature from being a favorite text-book of universal history during the middle ages, and had the honor of being translated into Anglo-Saxon by our own Alfred. Some manuscripts bear the puzzling title of "Hormesta" or "Ormista," conjectured by some to be a corruption of Or. M. ist.; that is, "Orosius Mundi Historia" (Oro-ins History of the World). The editio princeps of the work appeared at Vienna in 1471; the best edition is that of Havercamp (Lug. Bat. 4to, 1738). Other writings of O.'s are "Liber Apologeticus de Arbitrio Libertate," an anti-Pelagian treatise, "Commonitorium ad Augustinum," an explanation of the state of religious parties in Spain in his time. See Mörner's "De Orosii Vita ejusque Historiarum Libris Septem adversus Paganos" (Berl. 1844).

**OROTAVIA**, a town on the north coast of Teneriffe, one of the Canary Islands, situated below the Peak, in one of the most fertile, pleasant, and healthy districts in the world. It contains several beautiful churches, the residence of the governor and the citadel. Fishing is carried on to some extent, and there is a trade in wine. Pop. about 9000.

**O'RPHUS** (supposed to be the Vedic Ribhu or Arbhū, an epithet both of Indra and the Sun), a semi-mythic name of frequent occurrence in ancient Greek lore. The early legends call him a son of Apollo and the muse Calliope, or of Olcagrus and Clio, or Polymnia. His native country is Thrace, where many different localities were pointed out as his birthplace—such as the Mounts of Olympus, and Pangæa, the river Enipeus, the promontory of Serrhium, and several cities. Apollo bestows upon him the lyre, which Hermes invented, and by its aid O. moves men and beasts, the birds in the air, the fishes in the deep, the trees, and the rocks. He accompanies the Argonauts in their expedition, and the power of his music wards off all mishaps and disasters, rocking monsters to sleep and stopping cliffs in their downward rush. His wife, Eurydice (?—Sancor, Urn, Dawn) is bitten by a serpent (? = Night), and dies. O. follows her into the infernal regions; and so powerful are his "golden tones," that even stern Pluto and Proserpine are moved to pity; while Tantalus forgets his thirst, Ixion's wheel ceases to revolve, and the Danaides stop in their wearisome task. He is allowed to take her back into the "light of heaven," but he must not look around while they ascend. Love or doubt, however, draw his eyes towards her, and she is lost to him for ever (?—first rays of the sun gleaming at the dawn make it disappear or melt into day). His death is sudden and violent. According to some accounts, it is the thunderbolt of Zeus that cuts him off, because he reveals the divine mysteries; according to others, it is Dionysius, who, angry at his refusing to worship him, causes the Menades to tear him to pieces, which pieces are collected and buried by the Muses in tearful piety at Leibethra, at the foot of Olympus, where a nightingale sings over his grave. Others, again, make the Thracian women divide his limbs between them, either from excessive madness of unrequited love, or from anger at his drawing their husbands away from them. Thus far legend and art, in manifold hues and varieties and shapes, treat of O. the fabulous. The faint glimmer of historical truth hidden beneath these myths becomes clearer in

those records which speak of O. as a divine bard or priest in the service of Zagreus, the Thracian Dionysius, and founder of the Mysteries (q. v.); as the first musician, the first inaugurator of the rites of expiation and of the Mantic art, the inventor of letters and the heroic metre; of everything, in fact, that was supposed to have contributed to the civilisation and initiation into a more humane worship of the deity among the primitive inhabitants of Thracia and all Greece: a task to which O. was supposed to have devoted his life after his return with the Argonauts. A kind of monastic order sprang up in later times, calling itself after him, which combined with a sort of enthusiastic creed about the migration of souls and other mystic doctrines a semi-ascetic life. Abstinence from meat (not from wine), frequent purification, and other expiatory rites, incantations, the wearing of white garments and similar things—not unlike some of the Essene manners and customs—were among their fundamental rules and ceremonies. But after a brief duration the brotherhood, having first, during the last days of the Roman empire, passed through the stage of conscious and very profitable jugglery, sank into oblivion, together with their "orpheotelistic" formulas and sacrifices, and together with the joys of the upper, and the never-ending punishments of the infernal regions which they held out to their rich dupes: according to the suns they grudged or bestowed upon them.

O. has also given the name to a special literature called the Orphic, the real origin of which, however, is (according to Otfried Müller), like Orpheus's own history, "unquestionably the darkest point in the entire history of early Greek poetry." Like Olen, Linus, Philammon, Eumolpus, Musaeus, and other legendary singers of prehistoric Greece, O. is supposed to have been "the pupil of Apollo and the Muses," and to have first composed certain hymns and songs used in the worship of a Dionysius, dwelling in the infernal regions, and in the initiations into the Eleusinian mysteries. A mere "abstraction," as it were, he was called the first poet of the heroic age, and though not mentioned before Ibycus, Pindar, Helianicus, and the Athenian tragedians, he was yet placed anterior to both Homer and Hesiod. The fragments current under his name were first collected at the time of the Pisistratidae, chiefly by Onomacritus, and these fragments grew under the hands of the Orphic brotherhood, aided by the Pythagoreans, to a vast literature of sacred mythological songs sung at the public games, chanted by the priests at their service, worked out for dramatic and pantomimic purposes by the dramatists, commented upon, philosophised upon, and "improved" by grammarians, philosophers, and theologians. Although authorities like Herodotus and Aristotle had already combated the supposed antiquity of the so-called Orphic myths and songs of their day, yet the entire enormous Orphic literature which had grown out of them retained its "ancient" authority, not only with both the Hellenists and the church fathers of the 3d and 4th centuries A.D. (who, for their individual, albeit opposite purposes, referred to it as the most authentic primitive source of Greek religion, from which Pythagoras, Heraclitus, Plato had drawn their theological philosophy), but down almost to the last generation, when it was irrefutably proved to be in its main bulk, as far as it has survived, the production of those very third and fourth centuries A.D., raised upon a few scanty, primitive snatches. The most remarkable part of the Orphic literature is its Theogony, which is based mainly on that of Hesiod, with allegorising and symbolising tendencies, and with a desire to simplify the huge Olympic population by compressing several deities into a single one. See THEOGONY. Yet there is one figure which stands out here prominently—viz., Zagreus, the horned child of Zeus by his own daughter Persephone, who, killed by the Titans at the bidding of Hecate, is reborn by Semele as Dionysius.

Besides the fragments of the Theogony which have survived, imbedded chiefly in the writings of the Neoplatonists, are to be mentioned the "Argonautica," a poem of the Byzantine period, consisting of 1884 hexameters; further, a collection of 87 or 88 liturgical hymns; a work on the virtues of stones, called "Lythica," &c. Other poems belonging to the Orphic Cycle, of which, however, only names have survived in most instances, are "Sacred Legends," ascribed to Cercops; a Poem on Nature, called "Physica," probably by Brontius; "Bacchica," supposed to be written by Avignota, the daughter of Pythagoras; "Minyas," or Orpheus's descent into the Hades; and other poetical productions by Zopyrus, Timocles, Nicias, Persinus, Prodicus, &c. The best edition of the Orphic fragments is that of G. Herrmann (Leipzig, 1886). The hymns have repeatedly been translated into English by

T. Tay'or and others. The chief authority on the Orphic literature still remains Lobeck's "Aglaphanne."

O'RPIMENT. See ARSENIC.

O'RERY, a machine constructed for the purpose of exhibiting the motions of the planets round the sun, and of the satellites round their primaries, which was in high repute during the 18th and beginning of the 19th centuries, though now regarded as a mere toy. It was a combination of the old *Planetarium* (q. v.), with other machines which shewed the motions of the earth, moon, and planetary satellites. Though the construction of a machine which would exhibit accurately the motions, distances, and magnitudes of the planets is impossible, yet an orrery is in some degree useful as giving a general notion of the way in which the planetary motions are performed. As it was a favorite machine at one time, a description of it may not be uninteresting. A number of iron tubes equal in number to the planets, and of different dimensions, are placed one within the other; their lengths being arranged so that the innermost tube projects at both ends beyond the one next to it, that one similarly projects beyond the third, and so on. At one end of each tube a rod is fixed at right angles, and a ball or lamp attached to its end; the lengths of the rods being proportional (or at least supposed to be so) to the radii of the planetary orbits. The other ends of the tubes form the axes of toothed wheels, which are connected either directly, or by means of combinations of toothed wheels, with a winch. The several combinations of wheels are so adjusted that the velocity of revolution of the rods is proportional to the times of revolution of the planets. On turning the winch the whole apparatus is set in motion, and the balls or lamps (representing the planets) revolve round the centre, which is a fixed lamp (representing the sun), at different distances, and with varying velocities. There are many nice arrangements, such as for producing elliptic motion, but these need not be described.

O'RRIIS ROOT (probably a corruption of *Iris* Root). the rootstock (*rhizome*) of certain species of *Iris* (q. v.), natives of the south of Europe, belonging to the division of the genus having bearded flowers, sword-shaped leaves, and scapes taller than the leaves; viz. *I. Florentina*, a species with white flowers; *I. pallida*, which has pale flowers; and *I. Germanica*, which has deep purple flowers. The flowers of all these species are fragrant. *I. Germanica* extends further north than the other species, and its root is sometimes said to be more acrid. O. R. was formerly used in many medicinal preparations as a stimulant, but is now almost entirely disused. It is sometimes chewed to sweeten an offensive breath. Its chief use is in perfumery. It has a pleasant smell of violets, which it acquires in drying. Hair and tooth powders, and oils, are often scented with it. A tincture of it is also used as a scent, and is often sold as *Essence of Violets*.

ORSINI, Felice, an Italian revolutionist, who is destined to be remembered for his atrocious attempt on the life of the French emperor, Napoleon III., was born at Meldola, in the States of the Church, in 1819. The son of a conspirator, O. at an early age was initiated into secret societies, and before he had reached his twentieth year, he was thrown into prison, and condemned to the galleys for life. The amnesty of Pius IX. (1846) restored him to liberty, but he was soon after again imprisoned for participation in political plots. When the revolution of 1848 broke out, O. was elected as a deputy to the Roman Constituent Assembly. He was invested with extraordinary powers, and sent to Ancona and Ascoli to suppress brigandage. He signalled himself by the violence with which he executed his commission. He also took part in the defence of Rome and Venice; agitated in Genoa and the Duchy of Modena; and in 1853 was shipped for England by the Sardinian government, where he formed close relations with Mazzini. Furnished with money by the leaders of the revolutionary party, he appeared at Parma in 1854, and afterwards at Milan, Trieste, Vienna, everywhere agitating in the interest of insurrection; until at last he was arrested and confined in the fortress of Mantua. In 1866 he succeeded in making his escape, and found refuge in England, where he supported himself by public lecturing, and wrote a book entitled "The Austrian Dungeons in Italy" (Lond. 1866). Towards the end of 1867 he repaired to Paris, with the intention of assassinating Louis Napoleon, whom he reckoned the great obstacle to the progress of revolution in Italy. His

associates in this diabolical design were persons named Pieri, Rubio, and Gomez. Providing themselves with bombs, they took up their station in a house close by the opera, and on the evening of the 14th January 1858, just as the carriage containing the emperor and empress were drawing up, they threw three of the deadly missiles under the carriage. An explosion took place, and several people were wounded, one or two mortally, but their majesties remained unhurt. The assassins were arrested, tried, and sentenced; Orsini, Pieri, and Rubio to capital punishment, Gomez to hard labor for life. Rubio's life was spared at the intercession of the empress, but Pieri and Orsini were beheaded on March 13.

O'RSOVA, the name of two towns at the iron gate of the Danube (q. v.). OLD O., a Hungarian place, is on an island, and is a station for the Danube steamers. Pop. 1200.—NEW O., on the Servian side, is a fortified town of 3900 inhabitants.

ORTHEZ, a small town of France in the department of Basses-Pyrénées, on the right bank of the Gave de Pau, 37 miles east of Bayonne. Pop. (1872) 4737. The castle of Moncadn, now reduced to a few ruined walls, overtopped by one stately tower, was built here in 1249 by Gaston de Foix. In the immediate vicinity of the town, the British, under Wellington, gained a grand and decisive victory over the French under Soult, February 27, 1814.

ORTHOIIS (Gr. *straight*), a large genus of fossil brachiopodous mollusca, found in the Palaeozoic rocks, most abundantly in the Silurian rocks, but ranging upwards to the Permian series. The genus contains upwards of 100 species.

ORTHO'CERAS (Gr. *straight horn*), an extensive genus of cephalopodous mollusca, found in the palæozoic rocks, from the Lower Silurian to the Trias. It is nearly allied to the Nautilus, and is indeed, in its simplest forms, nothing more than an unrolled and straightened nautilus. The shell is straight, the siphuncle central, and the body chamber small. The members of the genus are the most widely distributed, and the most abundant of any of the palæozoic fossils. Nearly 200 species have been described, but a considerable number of these have been separated into sub-genera, characterised chiefly by the form and size of the siphuncle.

O'RTHODOXY (Gr. *orthos*, right, and *doxa*, an opinion), a name given by theologians to religious opinions in agreement with Scripture, or rather with the view of Scripture entertained either by the church in general, or by the Established Church of any particular nation. Its antithesis is HETERODOXY (Gr. *heteros*, another, meaning "wrong," and *doxa*, opinion).

O'RTHOEPY (Gr. correctness or propriety of speech), a branch of grammar that treats of the right pronunciation of the words of a language.

ORTHO'GRAPHY (Gr. correct writing), a branch of grammar that treats of the elementary sounds of a language, the signs or letters by which they are represented in writing, and the combinations of these signs to represent words; it also includes the right dividing of words into syllables (as when a word has to be divided at the end of a line), and punctuation. In a more restricted sense, orthography is synonymous with the art of correct spelling. No part of grammar is less satisfactory than this. All alphabets were from the first both defective and redundant, and therefore inadequate to represent exactly the elementary sounds of the languages to which they were applied (see ALPHABET, LETTERS AND ARTICULATE SOUNDS). The first attempts then at writing any language must have exhibited great diversity of spelling. Wherever an extensive literature has sprung up among a people, and language been made a study of itself, there a greater or less uniformity of spelling has, by tacit convention or otherwise, become established for a time. Such was the case with Latin in the time of the Cæsars, with High German about the 12th and 13th centuries, and with English (Anglo-Saxon) in and for some time after the days of Alfred. But although language, as depicted to the eye, may be fixed for a time, the spoken tongue, being a living organism, cannot be thus petrified. A written literature may modify, and in some degree retard, but cannot altogether arrest that incessant change and evolution to which all spoken tongues are subject. The breaking up of the Anglo-Saxon in its transition into modern English, brought necessarily a period of orthographic chaos. Never was the lawlessness greater than during one of the brightest periods of the literature, namely, the Elizabethan period. Then, and for a long time after, all perception of the real powers

of the letters seems to have been lost, and nothing but caprice ruled. Not only were words spelled differently by different persons, but even among the best educated classes, the same person would spell the same word (even his or her own name) half-a-dozen ways in the same page. Among the classic writers of the Queen-Anne period, some degree of uniformity began to establish itself, and this was afterwards further confirmed and fixed by the publication of Johnson's Dictionary, since which time the alterations have been comparatively trifling. The modern spelling thus established, conformed itself only partially to the changes the spoken language had undergone. Of the letters that had become silent through the wearing away and collapse of the spoken words, some were omitted and others retained, with little attention to consistency, or to any principle now discernible. Hence, in the English language as now written and spoken, there is in general so imperfect a correspondence between the sound of a word, and the sounds of the several letters that are written to represent it, that the spelling of each individual word has, in a manner, to be learned by itself. By no possible rules can a learner be taught when he sees the groups of letters *n-o-w*, *p-l-o-u-g-h*, *e-n-o-u-g-h*, to make out the sounds or spoken words that these groups actually represent; or, conversely, when he hears the words spoken, to find out what letters they are to be represented by. This circumstance presents great difficulty to foreigners in the acquisition of English; which, in other respects, is one of the simplest and most easily learned languages in the world. The orthography of English is only to be acquired by observation and practice. There are no rules in the proper sense of the word; the only effective assistance that can be given in this matter is to bring together, under some kind of classification, the words that are most frequently misspelled. See PHONETIC WRITING.

**ORTHOPTERA** (Gr. straight-winged), an order of mandibulate insects, in many respects resembling the *Coleoptera* (q. v.), but having the wing-covers softer and generally leathery and flexible. The wing-covers also often overlap on the back when at rest, or meet at an angle like the roof of a house. The wings are broader than the wing-covers, and fold in a fan-like manner. A few species are wingless. The body is generally elongated. The antennae are almost always filiform and many-jointed. The eyes are usually very large, and there are also in most species two or three stemmatic eyes. The mouth much resembles that of the Coleoptera, but the maxillæ are terminated by a horny denticulated piece, and covered by a *galea*; and the interior of the mouth exhibits a distinct fleshy piece, which some regard as a kind of tongue. The *O. nudugo* only a semi-complete metamorphosis, the larva and pupa much resembling the perfect insect, except in the want of wings; which, however, begin to be developed in the pupa. The Earwig family differs so much from the other *O.* as to have been constituted by some entomologists into a distinct order. See EARWIG. The *O.* are divided into two sections, *Cursoria* and *Saltatoria*; the first with legs adapted for running, as the Mantis family, Spectre Insects, Walking Sticks, Leaf Insects, &c.; the second having the hinder legs very large and strong, generally adapted for leaping, as Grasshoppers, Locusts, Crickets, &c.

**ORTOLAN** (*Emberiza hortulana*), a species of Bunting (q. v.), much resembling the Yellow Hammer, and not quite equal to it in size. The adult male has the back reddish brown, the wings dusky black and rufous brown; the tail dusky black, some of the outer tail-feathers with a patch of white on the broad inner web; the chin, throat, and upper part of the breast yellowish-green; the other under parts reddish-buff-color. The plumage of the female is of less vivid hues. The *O.* occurs in great flocks in the south of Europe and north of Africa. Even in the south of Europe it is a summer bird of passage, but its migrations extend as far north as Lapland, although in Britain it is a very rare bird, and only of accidental occurrence. It has no song, but merely a monotonous chirping note. It frequents bushy places, but often makes its nest on the ground in cornfields, particularly where the soil is sandy. No bird is so highly esteemed by epicures, and vast numbers are used for the table. It is taken chiefly by nets, with the aid of decoy-birds, and after being taken is fattened on millet and oats, in rooms dimly lighted by lamps. Thus treated, it becomes excessively fat, sometimes so as to die of obesity; and attains a weight of three ounces. Great numbers of ortolans, potted and pickled, are exported from Cyprus.

**ORTONA**, a town of S. Italy, on the Adriatic, in the province of Cilenti, 14 miles e. of the town of that name, and 8 miles n. of Lanciano. It gives title to a blis-

and contains a cathedral and other religious edifices. Its port has ceased to exist, and vessels are now obliged to anchor about a mile from the town in unsheltered roads, where, however, the water is deep and the bottom good. Wine is extensively grown, and has a local reputation as the best in this part of Italy. Pop. about 7000.

O'RTYX. See VIRGINIAN QUAIL.

ORU'RO, or, in the complete form of the name, *San Felipe de Asturia de Oruro*, a town of Bolivia, the capital of the dep. of Oruro. It is situated about nine miles east from Desaguadero, and 82 miles north from the northern extremity of the salt lake of Desaguadero, on an affluent of the river of the same name which falls into that lake. It is 12,015 feet above the level of the sea, at the base of a very high mountain; but on the other side of the town is a large plain, often covered with saline efflorescences. The soil of the whole department is saline, and far from being fertile, but its mineral wealth is great. Gold, silver, copper, tin, iron, lead, and antimony are among its products. O. was founded in 1590, in consequence of the discovery of silver mines, which proved more productive than any in Bolivia, except those of Potosi. It soon became a wealthy and flourishing city with 70,000 inhabitants; but in consequence of the diminished productiveness of its mines, and of the anarchy prevailing in the country after the Revolution, its population declined, and is now only 7980. It has recently been made the seat of the Bolivian government, and the place of meeting of congress.

ORVIE'TO, a city in the province of Umbria (Perugia), which was included in the former Papal States, but now forms part of the kingdom of Italy, stands on the right bank of the Paglia, 8 miles north-east of Lake Bolsena, and 60 miles north-north-west of Rome. It occupies a strong position on a steep hill, is well built, and is surrounded with walls. It has been the seat of a bishop since 509 A.D. The cathedral, a beautiful specimen of the Italian Gothic, and one of the most richly-decorated edifices in Italy, is built of black and white marble, was begun in 1290, and completed about the middle of the 14th century. The facade is unsurpassed in richness of material, and in the beauty of its mosaics, sculptures, and elaborate ornamentation. The interior is also magnificently decorated with sculptures and paintings. The other chief buildings are St Patrick's Well, and several palaces. Pop. 7600, who trade in corn, cattle, and silk, and a delicate white wine, which is highly esteemed at Rome.

O., called in the time of the Longobards *Urbs Vetus*—of which its present name is a corruption—has been the place of residence and retreat in turbulent times of upwards of 80 popes. The city is evidently of Etruscan origin, but of its early history nothing is known.

O'RHYX, the name given by the ancients to a species of antelope, a native of the north of Africa. It is often represented on the monuments of Egypt, and as these representations are almost always in profile, it is generally made to appear as having only one horn, thus probably contributing to the fable of the unicorn; and, indeed, all the older figures of the unicorn exhibit a considerable resemblance to this kind of antelope. The name *Antilope oryx* was given by Pallas to the *Gems-hoc* (q. v.), an antelope certainly much resembling the O., but found only in South Africa; and it is now generally believed that the true O. of the ancients is a species also known as the *AEGAZEL* (*Antilope Gazella*, or *Oryx bezoartica*), common in the north of Africa.

ORY'ZA. See RICE.

OSA'CA, or Ozaka, a city in Japan, in n. Lat.  $35^{\circ} 5'$ , about 20 miles from its seaport of Hiogo, is situated on a large river on the south-east coast of the main island, in the most central and populous part of the empire, and surrounded by the great tea districts. O. is one of the three imperial cities of Japan, and is a great centre of trade; especially since 1863, when it became possible for foreigners to settle. The town, clean and regularly built, is intersected by numerous streams, spanned by hundreds of wooden and iron bridges. Some of the public buildings are imposing structures, such as the municipal hall and the new mint. The latter is equipped with the finest obtainable apparatus; and of late much foreign machinery has been introduced into O., to the great advancement of its manufactures. Besides very numerous Buddhist and other temples, there are in O. two Christian churches, a government college, an academy, and 72 public schools. The town is connected by

railway with Hiogo and with Kioto (see MIAKO), 27 miles further inland. Pop. (1872) 873,000. In 1873, the foreign imports were valued at £84,760; the exports at £184,756.

**OSAGE ORANGE** (*Mactura aurantiaca*), a tree of the natural order *Moraceæ*, a native of North America. It attains a height varying, according to soil and situation, from twenty to sixty feet. It is of the same genus with Fustic (q. v.), and its wood, which is bright yellow, might probably be used for dyeing. The wood is fine-grained and very elastic, and is much used by the North American Indians for making bows. The O. O. has been successfully introduced into Britain as a hedge plant. Its fruit is about the size of a large orange, has a tuberculated surface of a golden color, and is filled internally with radiating somewhat woody fibres, and with a yellow milky juice, the odor of which is generally disliked, so that the fruit, although not unwholesome, is seldom eaten.

**O'SBORNE** or St Helen's Beds are a series of strata of the Middle Eocene period, occurring in the Isle of Wight. They have been divided into two groups: 1. The St Helen's Sands, consisting of layers of white, green, and yellow sands, interstratified with blue, white, and yellowish clays and marls, with a maximum thickness of 50 feet; and, 2. the Nettlestone Grits, composed of yellow limestone and marl, and a shelly freestone, which is much used for building, having a maximum thickness of 20 feet. The fossils of the Osborne Beds are species of *Paludina* and *Cypria*, and the spirally sculptured spore-cases of *Chara*. The group is of fresh and brackish water origin, and is very variable in mineral character and thickness.

**OSCAR I.** Joseph-Francis, king of Sweden and Norway, was born at Paris July 4, 1799, and was the only issue of the marriage of Charles XIV. (q. v.), formerly Marshal Bernadotte, with Desdree Clary, the daughter of a Mare-é-lais merchant, and sister of Madame Joseph Bonaparte. After the election of his father as crown-prince of Sweden, O. received the title of Duke of Södermania, and was placed under the tutelage of the poet Återblom, for the purpose of acquiring the Swedish language. In 1818 he entered the university of Upsala, where his education was completed. The effects of the thorough training he received were seen in his remarkable proficiency in science, literature, and especially the fine arts. For some time he gave himself up almost entirely to the study of music, and composed various pieces, including an opera, and several waltzes, marches &c.; he is also the author of several songs and hymns, some of which are still popular. He also published memoirs on Education and Penal Establishments. What is of more consequence, he became thoroughly imbued with the national sentiments, and after his admission to a share in the administration, opposed, though with becoming filial respect, the pro-Russian policy of his father. This course of conduct rendered him immensely popular, and on March 8, 1844, his accession to the throne was hailed with rapture by the great majority of his subjects. His rule was distinguished for its liberality and justice; and many liberal measures, such as those for the removal of Jewish disabilities, freedom of manufacture and commerce, and parliamentary reform (the last-mentioned being vigorously opposed by the nobility), were laid before the *Riksdag* by his orders. He introduced these changes with caution and gentleness, and had the gratification of seeing, in most cases, his prudence crowned with success. His foreign policy was of an independent and anti-Russian character, and during the Crimean war he joined (November 21, 1855) the king of Denmark in a declaration of armed neutrality, which gradually assumed a more hostile attitude to Russia, and would have inevitably led to war, had not the Paris treaty so rapidly succeeded. His attitude at this time gained him general favor and respect throughout Europe. On July 19, 1828, he married Josephine Beauharnais, the granddaughter of the Empress Josephine, by whom he had five children, the eldest of whom, on account of his father's failing health, was appointed regent, September 25, 1857, and succeeded to the throne as Charles XV., on the death of O., July 8, 1859. Charles XV. died 18th September 1872, and was succeeded by his brother as Oscar II.

**OSCEO'LA** (Seminole, *As-ne-ho-lar*), a chief of the tribe of Seminole Indians in Florida, U. S., was born about 1808. He was the son of an English trader, named Powell, and the daughter of a Seminole chief. In 1835 the wife of O., a chief's daughter, was claimed and seized as a slave by the owner of her mother. The outraged husband threatened revenge, and for his threats was imprisoned six days in

irons by General Thompson. Lying in wait, a few days afterwards he killed the general and four others. This was the beginning the second Seminole war. Laying an ambush soon after, he killed Major Dale and a small detachment of soldiers, and taking to the almost impenetrable Everglades, with two or three hundred followers, he fought for a year with great energy and skill the superior numbers sent against him. He was taken prisoner at last by General Jessup, while holding a conference under a flag of truce, an act of inexcusable treachery, though represented as one of retaliation, and confined in Fort Moultrie until his death in January 1838.

O'SCHERSLEBEN, or Gross-Oschersleben, a town of Prussian Saxony, on the left bank of the Bode, a branch of the Saale, 22 miles west-south-west from Magdeburg. Pop. (1875) 7927.

O'SCI, originally Opaci (rendered by Mommsen, "laborers," from *opus*, a work), in Greek always Opikoi, the name of an Italian people, who at an early period occupied Campania, and were either closely allied to, or the same race as the Ausonians. Subsequently (about 423 B.C.) Samnites from the hilly districts to the north overran the country, and amalgamated with the inhabitants whom they had subjugated. It is conjectured that the conquerors were few in numbers, as (like the Normans in English history) they adopted in time the language of the conquered, but whether they modified the original Oscan language, and if so, to what extent, cannot now be ascertained. As it was these Samnitic Oscans or Campanians who formed that Samnitic people with whom both the Greeks of Lower Italy and the Romans first came into contact, the names *Osci* and *Oscian language* were subsequently applied to all the other races and dialects whose origin was nearly or wholly the same. The Oscan language was not substantially different from the Latin, but only a ruder and more primitive form of the same central Italic tongue. The territory where it was spoken comprised the countries of the Samnites, Frentani, Northern Apulians, Hirpini, Campani, Lucani, Brutii, and Mamertini, whose dialects only slightly differed from each other; besides the entire Samnitic races, whence the language is sometimes called Samnitic or Sabinic. The races situated north of the Silurna were purely Samnitic; those south of it, and even of the region round the Gulf of Naples, were Greco-Samnitic. The use of the national Samnitic alphabet was confined to the former. By the victories of the Romans over the Samnites, and the conferring of the *civitas* on all the Italians (88 B.C.), an end was put to the official use of the Oscan tongue; nevertheless, in the time of Varro (1st c. B.C.) it was still used by the people, and late as the destruction of Herculaneum and Pompeii was spoken by a few individuals. During its most flourishing period it was something more than a country *patois*; it is even possible that the Oscans had a literature and art of their own, which may not have been without influence on the early Calabrian poets, Ennius and Pacuvius, and the Campanian Lucilius. At any rate, we certainly know of a poetic creation peculiar to the Campanians, a kind of unwritten, regular, probably improvised farce, with fixed parts and changing situations, which were transplanted to Rome about 304 B.C., but was imitated there not in Oscan but in Latin. See ATELLANAE. Besides a considerable number of coins with Oscan legends, there are still extant a number of inscriptions in the Oscan tongue, among which the most important for linguistic purposes are, 1st, the *Tabula Bantina*, a bronze tablet found in the neighborhood of Bantia (on the borders of Lucania and Apulia), referring to the municipal affairs of that town; 2d, the *Cippus Abellanus*, or Stone of Abella (in Campania); and 3d, a bronze tablet found near Arnone, in Northern Samnium. See Mommsen's "Oskische Studien" (Berlin, 1845), and "Die Unteritalischen Dialekte" (Leip. 1850); also Friedländer's "Die Oskischen Münzen" (Leip. 1850), Kirchhoff's "Das Stadtrecht von Bantia" (Berl. 1853); and Donaldson's "Varronianus" (pp. 104-138).

OSCU'LA'TION, AND OSCULATING CIRCLE (Lat. *osculari*, to kiss). One curve is said to osculate another when several points are common to it with the other, and the degree of osculation is said to be high or low according as the number of points in contact are many or few. The number of possible points of contact is determined by the number of constants contained in the equation to the tangent curve (supposing the number of constants in the equation to the curve which is fonched to be greater). The same is true of a straight line and a curve. The equation to a straight line being of the form  $ax + b$ , contains two constants,  $a$  and  $b$ , hence a

straight line can coincide with a curve in two contiguous points, and the contact is said to be of the first order. This straight line is the tangent at the point of contact. When a straight line, not a tangent, meets a curve, there is no "contact" but "section," as in that case only one point is common to the straight line and the curve. The equation to a circle contains three constants, and therefore a circle can have three consecutive points in common with a curve, and the contact is then of the second order. This circle is known as the "circle of curvature," or the osculating circle (see article CURVATURE), and has for its radius the radius of curvature of that portion of the curve with which the circle is in contact. No other circle can have so high a degree of contact with a curve at any point as the osculating circle at that point.

O'SHKOSH, a town in Wisconsin, U. S., on both sides of the Fox River, at its entrance to Lake Winnebago, 90 miles north-north-east of Madison. It has a large lumber trade, saw-mills, planing-mills, steam-boats, &c. Pop. (1870) 12,663.

OSIANDER, Andreas, one of the most learned and zealous of the German reformers, was born in 1498, at Guzenhausen, near Nürnberg. His father was a blacksmith, called Hosemann, out of which name his son, after the fashion of his time, manufactured the classic-looking Osiander. O. was educated at Ingolstadt and Wittenberg; and after completing his course of study, became a preacher at Nürnberg, where he was conspicuously active in introducing the Reformation (1522). He ardently advocated the views of Luther in his controversy with the Swiss reformer Zwingli, on the question of the Lord's Supper. He took part in the conference held at Marburg 1529, and was present at the diet of Augsburg (1530). In 1548 he was deprived of his office as preacher at Nürnberg, because he would not agree to the Augsburg Interim; but was immediately afterwards invited by Albrecht, Duke of Prussia, to become the head of the theological faculty in the newly-established university of Königsberg. He was hardly settled here when he became entangled in a theological strife that imbibed his naturally impious and arrogant temper. In a treatise, "De Lege et Evangelio" ("On the Law and the Gospel"), O. asserted that the righteousness by which sinners are justified, is not to be conceived as a mere justificatory or imputative act on the part of God, but as something inward and subjective, as the impartation of a real righteousness, springing in a mystical way from the union of Christ with man. The most notable of his opponents was Martin Chemnitz (q. v.). A seemingly amicable arrangement between the disputants was brought about by Duke Albrecht in 1551; but the strife was soon recommenced, by O. publishing some new writings in which he attacked Melanchthon; nor did his death in the following year put a stop to the war of words. It was continued by his followers, called Osiandristi, who were finally extinguished by the "Corpus Doctrinae Prutenicum" (in 1567), which caused their banishment from all parts of Prussia. See Wilken, "Andr. Osiander's Leben, Lehre und Schriften" (Strals. 1844).

O'SIER (Fr. probably of Celtic origin), the popular name of those species of Willow (q. v.), which are chiefly used for basket-making and other wicker-work. They are of low bushy growth, few of them ever becoming trees, their branches long and slender; and they are the more valuable in proportion to the length, slenderness, suppleness, and toughness of their branches. Their leaves are long and narrow, lanceolate, or nearly so, obscurely notched on the margin, almost always smooth on the upper side, but generally white and downy beneath. The COMMON O. (*Salix viminalis*), a common native of wet alluvial grounds in Britain and many parts of Europe, is one of those which sometimes become trees, although when cultivated for basket-making, it is not permitted to do so. It has two distinct stamens in the flowers of the male catkins; and the stigmas of the female catkins are long and slender. It is often planted to prevent the banks of rivers from being washed away. Its branches are used for making hoops and coarse baskets. There are several varieties in cultivation, not easily distinguished except by a very practised eye, but much more useful than the original or wild kind, which is apt to break, and therefore of little value. More suitable for the finer kinds of basket-making are *Salix Foryana*, sometimes called the FINE BASKET O., and *S. rubra*, known near London as the GREEN-LEAVED O. or ORNARD; *S. triandra*, a trifidous species, known to English osier-cultivators and basket-makers as the SPANISH ODE; whilst *S. reticulata*, a

pentandrous species, sometimes becoming a tree, is the GOLDEN O. or Golden Willow, remarkable for the bright-yellow color of its branches, as well as for their pliancy and toughness. There are other species, not natives of Britain, which are also valuable; but the osiers chiefly cultivated belong to those which have been named, or are very nearly allied to them.

Osiers are very extensively cultivated in Holland, Belgium, and France, on alluvial soils, especially near the mouths of rivers; and from these countries great quantities of "rods" are imported into Britain. They are cultivated also to a considerable extent in some parts of England, particularly on the banks of the Thames and the Severn, and in the level districts of Cambridgeshire, Huntingdonshire, &c. They are nowhere extensively cultivated in Scotland. Islets in the Thames and other rivers, entirely planted with osiers, are called *O. holtz*. Osiers grow particularly well on grounds flooded by the tide. Much depends on the closeness of planting of O. grounds; as when space is too abundant, the shoots of many of the kinds do not grow up so long, slender, and unbranched as is desirable. The French cultivators, when they wish osiers for the finest kinds of basket-work, cut branches into little bits with a bud or eye in each, and plan: these pretty close together, so as to obtain weak but fine shoots; but generally cuttings of fifteen or sixteen inches in length are used, and of tolerably thick branches; and these are placed in rows, from 18 inches to 2 feet apart, and at distances of 15 to 18 inches in the row. O. plantations in light soils continue productive for 15 or 20 years, and much longer in rich alluvial soils. Osiers succeed best in rich soils, but not in clays. No cultivation is required after planting; but the shoots are cut once a year, at any time between the fall of the leaf and the rising of the sap in spring. After cutting, they are sorted; and those intended for brown baskets are carefully dried and stacked, care being taken that they do not heat, to which they are liable, like hay, and by which they would be rotted and rendered worthless. The stacks must be carefully protected from rain. The osiers intended for white baskets cannot at once be peeled; but after being sorted, they are placed upright in wide shallow trenches, in which there is water to the depth of about four inches, or in rivulets, being kept secure in their upright position by posts and rails; and thus they remain till they begin to bud and blossom in spring, which they do as if they remained on the parent plant, sending forth small roots at the same time into the water. They are then, in ordinary seasons, easily peeled by drawing them through an instrument called a *break*, but in cold spring it is sometimes necessary to lay them for a while under a quantity of litter. After being peeled, they are stacked, preparatory to sale.

It is impossible to form an estimate of the quantity produced in Great Britain, but our imports amount annually to about 200,000 bundles; nearly one-half are from Holland, and the remainder from the Hanse Towns, Belgium, and France.

OSIRIS, according to others, *Aisiris*, or *Hysiris* ("Many-eyed"), a celebrated Egyptian deity, whose worship was universal throughout Egypt. This name appears in the hieroglyphic texts as early as the 4th dynasty, and is expressed by a throne and eye; at a later period, that of the 19th, a palanquin is substituted for a throne; and under the Romans, the pupil of the eye for the eye itself. O. does not indeed appear to have been universally honored till the time of the 11th and 12th dynasties, or about 1800 B.C., when Abydos, which was reputed to be his burial-place, rose into importance. In the monuments of this age he is called great god, eternal ruler, dwelling in the west, and lord of Abut or Abydos. Even at the most remote period, individuals after death were supposed to become an Osiris; and all the prayers and ceremonies performed or addressed to them were in this character, referring to their future life and resurrection. At the time of the 18th dynasty, this title of Osiris was prefixed to their names, and continued to be so till the time of the Romans and fall of paganism.

In the ritual and other inscriptions, O. is said to be the son of Seb or Saturn, and born of Nu or Rhea; to be the father of Horus by Isis, of Anubis, and of the four genii of the dead. Many mystic notions were connected with O.; he was sometimes thought to be the son of Ra, the Sun, or of Atum, the setting Sun, and the Benou or Phoenix; also to be uncreate, or self-engendered, and he is identified in some instances with the Sun or the Creator, and the Pluto or Judge of Hades. O. was born on the first of the Epagomenae, or five additional days of the year. When born, Chronos or Saturn is said to have given him in charge to Panhylos; having be-

come king of Egypt, he is stated to have civilised the Egyptians, and especially to have taught them agriculture, the culture of the vine, and the art of making beer; he afterwards travelled over the earth, and conquered the people everywhere by his persuasion. During his absence, his kingdom was confided to Isis, who guarded it strictly, and Set or Typhon, the brother of O. (who was born on the 8<sup>th</sup> of the Epagomenæ), was unable to revolt against him. Typhon had, however, persuaded 12 other persons, and Aso, the queen of Ethiopia, to join him in a conspiracy; and having taken the measure of O., he had a chest made of the same dimensions, richly ornamented and carved, and produced it at a banquet, where he promised to give it to whomsoever it should fit; and when all had lain down and tried it, and it suited none, O. at last laid himself down in it, and was immediately covered over by the conspirators, who placed the lid upon it, and fastened it with nails and molten lead. The chest was then hurled into the Nile, and floated down the Tanaitic mouth into the sea. This happened on the 17<sup>th</sup> of the month Athyr, in the 28<sup>th</sup> year of the reign or age of Osiris. Khem or Pan, and his attendant deities, discovered the loss of the god; I- is immediately cut off a lock of hair and went into mourning, and proceeded in search of Anubis, the child of her sister Nephthys by O.; and having found him, brought him up. The chest having floated to Byblos, had lodged in a tamarisk, and became enclosed in the tree, which was cut down by the king, and the trunk, containing the chest and the body of the god, converted into a pillar to support the roof of the palace. The goddess proceeded to Byblos, and ingratiated herself with the queen's women by plaiting their hair and imparting to it an ambrosial smell, so that the monarch, whose name was Melcarthos, and his wife, Saosis or Nemanous, invited her to court to take care of the royal child. She endeavored to confer immortality upon him by placing him on a fire, and changing herself into a swallow, flew round the pillar and bewoaned her fate. The queen became alarmed at the danger of her child; Isis revealed herself, and asked for the pillar of tamarisk wood, which was given her. She then cut it open, and took out the chest, making great lamentations, and subsequently sailed for Egypt, with the eldest of the king's sons. The goddess, intending to visit Horus her son at Buto, deposited the chest in an unfringed spot; but Typhon discovered it by the light of the moon, tore it into 14 pieces, and distributed each to a nome or district. Isis recovered all by passing the marshes in a boat of papyrus; all except the phallus, which had been eaten by the Lepidotus, the Phagrurus, and Oxyrhynchus fish. Subsequently, a battle took place between Horus and Typhon or Set, which lasted three days, and ended by Typhon having fetters placed upon him. Isis, however, liberated Typhon, which so enraged Horus that he tore off her diadem, but Teth or Thoth placed on her the head of a cow instead. Typhon finally accused Horus of illegitimacy; but the question was decided between them by Teth or Thoth and the gods. From O., after his death, and Isis sprung Harpocrates. See HARPOCRATES. O. seems to have been finally revived, and to have become the judge of the Karneuter or Hades, presiding at the final judgment of souls in the Hall of the two Truths, with the 42 demons who presided over the capital sins, and awarding to the soul its final destiny. Thoth or Hermes record'd the judgment, and justified the deceased against his accusers, as he had formerly done for Osiris.

Considerable diversity of opinion existed amongst the ancients themselves as to the meaning of the myth of O.-iris. He represented, according to Plutarch, the inundation of the Nile; Isis, the irrigated land; Horus, the vapors; Buto, the marshes; Nephthys, the edge of the desert; Anubis, the barren soil; Typhon, was the sea; the conspirators, the drought; the chest, the river's banks. The Tanaitic branch was the one which overflowed unprofitably; the 28 years, the number of cubits which the Nile rose at Elephantine; Harpocrates, the first shootings of the corn. Such are the naturalistic interpretations of Plutarch; but there appears in it the dualistic principle of good and evil, represented by O. and Set or Typhon, or again paralleled by the contest of Ra or the Sun, and Apophis or Darkness. The difficulty of interpretation increased from the form of O. having become blended or identified with that of other deities, especially Ptah-Socharis, the pygmy of Memphis, and the bull Apis or Iapis, the avatar of Ptah. Osiris was the head of a tetrad of deities, whose local worship was at Abydos, but who were the last repetition of the gods of the other nomes of Egypt, and who had assumed an heroic or mortal type. In form, O. is always represented

swathed or mummified in allusion to his embalming; a net-work, suggestive of the net by which his remains were fished out of the Nile, covers this dress; on his head he wears the cap *atf*, having at each side the feather of truth, of which he was the lord. This is placed on the horns of a goat. His hands hold the crook and whip, to indicate his governing and directing power; and his feet are based on the cubit of truth; a panther's skin on a pole is often placed before him, and festoons of grapes hang over his shrine, connecting him with Dionysos. As "the good being," or Ounopholis the well hearted, the celestial or king of heaven, he wears the white or upper crown. Another and rarer type of him represents him as the *Tut*, or emblem of stability, wearing the crown of the two Truths upon his head. His worship, at a later time, was extended over Asia Minor, Greece, and Ionia, and at an early age had penetrated into Phœnicia, traces of it being found on the coins of Ma'uta and other places. He became introduced along with the Iac worship into Rome, and had votaries under the Roman empire. But the attacks of the philosophers, and the rise of Christianity, overthrew these exotic deities, who were never popular with the more cultivated portion of the Roman world.

Herodotus, ii. 40-42; Plutarch, "De Iside;" Tibullus, i. 7; Diodorus, i. 25; Richard, "Mythology," p. 208; Wilkinson, "Man. and Cust." iv. 314; Bunsen, "Egypt's Place," i. 414.

O'SMAZOME, a name given by Thenard to the spirit-extract of flesh, on which, as he supposed, its agreeable taste, when cooked, depended. The term is now abandoned by chemists.

O'SMIUM (symb. Os; old equiv. 100; new eq. 200; spec. grav. 10) is one of the noble metals which occurs in association with platinum in the form of an alloy with iridium. It may be obtained in the metallic condition by several processes which yield it either in thin, dark-gray glistening scales, or as a dense brown-black mass. It is the least fusible of all the metals; the oxyhydrogen jet volatilising, but not fusing it.

Five oxides of O. are known—viz., the *protoxide* ( $OsO_4$ ), which is of a dark-green color, and forms green salts when dissolved in acids; the *seguinoxide* ( $Os_2O_8$ ), which has not been isolated; the *binoxide* ( $Os_2O_5$ ), which is black; the *tereroxide* ( $OsO_6$ ), which possesses the characters of a weak acid, but has not been isolated; and *omic acid* ( $OsO_4$ ), which occurs in colorless, glistening, acicular crystals, freely soluble in water, and very volatile. At about  $220^\circ$ , this compound gives off an extremely irritating and irrespirable vapor; and hence the name of the metal (from the Greek word *omē* odor). It produces a permanent black stain upon the skin, and gives a blue precipitate with tincture of galla. O. also forms four chlorides which correspond in composition to the first four oxides. This metal was discovered by Tennant in 1803.

O'SMOSE; DIA'LYSIS. The earlier discoveries of Dutrochot and Graham have been briefly described in the article on DIFFUSION (q. v.). The subject has, however, been much extended recently, principally by the investigations of Graham; and the whole phenomena are exceedingly interesting and important, since secretion, absorption, and various other organic processes are to a great extent dependent on them; some further detail, especially of these latter facts, may here be given.

When two different liquids are separated by a bladder or other membrane, or a piece of calico coated with coagulated albumen, there is always a more or less rapid transference of the two liquids in opposite directions through the diaphragm. In certain cases, the explanation given in the article referred to is complete, but in others it appears to be insufficient. Graham has made an extensive series of experiments upon osmosis, where distilled water was on one side of the diaphragm, and various liquids and solutions on the other, and has arrived at many general results, of which the following are the more important. The osmose is considered as *positive* when more of the water passes through the diaphragm than of the other liquid. Such substances as gum, gelatine, &c., produce scarcely any effect. Solutions of neutral salts, such as common salt, Epsom salts, &c., follow the ordinary law of diffusion, as if no diaphragm had been interposed. Acid salts in solution, and dilute acids, pass rapidly into the water—or the osmose is *negative*; while alkaline solutions give, in general, a strong *positive* effect.

In all the cases in which an osmotic action occurs which cannot be explained by

capillary forces, there is chemical action on the diaphragm; and conversely, such osmose cannot be produced if the material of the diaphragm be not acted on by the liquids in contact with it.

But the most remarkable results of Graham's later investigations are those relating to Dialysis—i. e., to the separation of the constituents of mixtures, and even the decomposition of chemical compounds, by osmose. The results of his earlier investigations, above given, shew a remarkable difference between two classes of bodies; gum, gelatine, &c., which form viscous solutions, on the one hand; and salts, acids, and alkalies, on the other. The first class he has called *Colloids*; the second, *Cryatalloids*. The former are extremely sluggish, the latter comparatively rapid in their action. Thus, of common salt and albumen, under precisely similar circumstances, there pass through the diaphragm in a given time quantities which are as 25 to 1 by weight. Hence, if a solution containing both classes of substances be opposed to pure water, the cryatalloids will pass rapidly through the diaphragm, and the colloids slowly. This process promises to be of very great value in medical jurisprudence, as, without introducing any new substance (except the diaphragm and distilled water), we have the means of separating from the generally colloidal contents of animal viscera such poisonous cryatalloids as white arsenic, vegetable alkaloids, &c., which by the old methods was in general attended with great difficulty, and often uncertainty. These methods are still in their infancy, but enough is already known to shew how valuable they must soon become to the chemist and the toxicologist. One economical application has been proposed, and shewn to be practicable. When a bladder is filled with the brine of salt beef, and suspended in fresh water, the salt after a time nearly all disappears, and there remains in the bladder a rich extract of meat fit for making soup.

For a brief notice of the speculations which Graham's researches have led him to form as to the nature of *Matter*, we refer to the article on that subject.

**OSMUNDIA**, a genus of Ferns, distinguished by spore-cases in branched, stalked masses. The **OSMUND-ROYAL**, **ROYAL**, or **FLOWERING FERN** (*O. regalis*), is the noblest and most striking of British ferns. It is very frequent in the districts of Scotland and Ireland most remarkable for the moisture of their climate, growing in boggy places and the wet margins of woods. It has bipinnate fronds and pinnatifid spore-cases upon altered fronds, which appear as stalks distinct from the fronds, and assimilate the general appearance to that of a phanerogamous plant. It sometimes rises to 11 feet in height. It is found in many parts of Europe, and in North America. It possesses tonic and styptic properties, and its root-stocks were formerly employed in scrofula. The root-stocks abound in a mucilaginous substance, which, being extracted by boiling them in water, is used in the north of Europe instead of starch.

**O'SNABRÜCK**, or Osnaburg, a territory occupying the western portion of the Prussian province of Hanover, and embracing the principality of O., the countships of Lingen and of Bentheim, and the duchy of Arensberg-Meppen and the lordship of Papenburg. Area, 2408 square miles; pop. (1875) about 280,000.

**OSNABRÜCK**, the chief town of the territory, lies in the midst of the extended and fruitful valley of the Hase, 80 miles west-south-west of Hanover by railway. It still ranks as the third commercial city of Hanover, although it cannot boast of the important trade which it enjoyed before the establishment of the existing system of the Prussian Zollverein. Pop. (1875) 29,850. O. has thriving manufactorys of cigars and tobacco, paper-hangings, and cotton and woollen goods, and extensive works for the preparation of mineral dyes and cement, besides iron, machinery, and carriage manufactorys. According to the opinion of antiquarians, O. stands on the site of the ancient Wittekinburg, which was raised to a bishopric in 783 by Charlemagne, some relics of whom, together with the pretended bones of the martyrs Crispinus and Crispinianus, are preserved in the cathedral—a fine specimen of the Byzantine style of architecture of the 13th century. The Church of St Mary, a noble Gothic building, was erected by the burghers of O. in the 14th c. during their contentions with their haughty ecclesiastical rulers, and contains the grave of M. e., in whose honor a statue was placed in the square of the cathedral in 1836. The signing of the peace of Westphalia in 1648, in an apartment of the town-hall, is commemorated by the preservation of the portraits of all the ambassadors who took part in the treaty. It was decreed in this treaty that the ancient bishopric of O. should thence

forth be occupied alternately by a Roman Catholic prelate and a Protestant-secular prince of the House of Brunswick-Luneburg; and after having been last held by Frederick, Duke of York, the district of O. was ceded to Hanover in 1808, and the chapter finally dissolved.

O'SPREY (*Pandion*), a genus of *Falconidae*, of which only one species is known (*P. haliaetus*), also called the FISHING HAWK or FISHING EAGLE, and sometimes the BALD BUZZARD. It is singular among the *Falconidae* in preying exclusively on fish; and to this its whole structure and habits are adapted. Its whole length is about twenty-two inches; it is of a dark-brown color, variegated with black, gray, and white. The under parts are white, except a light-brown band across the chest. The bill is short, strong, rounded, and broad. The tail is rather long, the wings are very long, extending beyond the tail; the under surface of the toes remarkably rough, covered with small pointed scales, suited for the securing of slippery prey; the claws not grooved beneath; as in most of the *Falconidae*. The feathers are destitute of the supplementary plume, which is considerably developed in most of the *Falconidae*. The intestine differs from that of the other *Falconidae* in being very slender and of great length.

The O. is chiefly to be seen near the sea, lakes, and large rivers. No bird is more widely diffused; it is found in all quarters of the world; its geographical range including Europe, Asia, Africa, North and South America, and Australia, and both very warm and very cold climates. It is everywhere a bird of passage, retiring from high northern latitudes on the appearance of frost. It occurs on many parts of the British coasts, and is sometimes found in inland districts, but is nowhere abundant in Britain. In some places in Scotland, it still breeds year after year, on the highest summit of a ruined building, or the top of an old tree. It is very plentiful in some parts of North America; and its return in the beginning of spring is hailed with joy by fishermen, as indicative of the appearance of fish. The nest is a huge structure of rotten sticks, in the outer interstices of which smaller birds sometimes make their nests; for the O. never preys on birds, and is not dreaded by them. It is, indeed, of a pacific and timorous disposition, and readily abandons its prey to the White-headed Eagle (or Erne, q. v.). In the days of falconry, the O., being very docile, was sometimes trained and used for catching fish.

OSSA, the ancient name of a mountain on the east side of Thessaly, near Pelion, and separated from Olympus by the vale of Tempe. It is now called Ki-savo. The conical summit is covered with snow during the greater part of the year. The ancients placed the seat of the Centaurs and Giants in the neighborhood of Pelion and Ossa.

O'SSEIN. This term is applied by chemists to the substance in the tissue of the bones which yields gluten. It is obtained by the prolonged action of dilute hydrochloric acid on bone, which dissolves all the earthy matter. The material thus procured retains the form of the bone without its hardness, and must be repeatedly washed with water, and treated with alcohol and ether to remove traces of salts, fat, &c. It is insoluble in water, but is converted into gluten (one of the forms of gelatine) by the action of boiling water—a transformation which is much facilitated if a little acid be present. The ossein yielded by different kinds of animals requires different times for its conversion into gluten; and that of young animals changes more rapidly than that of adults of the same species. It appears to exist in the bones in a state of freedom—that is to say, not in combination with any of the salts of lime. Fremy's analyses shew that the amount of gluten is precisely the same as that of the ossein which yields it, and that the two substances are isomeric.

O'SSIAN, Poems of. Ossian, or Oisin (a word which is interpreted the "little fawn"), a Celtic warrior-poet, is said to have lived in the 8<sup>th</sup> c., and to have been the son of Fingal or Fionn MacCunnhaill. The poems which are ascribed to him in manuscripts of any antiquity, are few and short, and of no remarkable merit. But in 1760—1763, a Highland schoolmaster, James Macpherson (q. v.), published two epics, "Fingal" and "Temora," and several smaller pieces and fragments, which he affirmed to be translations into English prose of Gaelic poems written by O., and preserved by oral tradition in the Scottish Highlands. Their success was wonderful. They were received with admiration in almost every country of Europe, and were translated not only into French and Italian, but into Danish and Polish. But their

authenticity was challenged almost as soon as they saw the light, and a long and angry controversy followed. That they were what they claimed to be, was maintained by Dr Blair, Lord Kames, the poet Gray, and Sir John Sinclair. That they were more or less the fabrication of Macpherson himself, was maintained by Dr Johnson, David Hume, Malcolm Laing, and John Pinkerton. While this controversy still raged, another sprung up scarcely less angry or protracted. Macpherson made O. a Scotch Highlander, but the Irish claimed him as an Irishman. The fact is he was both : for in those early times, the north-east of Ireland and the west coast of Scotland were practically one country ; the people spoke one language, they were of one blood ; and the narrow strip of sea that divided them served not as a wall of separation, but rather as an easy passage of communication by means of boats. As to the real authorship of the poems, as the original manuscripts which Macpherson used have never been produced, there will always remain doubts ; one thing only we know, that he did use materials of the same nature as the Ossianic traditions that may be picked up from the mouth of the people in many parts of Ireland and the Highlands at the present day ; but how far under Macpherson's hands they were remodelled remains a secret. The recent contribution to this question made by J. F. Campbell in his "Leabhar na Feline"—a digest of all the Ossianic ballads either published by others or collected by Mr Campbell himself—has not tended much to clear up the matter. No trace of Macpherson's two large poems has been recovered. On one point all Gaelic scholars seem agreed—that Macpherson did not, and could not have written the Gaelic. Poems ascribed to O., committed to writing in the Highlands in the first half of the 16th c., are printed in the "Dean of Lismore's Book" (Edin. 1862), with translations into English and into modern Gaelic. The poems ascribed to O., preserved in Ireland, were published by the Ossianic Society in six volumes (Dublin, 1854—1861). Students of the Ossianic poems will find much assistance from consulting the edition of the Gaelic with a new translation by Dr Clerk of Kilmaine (Edin. 1870). In 1876 the O. controversy was again agitated, but came to nothing.

OSSIFICATION, or the formation of bone, is a process to which physiologists have paid much attention, but regarding which there is still considerable difference of opinion. On one point, however, there is a general agreement—viz., that the bones are not in any instance a primary formation, but always result from the transformation and earthly impregnation of some pre-existing tissue, which is most commonly either cartilage or a membrane containing cell-nuclei. At a very early period of embryonic life, as soon, indeed, as any structural differences can be detected, the material from which the bones are to be formed becomes mapped out as a soft gelatinous substance, which may be distinguished from the other tissues by being rather less transparent, and soon becoming decidedly opaque. From this beginning the bones are formed in two ways ; either the tissue just described becomes converted into cartilage, which is afterwards replaced by bone, or a germinal membrane is formed, in which the ossifying process takes place. The latter is the most simple and rapid mode of forming bone. When ossification commences, the membrane becomes more opaque, and exhibits a decided fibrous character, the fibres being arranged more or less in a reticulated manner. These fibres become more distinct and granular from impregnation with lime salts, and are converted into incipient bone, while the cells which are scattered among them shoot out into the bone corpuscles, from which the canaliculi are extended probably by resorption. The facial and cranial bones, with the exception of those at the base of the skull, are thus formed without the intervention of any cartilage.

The process of ossification in Cartilage (q. v.) is too complex and difficult to follow in these pages. Some physiologists hold that when ossification is carried on in cartilage, a complete molecular replacement of one substance by the other takes place ; while others believe that more or less of the cartilaginous matrix remains, and becomes impregnated with earthly matter, at the same time that gluten is substituted for chondrine (chondrine being the variety of gelatine that is yielded by ossein or bone-cartilage before ossification, while gluten is yielded after that process is established). All the bones of the body, excepting those of the head and face already mentioned, are at first formed, in part at all events, from cartilage.

The time at which ossification commences does not at all follow the order in which the primordial cartilage is laid down. Thus the cartilage of the vertebrae ap-

pears before there is any trace of that of the clavicle, yet at birth the ossification of the latter is almost complete, while that of the former is very imperfect for many years. We will briefly trace the process of ossification as it occurs in the human femur or thigh-bone. Ossification commences in the interior of the cartilage at determinate points, which are hence termed *points* or *centres of ossification*. From these points the process advances into the surrounding substance. In the second month of foetal life, one of these centres shews itself about the middle of the shaft, and from this point ossification rapidly extends upwards and downwards along the whole length of the shaft. The upper and lower ends remain cartilaginous, and it is not till the last month of foetal life that a second centre appears at the lower end. The third centre, from which the upper end of the bone is ossified, does not appear till about a year after birth. The bone now consists of two extremities or *epiphyses*, with an intermediate shaft or *diaphysis*; and the superior epiphysis is not ossified to the shaft until about the eighteenth, and the inferior until after the twentieth year. At about the fifth year, a fourth ossific centre is developed in the cartilage of the greater trochanter, and a fifth centre appears in the lesser trochanter at about the fourteenth year. These osseous processes, thus developed from special ossific centres, are termed *apophyses*. Most of the long bones are developed in a corresponding way. It is a curious fact (which is of such general occurrence that it may be regarded as a law) that in the skeletons both of man and of the lower animals, the union of the various apophyses to the epiphyses, and of the epiphyses to the diaphysis or shaft, takes place in the inverse order to that in which their ossification began. The advantages derived from this subdivision of the long bones into segments, with interposed cartilaginous plates, are obvious. Besides the greater facilities for growth thus afforded, the flexibility of the bony framework is thereby greatly increased, and its escape from injury during the many falls incidental to this period of life is in no small degree attributable to this cause. See Humphry "On the Human Skeleton," pp. 33—45.

*True Ossification* sometimes occurs as a morbid process; but in many cases the term is incorrectly used (especially in the case of blood-vessels) to designate a hard calcareous deposit, in which the characteristic microscopic appearances of true bone are altogether absent.

In one sense, the osseous tissue that is formed in regeneration of destroyed or fractured bones, may be regarded as due to a morbid, although a restorative action. Hypertrophy of bone is by no means rare, being sometimes local, forming a protuberance on the external surface, in which case it is termed an *exostosis*; and sometimes extending over the whole bone or over several bones, giving rise to the condition known as *hyperostosis*. Again, true osseous tissue occasionally occurs in parts in which, in the normal condition, no bone existed, as in the dura mater, in the so-called permanent cartilages (as those of the larynx, ribs, &c.), in the tendons of certain muscles, and in certain tumors. The peculiar causes of the osseous formations which are unconnected with bone, are not known.

Calcareous deposits or concretions not exhibiting the microscopical character of bone, but often falsely termed ossifications, are of no unfrequent occurrence. Analyses of such concretions occurring in pus, in the valves of the heart, in the muscles, and in the lungs, are given by Vogel in his "Pathological Anatomy of the Human Body;" and in some of these concretions, the phosphate and carbonate of lime occur in nearly the same percentages as those in which they are found in bone. The diseased condition usually but incorrectly called ossification of the arteries, is of sufficient importance to require a brief notice. In consequence of the deposition of earthy or calcareous matter in the middle coat of the artery, the vessel loses all its elasticity, and becomes a rigid, unyielding tube. All parts of the arterial system are liable to this change; but it is more frequently met with in the ascending portion and arch of the aorta, than in any other part of that vessel, and is more common in the lower extremities than the upper. The affection is usually partial, but occasionally it appears to be almost universal. Thus, Dr Adams has recorded a case, in the Dublin Hospital Reports, in which no pulsation could be felt in any part of the body, and even the heart offered no other sign of action than a slight undulating sound. Old age strongly predisposes to this diseased condition, and probably few very aged persons are altogether exempt from it. There is also reason to believe that gout and rheumatism favor these calcareous deposits. This condition of the arteries may give rise to aneurism, to gangrene of the extremities in aged

persons, and to atrophy, and consequent feebleness of the brain and heart. (The coronary arteries, which supply the heart with the arterial blood necessary for its own nutrition, are very often, although not always, ossified in angina pectoris.) Moreover, this condition of the vessels very materially increases the risk from severe accidents and surgical operations.

**OSTADE**, Adrian van, a celebrated painter and engraver of the Dutch school, was born at Lübeck, in North Germany, in 1610. His teachers were Franz Hals and Rembrandt. He followed his art at Haarlem, till the French army of Louis XIV. threatened Holland, when he removed to Amsterdam, where he spent the remainder of his life. He died in 1685. Country dancing-greens, farm-yards, stables, the interiors of rustic hovels and beer-shops, are the places which he loves to paint; and his persons are for the most part coarse peasant carls, drunken tobacco-smokers, or peasant women employed in country work. In everything he did there is a bright and vivid naturalness. Not equal to Teniers in originality and quiet humor, he surpasses him in the force and fineness of his execution, though he is not free from triviality and repetitions, and inaccuracies in drawing. He was a prolific painter, and his works are to be found in all the museums and collections of the Netherlands, Germany, France, and England. They have been well engraved by Vischer, Suyderoef, and himself.—**ISAAC VAN OSTADE**, brother of Adrian, also a painter, was born at Lübeck in 1612, and died at Amsterdam in 1671. He did not equal his brother, whose style he labored to imitate.

**OSTASHKO'FF**, a manufacturing district town of Great Russia, in the government of Tver, stands on the south-east shore of Lake Seligner; lat.  $57^{\circ} 10' n.$ , long.  $83^{\circ} 6' e.$  The first settlements on this site are said to have taken place in 1250. Pop. (1867) 9288. Skin-dressing, boot-making, and fishing in the neighboring lakes are the principal employments of the inhabitants. The woods in the vicinity furnish bark for tanning purposes, and charcoal for the blacksmiths' shops. There are in O. 87 tanyards, in which skins are dressed, and Russian leather prepared to the amount of £90,000 annually. The leather prepared at Savines tanyard is known in England, Austria, Italy, and North America. 260,000 pairs of boots are made annually, and 400 men and 1000 women are engaged in the manufacture. Manufacturers of hatchets and scythes are also carried on. The commerce of O. is small, however, owing to its remote distance from important lines of communication.

**OSTE'NDE**, a strongly fortified town of the Belgian province of West Flanders, on the German Ocean, at the opening of the Ostend- and Bruges Canal, in  $51^{\circ} 14' n.$  lat., and  $2^{\circ} 55' e.$  long. Pop. 17,351. Notwithstanding its proximity to the sea, the shallowness of the harbor prevents large ships from entering the port except at high tide. It ranks, however, as the second seaport of the kingdom, Antwerp being the first, and is fortified with walls and broad ditches. It has some good manufactories for linens, sailcloths, and tobacco, and several sugar, salt, and candle works. From its position as a station for the steamers plying daily between London, Dover, and the continent, and as the terminus of various branches of railway in connection with the great French and German lines, it is a lively and active place of transport traffic, and is resorted to in the summer as a bathing-place by 12,000 persons from all parts of the continent. It is, moreover, an important station for oyster, cod, and herring fishing; has a good naval school, some ship-yards, an efficient staff of pilots, and is the seat of a commercial tribunal and a chamber of customs. Its imports in 1873 amounted to 16,000,000 francs; its exports to 15,000,000 francs. The harbor is furnished with a light-house, and is provided with an admirably constructed stone promenade for the accommodation of the public. O. is memorable for the protracted siege which it underwent from 1601 to 1604, terminating in the surrender of the Dutch and Flemish garrison to the Spanish commander, Spinola.

**OSTEOCO'LA**, a kind of size or glue made by removing the mineral matter from bones, and dissolving the gelatine. Its common name is bone-glue.

**OSTEOLE'PIS** (Gr. bone-scale), a genus of fossil ganoid fish peculiar to the Old Red Sandstone. It is separated from its allies by having the two anal and two dorsal fins alternating with each other. Seven species have been described.

**OSTEO'LGY** (Gr. *oستea*, the bones) is that department of anatomy which treats

of the chemical and physical properties of the osseous tissue, and of the shape, development and growth, articulations, &c., of the various bones of which the skeleton is composed. See BONE, OSSIFICATION, SKELETON, &c.

OSTERO'DE, a small town of Hanover, in the principality of Grubenhagen, situated at the western base of the Harz Mountains, on the Söse, an affluent of the Leine, 20 miles north-east of Göttingen. It contains large grain stores from which the miners of the neighborhood and their families are supplied with grain at a low and fixed rate. Cotton, woollen, and linen fabrics and hosiery are extensively manufactured, also lead and copper. Pop. (1875) 5658.

O'STIA, a city of Latium, at the mouth of the Tiber, about 16 miles from Rome. It is said to have been founded by Ancus Martinus, and was regarded as the oldest Roman colony. It first acquired importance from its salt-works, the establishment of which is attributed to Ancus Martinus, and afterwards as the port where the Sicilian, Sardinian, and African corn shipped for Rome was landed; yet its name first occurs during the second Punic war. It was long, too, the principal station of the Roman navy; but its harbor was exceedingly bad, and gradually the entrance became silted up with alluvial deposits, so that vessels could no longer approach it, but were compelled to ride at anchor in the open roadstead, and to disembark their cargoes there. At length the Emperor Claudius dug a new harbor or basin two miles north of O., and connected it with the Tiber by a canal. It was named the *Portus Augusti*, and around it soon sprung up a new town called *Portus Ostiensis*, *Portus Urbis*, *Portus Romae*, and often simply *Portus*. Yet it was not till nearly the close of the Roman empire that the prosperity of O. as a city began to decline. Its decay, however, was rapid, and in the 8th c. it was a mere ruin. During the middle ages, a village—the modern O.—was built about half a mile above the ancient one; but it has not more than one hundred permanent inhabitants, who still carry on the manufacture of salt, established in the pre-historic times of ancient Rome. The ruins of O. extend for a mile and a half along the banks of the Tiber, and are nearly a mile in breadth. See Nibby's "Dintorni di Roma" (vol. ii.).

OSTRA'CION, a genus, and OSTRACIONIDÆ, a family of fishes of the order *Plectognathi*. They are remarkably distinguished by having the whole body covered with an inflexible tuberculated coat of mail, formed of six-sided bony scales or plates combined in tesselated quincunxial manner; the fleshy lips, the fins, and the tail protruding through holes in the armor. The gill-opening appears in the armor as a mere slit, bordered with a skinny edge, but there is a true gill-cover within. There are no ventral fins. The vertebrae are generally coal-scum. There is little muscular substance, and in some species it is reputed poisonous; but the liver is large, and yields much oil. Some of the species are known by the names of TRUNK-FISH and COPPER-FISH. They are mostly found in the Indian and American seas. None are British.

O'STRACISM, a right exercised by the people of Athens of banishing for a time any person whose services, rank, or wealth appeared to be dangerous to the liberty of his fellow-citizens, or inconsistent with their political equality. It was not a punishment for any particular crime, but rather, as has been observed, a precautionary measure to remove such leaders as were obviously exercising a dangerous ascendancy in the state. Ostracism was introduced by Cleisthenes about the beginning of the 6th c. B.C., after the expulsion of the Pisistratidae. The people were annually asked by the Prytanei if they wished to exercise this right, and if they did, a public assembly was held, and each citizen had opportunity of depositing, in a place appointed for the purpose, a potsherd (*ostrakon*) or small earthen tablet, on which was written the name of the person for whose banishment he voted. Six thousand votes were necessary for the banishment of any person; but the greatest men of Athens—Miltiades, Themistocles, Cimon, Alcibiades, &c.—were subjected to this treatment. The banishment was at first for ten years, but the period was afterwards restricted to five. Property and civil rights or honors remained unaffected by it. Alcibiades succeeded in obtaining the final abolition of ostracism, of which, however, Plutarch and Aristotle speak as a necessary political expedient, and its utility has been very ably defended in modern times by Mr Grote ("History of Greece," vol. iv. pp. 200 *et seq.*).

O'STRICH (*Struthio*), a genus of birds of the order *Grallatores*, and tribe

*Brevipennes* (q. v.), in Cuvier's system—the order *Cursors* (or Runners) of some ornithologists. In this genus the bill is of moderate length, broad, flattened, rounded at the tip, the mandibles flexible; the head small; the neck long; the legs long (both tibia and tarsus) and very robust, the lower part of the tibia, as well as the tarsus, naked; the feet have only two toes, of which the inner is the largest, and has a short claw, the outer has no claw; the wings are too short to be used for flight, but are useful to aid in running; the plumage is lax and flexible; the wings and tail have long soft drooping plumes. Only one species is known (*S. camelus*), a native of the sandy deserts of Africa and Arabia; the South American ostriches, or Nandus (q. v.) constituting a distinct genus. The O. is the largest of all birds now existing, being from six to eight feet in height to the top of its head, and an adult male weighing from two to three hundred pounds. The male is rather larger than the female. The head and upper part of the neck are scantily covered with a thin down, through which the skin is visible. The young have the head and neck clothed with feathers. The general plumage is glossy black in the adult male, dark gray in the female and young, with a slight sprinkling of white feathers; the long plumes of the wings and tail are white, occasionally marked with black. On each wing are two plumeless shafts, not unlike porcupine's quills. The inner toe is very large, about seven inches long, and its claw hoof-like. Whilst the sternum is destitute of a keel, and the muscles which move the wings are comparatively weak, those which move the legs are of prodigious strength, so that the O. is not only capable of running with great speed, but of striking such a blow with its foot as to make it too formidable for the leopard and other large beasts of prey to assail it. It has been often known to rip open a dog by a single stroke, and a man is recorded to have suffered the same fate. The eyes of the O. are large, and the lids are furnished with lashes. Its sight is keen, so that it descires objects at a great distance in the open desert.

The O. shuns the presence of man, but is often to be seen in near proximity to herds of zebras, gnaggas, giraffes, antelopes, and other quadrupeds. It is gregarious, although the flocks of ostriches are not generally very large. It is polygamous, one male usually appropriating to himself, when he can, from two to seven females, which seem to make their nest in common, scooping a mere hole in the sand for this purpose. Each female is supposed to lay about ten eggs. The eggs are all placed on end in the nest, which often contains a large number, whilst around them are generally to be found scattered on the sand. Concerning these, it has been supposed that they are intended for the food of the young birds before they are able to go in quest of other food; an improbable notion, not supported by evidence. It seems at least as likely that these scattered eggs are laid by females waiting whilst the nest is occupied by another, and that they are lost to the ostriches, and no more regarded. Contrary to a very generally received opinion, the O. does not leave her eggs to be hatched entirely by the heat of the sun; or, if this be the case in the warmest regions, it is otherwise in the more northern and southern countries in which this bird is found, and by a remarkable instinct, the O. sits upon the eggs by night, when the cold would be too great for them, and leaves them to the sun's heat during the day.

The O. feeds exclusively on vegetable substances, its food consisting in great part of grasses and their seeds; so that its visits are much dreaded by the cultivators of the soil in the vicinity of its haunts, a flock of ostriches soon making terrible devastation of a field of corn. The O. has a very large crop, a strong gizzard, and a pretty large *proventriculus* between the crop and the gizzard: the intestines are voluminous, and the cæca long, with a remarkable spiral valve. There is a receptacle in which the urine accumulates, as in a bladder, a thing very uncommon in birds.

The O. swallows large stones, as small birds swallow grains of sand, to aid the gizzard in the trituration of the food; and in confinement, has often been known to swallow very indiscriminately whatever came in the way, pieces of iron, bricks, glass, old shoes, copper coins, &c. Its instincts do not suffice to prevent it from swallowing very unsuitable things; copper coins were fatal in one instance, and a piece of a parasol in another.

The O. is very patient of thirst, or is capable of subsisting for a long time without water. It often supplies the want of water by eating the gourds or melons of the desert, to which even the lion is said to resort on the same account.

The speed of the O., when it first sets out, is supposed to be not less than 60 miles

an hour; but it does not seem to be capable of keeping up this speed for a long time. It is successfully hunted by men on horseback, who take advantage of its habit of running in a curve, instead of a straight line, so that the hunter knows how to proceed in order to meet it and get within shot. It is often killed in South Africa by men who envelop themselves in ostrich skins, and admirably imitating the manners of the O., approach it near enough for their purpose, without exciting its alarm, and sometimes kill one after another with their poisoned arrows.

The strength of the O. is such that it can easily carry two men on its back.

The voice of the O. is deep and hollow, not easily distinguished, except by a practised ear, from the roar of the lion. It also more frequently makes a kind of cackling; and when enraged and striking violently at an adversary, hisses very loudly.

The flesh of the O. is not unpalatable when it is young, but rank and tough when old. It is generally believed to have been prohibited as unclean to the Jews (Lev. xi. 16), although the name is translated *owl* in the English Bible. There are frequent references to it in the Old Testament.

The eggs of the O. are much esteemed as an article of food by the rude natives of Africa, and are acceptable even to European travellers and colonists. Each egg weighs about three pounds, and is thus equal to about two dozen ordinary hen's eggs. The egg is usually dressed by being set upright on a fire, and stirred about with a forked stick, inserted through a hole in the upper end. The thick and strong shell is applied to many uses, but particularly is much employed by the South African tribes for water-vessels. The reader will probably recollect the interesting plate in Livingstone's "Travels" of women filling ostrich shells with water. In taking ostrich eggs from the nest, the South African is careful not to touch any with the hand, but uses a long stick to draw them out, that the birds may not detect the smell of the intruder, in which case they would forsake the nest; whilst otherwise, they will return, and lay more eggs.

**OSTRICH-FARMING.** Attempts are being made to increase the supply of ostrich feathers, or to facilitate the procuring of them, by establishing farms—enclosures where the birds can grow and breed in tameness. In 1859, the Bulletin of the Société d'Acclimatation contained a note from Dr Vavasseur, discussing the question whether the ostrich of South America, the Nandu (q. v.) or *Rhea*, can be acclimatised in France. When caught, they are easily tamed; and this is the circumstance which has suggested the idea of naturalisation. They must not be placed in cages, but must have free range to walk about, secured simply by a leg-guard. Dr Vavasseur expressed an opinion "that the South American ostrich could live without difficulty in the north of France; that there is no difficulty in domesticating it; and that it will feed on almost anything that is given to it, however coarse."

At a meeting of the Cape Agricultural Society of Cape Town in 1864, Mr L. von Maltitz gave an account of his experience in ostrich-farming at Colesberg. Towards the end of 1853 he purchased seventeen young ostriches of three or four months old, and placed them in an enclosure of 300 acres, over which they had free run. They subsisted wholly on the herbage of the enclosure, save a little grain given to them now and then. The opinion he formed from many months' observation was, that 35 ostriches might find sufficient sustenance upon 300 acres of good grazing-ground. In April 1864, he had the wings of the birds cut at the point where the well-known ostrich feathers grow; and they were fit again to cut six months later. The birds were so tame that they allowed themselves to be handled, and their plumage minutely examined. Having caused the birds and the feathers to be examined by experienced dealers, he found that the largest feathers, of which there are twenty-four on the wing of each male bird, were worth £25 per lb.; and that one plucking of his seventeen birds would yield £10 each on an average. The birds cost him about £5 each. Since this experiment of Mr Von Maltitz, O.-F. has become a recognised form of industry at the Cape. The price of a healthy bird a week old is £10; at six months, £30. The feathers may be plucked when the bird is a year old, and each crop is worth about £7 a bird. The price of the feathers ranges, according to quality, from a few shillings per lb. to £40 or £50. In 1875 there were 32,247 domesticated ostriches in Cape Colony. It is found that 600 acres of grass are required to feed 80 birds; and when the grass is poor, the ostriches are fed on supplies of shrubs and occasionally on Indian corn. The adult birds require to be kept in separate pad-

docks, which are generally surrounded by wire-fencing. The egg of the ostrich, though coarse, is reasonably good food; but the naturalisation of the bird derives most of its prospective importance from the feathers, for which there is at all times a large demand in the chief European countries.

The long plumes of the O. have been highly valued for ornamental purposes from very early times, and continue to be a considerable article of commerce, for the sake of which the O. is pursued in its native wilds. See OSTRICH-FARMING.

The O. is often to be seen in Britain in confinement, and readily becomes quite tame and familiar, although still apt to be violent towards strangers. Great numbers were exhibited in the public spectacles by some of the Roman emperors; and the brains of many ostriches were sometimes presented in a single dish, as at the table of Heliogabalus.

**OSTRICH FEATHERS** are occasionally borne as a heraldic charge, and always represented drooping. Three white ostrich feathers are the well-known badge of the Prince of Wales. According to common tradition, they were assumed in consequence of Edward the Black Prince having plucked a plume of ostrich feathers from the casque of John of Luxemburg, king of Bohemia, who fell by his hand at Crecy. There is, however, no doubt that ostrich feathers were previous to that time a cognizance of the Plantagenets. Prince Henry, eldest son of James I., first established the present arrangement of the three ostrich feathers within a prince's coronet.

**OSTRO'G**, a small district town of West Russia, in the government of Volhynia, 100 miles west of Jitomir. Here, in the reign of Constantine of Ostrog, a school and typography were established, and the first Slavonic Bible printed in 1558. Pop. (1867) 3314.

**O'STROGOHTS.** See GOTHS.

**OSTU'NI**, a city of South Italy, in the province of Lecce, 22 miles west-north-west from Brindisi, on the railway between Ancona and Brindisi. It stands on a steep hill. A considerable trade is carried on, chiefly in the produce of the neighbourhood, and the city is a flourishing one. Pop. (1871) 14,422.

**OSU'NA**, a town of Spain in the province of Seville, and 48 miles east-south-east of the city that name, stands in a fertile plain, and on a triangular hill crowned by a castle and the collegiate church. It stands in the midst of a highly fertile plain, productive in grain, olives, almonds, &c. A extensive panoramic view is obtained from the castle. The collegiate church, in the mixed Gothic and cinque-cento style, was built in 1534. It was pillaged by Soubi of 5 cwt. of ancient church plate, and was converted by him into a c tadel and magaz ne. Pop. 15,500, who are engaged in agriculture and in the manufacture of linen goods, and iron and earthenware.

**OSWE'GO**, a city and port of entry, in New York, U. S., is situated at the mouth of Oswego River, on Lake Ontario, at the extremity of the Oswego Canal, a branch of the Erie, and is a station on several railways. It is a handsome city, with streets 100 feet wide, crossing at right angles, with costly government buildings, custom-house, court-house, post-office, city hall, hospital, orphan asylum, library, 16 churches, 2 daily and 2 weekly newspapers, excellent schools, &c. It has a large trade with the lake country and Canada, and exports about 12,000,000 dollars per annum. On the river are 14 flour-mills, making 600,000 barrels of flour a day, with 11 elevators for unloading vessels for 45,000 bushels an hour. Among the manufactures is that of 13,000,000 lbs. of what is known as Oswego flour, made from Indian corn. The lumber received in 1874 measured 210,814,573 feet, besides 47,605,063 shingles, 2,654,126 pieces of heading, &c. There are a fort and a navy-yard, and an excellent harbor recently constructed. Pop. (1870) 20,910.

**OSWEGO TEA**, a name given to several species of *Monarda*, particularly *M. purpurea*, *M. didyma*, and *M. kalmaniana*, natives of North America, because of the occasional use of an infusion of the dried leaves as a beverage. They belong to the natural order *Labiate*, somewhat resemble mints in appearance, and have an agreeable odor. The infusion is said to be useful in intermittents, and as a stomachic. Some other species of *Monarda* are used in the same way.

**O'SWESTRY**, a thriving market town and municipal borough of England, in the county of Salop, 18 miles north-west of Shrewsbury. The stone pillars of its an-

cient gateways still stand in the streets. There are also scanty remains of a castle, said to have been the ancestral seat of Walter Fitzalan, progenitor of the royal House of Stuart, who, during the troubles of the reign of King Stephen, fled hence to Scotland, and became steward to David I., king of Scotland. O. is the centre of an extensive agricultural district: it has extensive market-places, and its weekly market for agricultural produce and cattle is very largely attended. There are corn mills and coal-mines in the vicinity. O. contains the offices and works of the Cambrian Company, and is favorably situated as a railway centre. Pop. (1871) of municipal borough, 7306. O. is said to derive its name from Oswald, king of Northumbria, slain here in 642. Near the town is Oswald's Well, a fine spring of water; and "Old O." an ancient encampment.

OSYMANDYAS, the name of a great king of Egypt, mentioned by Diodorus and Strabo, who reigned, according to these authors, as the 27th successor of Sesostris. He distinguished himself, according to these authors, by his victories, and invaded Asia with an army of 400,000 men and 20,000 cavalry, and conquered the Bactrians, who had been rendered tributary to Egypt by Sesostris. In honor of this exploit, he is said by Herodotus to have erected a monument which was at once a palace and a tomb, and which, under the name of *Osymandeion*, was renowned for its size and splendor in later times. It was said to be situated in the necropolis of Thebes, or at Gornnah, and close to the sepulchres of the concubines of the god Amen Ra. The Osymandeion is generally believed to be represented by the extant ruins of the palace of Rameses III. at Medinet Haboo, though great difficulty has been felt in reconciling the descriptions of its magnificence in ancient writers with the dimensions of the modern relic; and Letronne, in his "Tombeau d'Osymandyas" (Par. 1831), has even ventured to suppose that it was an imaginary edifice invented by the Greeks from their acquaintance with the great palaces of Thebes, but this scepticism is considered extreme. The name of O. is difficult to recognise amongst the Egyptian kings, the nearest approach to it being one of the Setis, either the 1st or 2d, called after death, Asiri-Meneptah. Others consider O. the Ismendes of Strabo, or the Mendes of Herodotus. The name of Amenophis may also lie concealed in his name, so much ambiguity pervades the subject.

Diodorus, i. 46 to 50; Strabo, xvii. p. 8, 11—16; Juvenal, xv. 88; Letronne, "Méni. de l'Inst." ix. p. 321; Champollion, "Lettres Ecrites," p. 260, 303; Champollion-Figeac, "L'Egypte," 69, 291, 313—315.

OTA GO, one of the most recent settlements, but, at the same time, the most prosperous, populous, and likely to become the most influential province of New Zealand (q. v.). Since the reincorporation of Southland—a portion of its territory which, in 1861, was parted from O. and raised into a small separate province, an experiment which failed in a short time—it is now the most southern province of South Island (see NEW ZEALAND). O. is bounded on the north by the province of Canterbury, and on the west, east, and south by the Pacific Ocean; is in length 200 miles, 160 miles in breadth, and possesses an invaluable line of coast which measures 400 miles. The entire area is about 15,500,000 acres—over 24,000 square miles. Pop. in 1871, 69,500; in 1877, estimated at 115,000. The chief rivers are the Waitaki, the Clutha, and the Mataura, all of which flow south-south-east, and are navigable to a greater or less extent. The western regions of O. remain unsurveyed, but are known to be covered with high, and in many cases snow-capped mountains, stretching along the whole line of coast, and extending inland for upwards of 60 miles. East and north-east from the Mataura River to the shore the surface is well known, and consists of mountain-ranges alternating with valleys, and extending parallel to the sea and to each other as far inland as the valley of the Manuherikia, one of the first affluents of the Clutha. The climate of O. is exceedingly healthy and invigorating; frost and snow are unknown except in the higher ranges, and rain, though sufficiently abundant to answer the demands of agriculture, does not interfere with outdoor occupations. All the English fruits and flowers, with some trifling exceptions, are grown here to perfection. The northern and interior districts of the province are eminently adapted, as regards both soil and climate, for agriculture as well as cattle-breeding. The western districts are rugged, and covered with forests; but in the eastern regions are many fertile and well-watered tracts, admirably suited for the production of corn, and the rearing of cattle and sheep. In mineral wealth the province of O. is remarkably rich. Coal, iron, copper, silver,

lead, &c., have been found, and useful earths and clays are abundant. Gold has been found in small quantities in other provinces of New Zealand, as in Auckland and Nelson Province; but by far the most important gold-fields of the colony are in the province of Otago. Gold was first discovered here by Mr Gabriel Read in June 1861, in a gully, since called Gabriel's Gully, on the Tuapeka, an affluent of the Clutha, in a direct line 37 miles west of Dunedin. Read placed his discovery in the hands of government, and was presented by the Provincial Council with £500 as a reward. In less than two months from the discovery of gold, 3000 people were at work in the Tuapeka valley, and were obtaining 6000 oz. a week. From this time gold-mining became a staple employment. A "rush" was made from Australia; Dunedin, formerly the village capital of the province, now rapidly increased in size and trade, new fields were discovered, and the immigration-lists were immensely swelled. From June 1861 to June 1863, 700,000 oz., worth nearly £8,000,000, were obtained. The most productive gold-field hitherto discovered is the Arrow River District, in the vicinity of Lake Wakatip. This district was made known in November 1862, and from that time to the end of October 1863, 28,655 oz.—value £955,620—were forwarded to Dunedin by escort. The value of the gold exported from O. up to the end of 1876 was £18,602,266; in 1876 it was £487,682. In 1874 the imports amounted in value to £2,885,834; the exports to £2,004,822. Gold, wool, timber, and agricultural produce are the principal articles of export. In agriculture, the chief growths are wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, and hay. In 1875 the extent of land under cultivation, and the amount of these products of the farm, were reported to be as follows: wheat, 28,116 acres, supplying 980,128 bushels; oats, 80,788 acres, 3,018,148 bushels; barley, 5055 acres, 168,437 bushels; potatoes, 3842 acres, 18,420 tons; hay, 7592 acres, 11,899 tons. The first band of settlers reached the shores of O. in the spring of 1848. The capital is Dunedin (q. v.). The population of this city and its suburbs, Roslyn and Caversham, was, in 1871, 21,511. O. was originally a class colony connected with the Free Church of Scotland; but the influx of immigrants consequent on the discovery of gold has obliterated its distinctive character.

#### OTAHEI'TE. See TAHITI.

OTA'LGLIA (Gr. *ot-*, the ear, and *algos*, pain) is neuralgia of the ear. It occurs in fits of excruciating pain, shooting over the head and face, but it is not accompanied by fever, nor usually by any sensation of throbbing. Its causes and treatment are those of neuralgia generally, but it is particularly caused by caries of the teeth, which should always be carefully examined by a dentist in these cases. When patients complain of *earache*, the pain is far more commonly due to *otitis*, or inflammation of the tympanic portion of the ear, a much more serious affection.

O'TARY (*Otaria*). a genus of the Seal family (*Phocidae*), distinguished from the rest of the family by a projecting auricle or auditory conch (often popularly called "external ear"), and by a very remarkable character, a double cutting edge in the four middle upper incisors. The membrane which unites the toes of the hind-feet is prolonged into a flap beyond each toe. The fore-legs, as if intended exclusively for swimming, are placed further back in the body than in the true seals, giving the otaries the appearance of having a longer neck. The hind-legs are more like the fore-legs than in the true seals.—The SEA LION (*O. jubata* or *O. Stelleri*) of the northern seas is about 15 feet in length, and weighs about 16 cwt. It inhabits the eastern shores of Kamtschatka, the Kurile Islands, &c., and is in some places extremely abundant. It is partially migratory, removing from its most northern quarters on the approach of winter. It is to be found chiefly on rocky coasts and islet rocks, on the ledges of which it climbs, and its roaring is sometimes useful in warning sailors of danger. It is much addicted to roaring, which, as much as the mane of the old males, has obtained for it the name of sea lion. The head of this animal is large; the eyes very large; the eyebrows bushy; the hide thick; the hair coarse, and reddish; a heavy mass of stiff, curly, crisp hair on the neck and shoulders. The old males have a fierce aspect, yet they flee in great precipitation from man; but if driven to extremities, they fight furiously. Sea lions are capable of being tamed, and become very familiar with man. They are polygamous, but a male generally appropriates to himself only two or three females. They feed on fish and the smaller seals.—The sea lion of the southern seas, once supposed to be the same, is now generally believed to be a distinct species, and indeed, more than one species are supposed to inhabit the southern seas.—The U'

**CINE SEAL, URSINE O., OR SEA BEAR (*O. ursina*),** is an inhabitant of the Northern Pacific. It is scarcely 8 feet long. The hinder limbs being better developed than in most of the seals, it can stand and walk almost like a land quadruped. The muzzle is prominent, the mouth small, the lips timid, the whiskers long; the tip of the tongue is bifurcated, the eyes are large, the skin is thick, the hair long, erect, and thick, with a soft underclothing of wool. The food consists of sea otters, small seals, and fish. The ursine seal is polygamous, a strong male appropriating to himself from eight to fifty females. It swims with great swiftness. It is fierce and courageous. Its skin is much prized for clothing in the regions in which it abounds. As in the case of the sea lion, it is doubtful if the geographical range of the sea bear extends to the southern seas, or if it is represented there by a similar species. Several other species of *O.* are inhabitants of the Pacific and Southern Oceans. The PUG SEAL (*O. Falklandica*) is one of these. It is found on the Falkland Islands, South Shetland, &c. It is of a long and slender form, with broad head, and clothed with soft, compact, grayish-brown hair, amongst which is a very soft, brownish fur. It is gregarious and polygamous. When South Shetland was first visited, its seals had no apprehension of danger, and unsuspectingly remained whilst their fellows were slain and skinned; but they have since learned to be upon their guard. The skin of the fur seal is in great demand, chiefly for ladies' mantles, and was much used for making a kind of soft fur cap, which was very common thirty or forty years ago.

**OTCHAKOV,** a small town and seaport of South Russia, in the government of Kherson, surrounded on all sides by a barren steppe, stands at the western extremity, and on the north shore of the estuary of the Dniester, 40 miles east-north-east of Odessa. It traces its foundation to the very earliest times, and is supposed by some to be the spot where stood the Graecian colony Olbia; by others, to be Tomy, the scene of Ovid's banishment. At the end of the 13th c., the khan of the Crimea built here a strong fortress. Its present name occurs for the first time in 1557. During the Russian wars with Turkey in the 18th c., O. was alternately the property of each, until it was taken by Potemkin in 1783, and finally annexed to the Russian dominions. The vicinity of Odessa is fatal to the development of foreign commerce at its port. Pop. (1867) 5140, the greater part of whom are Jews, and are employed in salting fish for transport to Little Russia.

**OTHMAN IBN AFFAN,** third calif of the Moslems, was born about 574. He belonged to the family of the prophet, and was cousin-german of Abu Sofian. One of the early converts to Islam, he was one of its most zealous supporters, and linked himself still more strongly to Mohammed by becoming his son-in-law and private secretary. He was elected to succeed Omar in the califate in Decemb'r 644, and a most unworthy successor he proved to be. The Moslem empire, however, continued to extend itself on all sides till the insane nepotism of O. gave its progress a sudden check. The able and energetic leaders who had been appointed by Omar were superseded by members of his own family, and of that of Abu Sofian; and the consequences were what might have been expected. Egypt revolted, and the calif was compelled to re-instate Amru in the government of that country. And several other rebellions were only quelled by a similar restoration of the previous governors. Zealous Moslems deeply deplored the folly of their chief, and were indignant at seeing the chief of the prophet occupied by O., while Abu-hakr, and even Omar, were accustomed to seat themselves two steps below it. Emboldened by the knowledge of his vacillating and cowardly disposition, they showered upon him reproaches and menaces; but the bearer of their remonstrances having been bastinadoed by O.'s order, a general revolt ensued. O. averted the crisis by unconditional abdication; but having soon after attempted to put to death Mohammed, the son of the Calif Abu-hakr, the latter made his appearance at Medina at the head of a troop of malcontents, and forcing his way to the presence of O., stabbed him to the heart. O. was of a mild and peaceful disposition, but he was at the same time most ambitious of power, though after his accession to supreme authority, he shewed himself to be, either from a real or natural inability, dolorably deficient in those energetic virtues, without which the control of a warlike people and the management of a mighty empire such as that of the Moslems, were utterly impossible. O. was the first to cause an authentic copy of the Koran to be composed.

**OTHMAN**, Othoman, or **Osman I.**, surnamed *Al ghazi* ("the conqueror"), the founder of the Turkish power, was born in Bithynia in 1259. His father, Orthogru, the chief of a small tribe of Oguzian Turks, had entered the service of Alla-ed-din Kaiakobad, the Seljuk sultan of Iconium, and had rendered important services to that monarch and his successors in their wars with the Byzantines and Mongols. Orthogru dying in 1289, after a rule of more than half a century, his tribe chose his son O-man (i.e., the "young bastard") as his successor. O. took in his father's foot-t-ps; and on the destruction of the sultanate of Iconium in 1299 by the Mongols, succeeded in obtaining possession of a portion of Bithynia. He had previously subjugated many of the neighboring Oguzian chiefs, and this new accession of territory rendered him powerful enough to attack the Byzantines with success. In July 1299, he forced the passes of Olympus, and took possession of the whole territory of Nicæa, with the sole exception of the town of that name, which resisted his efforts for five years longer. In 1301, he defeated the Emperor Andronicus II. at Baphneon; in 1307, he incorporated the province of Marmara in his dominions; and continued till his death, in 1326, steadily to pursue his plans of conquest. "Othman," says Knolles, "was wise, politic, valiant, and fortunate, but full of dissimulation, and ambitious above measure; not rash in his attempts, and yet very resolute; to all men he was bountiful and liberal, especially to his men of war and to the poor. Of a poor lordship, he left a great kingdom (Phrygia, Bithynia, and the neighboring districts), having subdued a great part of Asia Minor, and is worthily accounted the first founder of the Turks' great kingdom and empire." O. assumed the title of sultan (though this is denied by many historians) on the extinction of the Iconium sultanate in 1299, held his court at Kara-Hissar, and struck money in his own name. From him are derived the terms Ottomans, Othomans, and Osmanli or Osmanli, which are employed as synonymous with Turks. SEE OTTOMAN EMPIRE.

**O'THO**, Marcus Silius, Roman emperor, was descended of an ancient Etruscan family, and was born 38 A.D. He was a favorite companion of Nero, who appointed him governor of Lusitania, in which office he acquitted himself creditably. On the revolt of Galba against Nero, O. joined himself to the former; but being disappointed in his hope of being proclaimed Galba's successor, he marched at the head of a small band of soldiers to the forum, where he was proclaimed emperor, and Galba was slain, 69 A.D. O. was recognised as emperor over all the Roman possessions, with the exception of Germany, where a large army was stationed under Vitellius. The first few weeks of his reign were marked by an indulgence towards his personal enemies, and a devotion to luxury, which, though at total variance with his usual habits, excited in the minds of his subjects the most favorable hopes. But the tide of rebellion raised in Germany by Valens and Cæcina during the reign of Galba had by this time gathered strength, and these commanders having prevailed upon Vitellius, who had become a mere good-for-nothing gluton, to join his forces to theirs, the combined army poured into Italy. O. fortunately possessed several able generals, who repeatedly defeated the rebels; but the prudence of some among them in restraining the enthusiasm of their troops, who wished further to follow up their victories, was unfortunately considered as cowardice or treason, and produced dissensions in O.'s camp. This state of matters becoming known to the generals of Vitellius, encouraged them to unite their armies, and fall upon the forces of Otho. An obstinate engagement took place near the junction of the Adda and the Po, in which the army of O. was completely routed, and the relics of it went over on the following day to the side of the victor. O., though by no means reduced to extremity, resolved to make no further resistance; settled his affairs with the utmost deliberation; and then stabbed himself, on the 15th of April 69 A.D.

**OTHO I.**, or the Great, son of the Emperor Henry I. of Germany, was born in 912, and after having been early recognised as his successor, was, on the death of his father in 936, formally crowned king of the Germans. His reign was one succession of eventful and generally triumphant wars, in the course of which he brought many turbulent tribes under subjection, acquired and maintained almost supreme power in Italy, where he imposed laws with equal success on the kings of Lombardy and the popes at Rome, consolidated the disjointed power of the German emperors, and established Christianity at many different points in the Scandinavian and Slavonic lands, which lay beyond the circuit of his own jurisdiction. His earliest achievement was a successful war against the Bohemian Duke Boleslas, whom he redemp-

to subjection, and forcibly converted to Christianity; next the Dukes of Bavaria and Franconia were compelled to succumb to his power; the former paying the penalty of his opposition to O. by defeat and death in battle, and the latter by the confiscation of his territories, which, together with the other lapsed and recovered fiefs of the empire, were bestowed on near and devoted relatives of the conqueror. After subduing the Slav of the Oder and Spree, for whose Christian regeneration he founded the bishoprics of Havelburg and Brandenburg, driving the Danes beyond the Eyder, compelling their defeated king to return to the Christian faith and do homage to himself; and after founding, at the suggestion of his mother's former chaplain, Adeldag, the bishoprics of Aarhuis, Ribe, and Slesvig, which he decreed were for ever to be free from all burdens and imposts, he turned his attention to the affairs of Italy. Here he presented himself as the champion of the beautiful Adelheid, the widow of the murdered King Lothaire; and having defeated her unfortunate suitor, Berengar II. (q. v.), married her, and assumed supreme power over the north of Italy in 951. The wars to which this measure gave rise, obliged O. frequently to cross the Alps; but at length, after a great victory gained over the Hungarians in 955, and the defeat and capture of Berengar, O. was acknowledged king of Italy by a diet held at Milan; and after being crowned with the iron crown of Lombardy, was, in 962, recognised by Pope John XII. as the successor of Charlemagne, and crowned Emperor of the West at Rome. O. lost no time in asserting his Imperial prerogatives; and having called a council, effected the deposition of John, whose licentiousness had become a burden to Italy and a scandal to Christendom, and caused Leo VIII. to be elected in his place. Fresh wars were the result of this step. Popes and anti-popes distracted the peace of Rome; but through all these disorders O. maintained the supremacy which he claimed as Emperor of the West, in regard to the election of popes and the temporal concerns of the Roman territories. His later years were disturbed by domestic differences; for his elder son, Ludolph, and his son-in-law, Konrad of Lorraine, having risen in rebellion against him, through jealousy of his younger son and intended successor, Otho, the empire was distracted by civil war. Although the war terminated in the defeat of the rebels, and the recognition of young Otho as king of the Germans, and his coronation at Rome, in 967, as joint-emperor with his father, O.'s favorite scheme of uniting the richly-dowried Greek princess, Theophanu, with the young prince, met with such contempt from the Greek emperor, that his outraged pride soon again plunged him into war. His inroads into Apulia and Calabria, however, proved convincing arguments in favor of the marriage, and Theophanu became the wife of young Otho, with Calabria and Apulia for her dowry. O. died at Minsleben, in Thuringia, in 973, and was buried at Magdeburg, leaving the character of a great and just ruler, who had extended the limits of the empire, and restored the prestige of the imperial power more nearly to the stand which it occupied under Charlemagne than any other emperor. He created the duchy of Carinthia, and the markgrafschafts of East and North Saxony; appointed counts-palatine; founded cities and bishoprics; and did good service to the empire, in reorganising the shaken foundations of its power in Europe. See Vehse's "Leben Kaiser O.'s des Grossen" (Dresden. 1827).

OTHO II., surnamed *Rufus*, "the Red," son of Otho I., was born in 955, and succeeded his father in 973. For a time, O. was content to rule under the regency of his mother, the Empress Adelheid; but differences having arisen between them, through the headstrong and ambitious inclinations of the young monarch, his mother withdrew from all share in the administration, and left him to the exercise of his own will, which soon brought him into collision with the great vassals of the crown. Civil war broke out under the leadership of Henry II. of Bavaria, who formed a secret alliance against the young emperor with Harald, king of Denmark, and Mieszko of Poland, and for a time fortune inclined to the side of the rebels; but O.'s astuteness circumvented their designs, and after defeating Henry and depriving him of his duchy, he marched against the Danish king, who had been making successful incursions into Saxony. O.'s first attack on the Dannevirke having proved of no avail, he retired, vowing that he would return before another year and force every Dane to forewear paganism. O. kept his promise, returning to the attack the following year, when, according to the old chroniclers, acting by the advice of his ally, Olaf Trygveson of Norway, he caused large quantities of trees, brushwood

and stubble to be piled up against the Dannevirke and set on fire, and this drove away the defenders and destroyed their fortifications. The defeated Harold was soon overpowered by the superior numbers of the Germans, and compelled to receive baptism, as the budge of his defeat. The next scene of war was Lorraine, which the French king, Lothaire, had seized as a former appanage of his crown; but here, after a partial defeat, O. succeeded in reasserting his power; and not content with this advantage, devastated Champagne, pursued and captured Lothaire, and advanced upon Paris, one of the suburbs of which he burned. Scarcely was this war ended, when the disturbed condition of Italy called O. across the Alps. His presence put a stop to the insurrection at Milan and Rome, where he re-established order; and having advanced into Lower Italy, he defeated the Saracens, drove back the Greeks, and having re-established his supremacy in Apulia and Calabria, which he claimed in right of his wife, Theophania, made himself master of Naples and Salerno, and finally of Tarentum, in 982. The Greek emperor, alarmed at the successful ambition of O., called the Saracens again into Italy, who gave him battle with overwhelming numbers. The result was the total defeat of the emperor, who only escaped from the hands of the victors by plunging with his horse into the sea, and swimming, at the risk of his life, to a ship. Unluckily, it was a Greek ship, and O. was virtually a prisoner; but as the vessel neared Rossano, a friendly port, he contrived to escape by a cunning stratagem. O. now hastened to Verona, where a diet was held, which was numerously attended by the princes of Germany and Italy, and at which his infant son, Otho, was recognised as his successor. This diet is chiefly memorable for the confirmation by O. of the franchises and privileges of the republic of Venice, and the enactment of many new laws, which were added to the celebrated Longobard code. O.'s death at Rome, at the close of the same year, 983, arrested the execution of the vast preparations against the Greeks and Saracens, which had been planned at the diet of Verona, and left the empire embroiled in wars and internal disturbances. See Gieschreit's "Jahrbücher des Deutschen Reichs unter der Herrschaft, Kaiser O.'s II." (Berl. 1840).

OTHO III., who was only three years old at his father's death, was at once crowned king of the Germans at Aix-la-Chapelle in 983, from which period till 996, when he received the imperial crown at Rome, the government was administered with extraordinary skill and discretion by three female relatives of the boy-king—viz., his mother, Theophania; his grandmother, Adelheid; and his aunt, Matilda, Abbess of Quedlingburg, who, in conjunction with the learned Willigis, Archbishop of Mainz, directed his education. The princes of the imperial family disputed the right of these royal ladies to the custody of the young king; and Henry of Bavaria, the nearest agnate, having seized the person of O., tried to usurp the supreme power; but opposed by the majority of the other princes of the empire, he was compelled to release him. In consideration of receiving back his forfeited duchy, O. early shewed that he had inherited the great qualities of his forefathers, and when scarcely fifteen years of age, at the head of his army, defeated the troops of the patrician Crescentius, the self-styled consul of Rome, and was restored to the Roman territories. In 993, he was crowned emperor by his relative, Gregory V.; and having settled the affairs of Italy, returned to Germany, where he defeated the Slaves, who had long carried on war against the empire; and having forced Micišlav, Duke of Poland, to do him homage, he subsequently raised the Polish territories to the rank of a kingdom, in favor of Micišlav's successor Boleslaus. The renewed rebellion of Crescentius, who drove Gregory from the papal throne, compelled O. to return to Italy, where success, as usual, attended his measures. Crescentius, who had thrown himself into St Angelo, was seized and beheaded, together with twelve of his chief adherents; the anti-pope, John XVI., imprisoned; Gregory restored; and on the speedy death of the latter, O.'s old tutor, Gherbert, Archbishop of Ravenna, raised to the papacy under the title of Sylvester II. O., elated with his success, took up his residence in Rome, where he organised the government, erected new buildings, and shewed every disposition, notwithstanding the ill-concealed dissatisfaction of the Romans, to convert their city into the capital of the western empire. The near approach of the year 1000, to which so many alarming prophecies were then believed to point as the end of the world, induced O. to undertake a pilgrimage to the Holy Land, where he founded an archbishopric. On his return, after visiting Charlemagne's grave at Aix-la-Chapelle,

and removing the consecrated cross, suspended from the emperor's neck, he again repaired to Rome, to consolidate his schemes of establishing a Roman empire. The insurrection of the Romans frustrated his plans, and escaping from Rome at the risk of his life, he withdrew to Ravenna, to await the arrival of powerful reinforcements from Germany; but before they had crossed the Alps, O. died in 1002, at the age of 22, apparently from poison, which was said to have been administered to him by the widow of Crescarius, who, it is said, had deliberately set herself to win his affections that she might have an opportunity of avenging the death of her husband; and with him the male branch of the Saxon imperial House became extinct. See Wilmar's "Jahrbücher des Deutschen Reichs unter Kaiser Otto III." (Berlin, 1840).

OTTO I., second son of Ludwig, king of Bavaria, was born at Salzburg, 1st June 1815, and on the erection of Greece into a kingdom in 1832, was appointed by the protecting powers king of Greece. Till he obtained his majority, the government was intrusted to a regency which was unable to suppress internal disorder, or counteract the diplomatic intrigues of foreign powers. On assuming the government in 1833, O. transferred the court from Nauplia to Athens, and passed into law several important measures, which afforded the most lively satisfaction to his subjects. During a visit to Germany in 1833, he married the Princess Amalie of Oldenburg. A monetary crisis, provoked partly by false administrative measures, and partly by too prompt demands for repayment on the part of the protecting powers, threw the affairs of Greece into confusion, and materially weakened the king's popularity. A national reaction against the Germanising tendencies of the court followed, and resulted in 1843 in a military revolution, which was suppressed. O. now attempted to soothe the general discontent by taking the oath to the new constitution of March 30, 1844, but his efforts were only partially successful. Though the Bavarian ministers were dismissed, the king and his Greek advisers shewed the most reactionary tendencies, and attempted in various ways to curtail the privileges which the new constitution had conferred on the people. The equivocal position in which he was placed, in 1859, between the allied powers on the one hand, and his subjects, whose sympathies were strongly in favor of Russia, on the other, greatly increased the difficulties of his situation. The occupation of the Piraeus by Anglo-French troops enabled him to restrain the enthusiasm of his subjects; but after their withdrawal in 1857, he was obliged to adopt severe measures against the frontier brigands. His council, too, was composed of men unable or unwilling to support him, and his position became year by year more and more difficult. The strong pro-Russianism of the queen rendered her for some time a favorite; but the belief that O.'s absolute measures were due to her instigation, turned the tide of popular hatred so strongly against her, that attempts were made on her life. The general discontent at last found vent in insurrections at Nauplia and Syra in 1862, which were soon suppressed. A more formidable insurrection in the districts of Missolonghi, Acarnania, Elis, and Messenia, having for its object the expulsion of the reigning dynasty, broke out in October of the same year, and in a few days extended to the whole of Greece. O. and his queen fled to Salamis, from which place he issued a proclamation declaring that he quitted Greece to avoid the effusion of blood, and a provisional government was then established. This government, in February 1863, resigned its executive power to the National Assembly, which confirmed its acts, and decreed that Prince Alfred of England had been duly elected king of Greece. On the refusal of this prince to accept the throne, their choice fell on Prince William of Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Glücksburg, the second son of Christian IX., king of Denmark, who, under the title of George I., king of the Hellenes, in September 1863, assumed the functions of royalty. O. died July 26, 1867.

OTITIS, or inflammation of the tympanic cavity of the ear, may be either acute or chronic, and it may come on during the course of certain febrile affections, especially scarlatina, or in consequence of a scrofulous, rheumatic, or gouty constitution; or it may be excited by direct causes, as exposure to currents of cold air, violent syringing or probing, &c. The symptoms of the acute form are sudden and intense pain in the ear, increased by coughing, sneezing, or swallowing, *tinnitus aurium*, or singing or buzzing noises heard by the patient, and more or less deafness. If the disease goes on unchecked, suppuration takes place, and the membrane of the tympanum ulcerates, and allows of the discharge of pus, or inflammation of the dura mater and abscesses in the brain may be established. In less severe cases

there is usually a considerable amount of persistent damage, and an obstinate discharge of matter (*otorrhœa*) is a frequent sequence of the disease.

The treatment of so serious an affection must be left solely in the hands of the medical practitioner.

The symptoms of the chronic and less acute varieties of otitis are unfortunately so slight, that they are often neglected, until the patient finds the sense of hearing in one or both ears almost completely gone. In these milder forms of otitis, the general indications of treatment are to combat the diathermia on which they frequently depend, and to improve the general health. Very small doses of mercury continued for a considerable time (such as one grain of gray powder night and morning), and small blisters occasionally applied to the nape of the neck or to the mastoid process, are often of service in very chronic cases. If there is any discharge, the ear should be gently syringed once or twice a day with warm water, after which a tepid solution of sulphate of zinc (one grain to an ounce of water) may be dropped into the meatus, and allowed to remain there two or three minutes.

OTLEY, a small market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, on the right bank of the Wharfe, 29 miles west-south-west of York. Its parish church was built in 1507. Extensive cattle and grain markets are held here. Worsted spinning and weaving, machine-making, and the manufacture of malt, bricks, and leather, are the main occupations. Pop. (1871) 8835.

OTOLITHUS, a genus of fishes of the family *Sciaenidae* (q. v.), having a perch-like form, a convex head, with cellular bones, feeble anal spines, no barbels, long curved teeth or canines among the other teeth. A valuable species of this genus is the WEAK-FISH, or SQUETEAGUE (*O. regalis*), which is common on the eastern coasts of North America, from the Gulf of Mexico to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and attains a length of two feet. It appears on the coast's only in the warmer part of the year. It swims in shoals near the surface, takes bait greedily, and may be readily taken by any soft bait. It enters the mouths of rivers where the water is brackish. The flesh is pleasant, but soon gets soft. Excellent isinglass is made of the air-bladder. —A number of species of *O.* are found in the East Indian seas, some of which are valuable for the isinglass which is made from their air-bladder, and some are much used as food, both fresh and dried.

OTORRHOE'A signifies a purulent or muco-purulent discharge from the external ear. It may be due to various causes, of which the most frequent is catarrhal inflammation of the lining membrane of the meatus, and the next in frequency is Otitis (q. v.) in its various forms. If the discharge is very fetid, a weak solution of chloride of lime, or of Coudy's Disinfectant Fluid, may be used, in place of the solution of sulphate of zinc recommended in article OTITIS; and in obstinate cases of catarrhal inflammation of the lining membrane, the discharge may often be checked by pencilling the whole interior of the meatus with a solution of five grains of nitrate of silver in an ounce of water.

OTRANTO, Terra di, now called LECCE, the extreme south-eastern province of Italy, forming the heel of the Italian boot, is bounded on the n. w. by the provinces of Bari and Basilicata, and surrounded on all other sides by the sea. Area, 3298 sq. m.; pop. (1871) 493 268. It occupies the ancient Iapygian or Messapian peninsula, and is 108 miles in length, and from 25 to 25 miles in breadth. Three parts of its surface are covered with hills, offshoots from the Apennines of Basilicata. All the rivers are short, many of them being lost in the marshes of the interior; but abundant springs and heavy dews render the soil surprisingly fertile. Good pasture lands and dense forests occur. The climate is pleasant and healthy, except along the shores, both on the east and west coasts, and in the vicinity of the marshes, which in summer generate malaria. An abundance of the best wine, with corn and olive-oil, are produced; tobacco (the best grown in Italy), cotton, and figs, almonds, oranges, &c., are also produced. The capital is Lecce (q. v.).

OTRANTO (the ancient *Hydruntum*), a small town on the south-east coast of the province of the same name, 24 miles south-east of Lecce. During the latter period of the Roman empire, and all through the middle ages, it was the chief port of Italy on the Adriatic, whence passengers took ship for Greece—having in this respect supplanted the famous Brundusium of earlier times. In 1460 it was taken by the Turks, and at that time it was a flourishing city of 30,000 inhabitants; but it has long been in a decaying condition, principally on account of malaria. O. possesses

a castle and a cathedral. Its harbor is unsafe. In clear weather, the coast of Albania is visible from Otranto. Pop. about 2000.

OTTAWA, one of the largest rivers of British North America, rises in lat.  $45^{\circ} 30' n.$ , long.  $76^{\circ} w.$ , in the watershed on the opposite side of which rise the St. Maurice and Saguenay. After a course of above 600 miles, it falls into the St. Lawrence by two mouths, which form the island of Montreal; and the entire region, drained by it and its tributaries, measures about 80,000 square miles ("Geol. Rep." for 1845-1846, p. 18). During its course, it widens into numerous lakes of considerable size, and is fed by many important tributaries, such as the Mattawa, Mississippi, Madawaska, and Rideau, on the right, the Gatineau and the Rivières du Maine and du Lièvre on the left side. These, with the O. itself, form the means of transit for perhaps the largest lumber trade in the world, while the clearances of the lumberer have opened the country for several thriving agricultural settlements. The navigation has been greatly improved, especially for timber, by the construction of dams and slides, to facilitate its passage over falls and rapids. The O. is already connected with Lake Ontario at Kingston by the Rideau Canal: and there is every prospect of its becoming, before many years, the great highway from the north-western states to the ocean by being connected with the Georgian Bay in Lake Huron through the French River, Lake Nipissing, and the Mattawa. This great engineering achievement, for which capital will undoubtedly be soon forthcoming, would place the western lake ports by water 760 miles nearer to Liverpool by Montreal than by New York through the Erie Canal, and would save nearly a week in time, while it would lessen considerably insurance and freight charges.—The O. possesses one of the few literary associations of Canada. At St Ann's, a few miles above its mouth, the house is pointed out where Moore, wrote the Canadian Boat-song.

OTTAWA, the capital of the Dominion of Canada, is situated 87 miles above the confluence of the river Ottawa with the St. Lawrence, 126 miles from Montreal, 96 from Kingston, and 450 from New York. Originally called Bytown, after Colonel By, who in 1827 was commissioned to construct the Rideau Canal, it was incorporated as a city, and received the name which it now bears in 1854. At the west end of the city, the Ottawa rushes over the magnificent cataract known as the Chaudière Falls, and at the north-east end there are other two cataracts, over which the Rideau tumbles into the Ottawa. The scenery around O. al-o is scarcely surpassed by any in Canada. The immense water-power at the city is made use of in several saw-mills, which give O. its principal trade, and issue almost incalculable quantities of sawn timber. A suspension-bridge hangs over the Chaudière Falls, connecting Upper and Lower Canada. The city is in communication by steamer on the Ottawa with Montreal; on the Rideau Canal with Lake Ontario at Kingston; and with the principal points of the province by means of the St. Lawrence and Ottawa and the Canada-Central lines. In the year ending June 30, 1874, the imports amounted to £300,000, and the exports to £336,600. In 1858, the Queen selected O. as the seat of government of the then province of Canada; and in 1860 was commenced the erection of magnificent parliamentary offices, of which the Prince of Wales laid the foundation in September the same year. They are among the finest architectural structures on the American continent. Pop. (1871) 21,545. O. returns two members to the House of Commons, and one to the provincial parliament.

OTTER (*Lutra*), a genus of quadrupeds of the Weasels family (*Mustelidae*), differing widely from the rest of the family in their aquatic habits, and in a conformation adapted to these habits, and in some respects approaching to that of seals. The body, which is long and flexible, as in the other *Mustelidae*, is considerably flattened; the head is broad and flat; the eyes are small, and furnished with a *nictitating membrane*; the ears are very small; the legs are short and powerful; the feet, which have each five toes, are completely webbed; the claws are not retractile; the tail is stout and muscular at its base, long, tapering, and horizontally flattened; the dentition is very similar to that of weasels; six incisors and two canine teeth in each jaw, with five molars on each side in the upper, and five or six in the lower jaw; the teeth very strong, and the tubercles of the molars very pointed, an evident adaptation for seizing and holding slippery prey. The tongue is rough, but not so much so as in the weasels. The fur is very smooth, and consists of two kinds of hair—an

inner fur very dense and soft, intermixed with longer, coarser, and glossy hair. The species are numerous, and are found both in warm and cold climates.—The COMMON O. (*L. vulgaris*) is a well-known British animal, rarer than it once was in most districts, but still found in almost every part of the British Islands, and common also throughout the continent of Europe, and in some parts of Asia. It often attains a weight of 20 to 24 lbs. Its length is fully 2 feet, exclusive of the tail, which is about 16 inches long. The color is a bright rich brown on the upper parts, and the outside of the legs, being the color of the tips of the long hairs, which are gray at the base; the tips of the hairs in the soft inner fur are also brown, the base whitish-gray; the throat, cheeks, breast, belly, and inner parts of the legs are brownish-gray, sometimes whitish, and individuals sometimes, but rarely, occur with whitish-spots over the whole body; the whiskers are very thick and strong; the eyes are black. The O. frequents rivers and lakes, inhabiting some hole in their banks, generally choosing one which already exists, and seldom, if ever, burrowing for itself. It also inhabits the sea-shore in many places, and swims to a considerable distance from the shore in pursuit of prey. Its movements in the water are extremely graceful; it swims with great rapidity in a nearly horizontal position; and turns and dives with wonderful agility. Its prey consists chiefly of fish, and, like the other *Mustelidae*, it seems to take pleasure in pursuing and killing far more than it is able to eat; and in this case it daintily feeds on the choicest part, beginning behind the head of the fish, and leaving the head and often much of the tail part. The O., however, when fish cannot readily be obtained, satisfies the cravings of hunger with other food, even snails and worms, and attacks small animals of any kind, sometimes making depredations in places far from any considerable stream. The O. produces from two to five young ones at a birth. The flesh of the O. has a rank fishy taste, on which account, perhaps, it is sometimes used in the Roman Catholic Church, as *fish*, by those whose rules forbid them the use of flesh.—O. hunting has long been practised in Britain, although now chiefly confined to Wales and Scotland. Hounds of a particular breed—O. Hounds are preferred for it.—The O. defends itself with great vigor against assailants. The O. can be easily domesticated, and trained to catch fish for its master. In India, tame otters—probably, however, of another species to be afterwards noticed—are not unfrequently used both for catching fish, which they bring ashore in their teeth, and for driving shoals of fish into nets.—The fur of the O. is in some request, but more on the continent of Europe than in Britain.—The AMERICAN O. or CANADA O. (*L. Canadensis*) is very like the Common O., but considerably larger. The tail is also shorter, and the fur of the belly is almost of the same shining brown color with that of the back. This species is plentiful in the northern parts of North America. Its skin is a considerable article of commerce, and after being imported into England, is often exported again to the continent of Europe. It is usually taken by a steel-trap, placed at the mouth of its burrow. Its habits are very similar to those of the O. of Europe.—The INDIAN O. (*L. Nair*) has a deep chestnut-colored fur, and yellowish-white spots above the eyes.—The Brazilian O. (*L. Brasiliensis*) is said to be gregarious.—Somewhat different from the true otters is the SEA O. or KALAN (*L. marina*, or *Enhydral utris*), an animal twice the size of the Common O., a native of Behring's Straits and the neighboring regions, frequenting sea-washed rocks. There are, at least in the adult, only four incisors in the lower jaw, and the ears are set lower in the head than in the true otters, below, not above, the eyes. The tail is also much shorter. The molar teeth are broad, and well adapted for breaking the shells of molluscs and crustaceans. The hind-feet have a membrane skirting the outside of the exterior toes. The sea O. is much valued for its fur, the general hue of which is a rich black, tinged with brown above, and passing into lighter colors below. The head is sometimes almost white. The skins of sea otters were formerly in very great request in China, so that a price of from £35 to £50 could be obtained for each; but the attention of European traders and hunters having been directed to them—in consequence chiefly of a passage in "Cook's Voyages"—they were carried to China in such numbers as greatly to reduce the price.

O'TTERBURN, Battle of. See CHEVY CHASE.

OTTO (or attar) OF ROSES is the volatile oil or otto (see PERFUMERY) of the petals of some species of rose, obtained by distillation, and highly prized as a per-

fume. It is a nearly colorless or light yellow crystalline solid, at temperatures below 80° F., liquefying a little above that temperature. It is imported from the East, where in Syria, Persia, India, and Turkey, roses are cultivated to a considerable extent for its sake. It is probable that the oriental otto is the produce of more than one species of rose; and it is uncertain what species is cultivated in some of the localities most celebrated for it; but *Rosa Damascena* is known to be so employed in the north of India, and a kind of otto is sometimes obtained by the makers of rose-water from *Rosa centifolia* in England. See ROSE. Ghazipore, near Benares, is celebrated for its rose-gardens, which surround the town, and are in reality fields occupied by rows of low rose-bushes, which in the flowering season are red with blossoms in the morning, but the blossoms are all gathered before midday. Cashmere is noted for its extensive manufacture of otto, as are also the neighborhoods of Shiraz and Damascus. To procure the otto, the rose petals are usually distilled with about twice their weight of water, and the produce exposed to the cool night-air in open vessels, from which the thin film of otto is skinned with a feather in the morning. Twenty thousand flowers are required to yield otto equal to the weight of one rupee, which even in India is worth about 100 rupees, or £10 sterling. Otto is said to have been first procured by what may be called an accidental distillation of rose-petals exposed with water to the heat of the sun, and to have been found floating on the surface of the water; and it is still sometimes obtained in India by such a process. It is said to be also obtained by dry distillation of rose-petals at a low temperature. During the distillation of rose-petals a small quantity of a solid volatile oil comes over (Solid Oil of Rose, see below), which crystallizes and floats on the water in the receiver, and which is sometimes called English Oil of Roses. Otto of roses is not unfrequently adulterated with sandalwood oil, oil of rhodium, &c. It is much used for making hair-oil, a drop of it being enough to impart a pleasant odor to a considerable quantity. It is also used in making lavender-water and other perfumes. The odor of otto itself is too powerful to be altogether pleasant. Another method of obtaining the scent of roses is described in the article **PERFUMERY**. Otto of roses is a mixture of two volatile or essential oils; the one solid at ordinary temperatures, and the other liquid. The solid oil of roses (rose camphor, séaroptène of oil of roses) exists separately in crystalline plates, mélts or fuses at 203° F., and boils at about 59°. It possesses of itself very little odor, is insoluble in alcohol, but soluble in ether. It is composed of carbon and hydrogen. The liquid oil of roses (élooptène of oil of roses) is a very fragrant liquid, to which the otto of roses is indebted for its delicious perfume, and appears to consist of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen; though its composition and properties have not been attentively studied. The otto of roses may be regarded as a solution of one part of the solid oil in two parts of the liquid. To separate these oils, the otto is frozen at a temperature below 80° F., and the congealed mass pressed between folds of blotting-paper, which absorbs the liquid oil of roses, and leaves the solid. Another process which may be resorted to is to treat the frozen otto with alcohol, which dissolves the liquid oil, and leaves behind the solid. The otto of roses has a specific gravity of 832, water being 1000; it is combustible; and when its vapor is diffused through oxygen, and set fire to, a violent explosion takes place: 1000 parts of alcohol dissolve 7 parts of the otto in the cold, and 33 parts when slightly heated. The principal use to which otto of roses is put is as a perfume. Milk of roses and lavender-water owe their fragrance to the presence of the otto. A good receipt for oil for the hair is olive oil, colored by alkanet, and scented by a few drops of otto, and this is very generally sold under the name of otto of roses. Medicines are occasionally perfumed by otto of roses, and it is sometimes added to unguents and spirit-washes.

OTTOMAN EMPIRE, or "Empire of the Osmanlis," comprehends all the countries which are more or less under the authority of the Turkish sultan, and includes, besides Turkey in Asia, and that part of Turkey in Europe which is under his immediate sovereignty, the vassal principalities of Moldavia and Walachia (i.e., Roumania), Servia, and Montenegro, in Europe; Egypt with Nubia, Tripoli, and Tunis, in Africa; and a part of Arabia, including the holy cities of Mecca and Medina, in Asia. The special description, topography, history, &c., of these countries will be found under their own heads, and this article will consist solely of a brief sketch of the origin, growth, and present state of the Ottoman Empire.

The Ottomans, or *Osmannia*, to whom the generic epithet of *Turks* is by common usage now confined, are the descendants of the Oguzian Turks, a tribe of the great Turkish nation, which in the 13th c. inhabited the steppes east of the Caspian Sea. The tide of Mongol invasion which was then setting in from the north-east, swept the Oguzes before it, and they, to the number of 50,000, under their chief, Suliman, fled westward to the mountainous region of Armenia. After the chief's death, the majority of the tribe became scattered over Mesopotamia: but a few thousands under Orthognel, his youngest son, marched westward to aid the Seljuk sultan of Koufchah against the Khwarezmians and Mongols, and received from the grateful monarch a grant of land in Phrygia.—His son, OTHMAN (q. v.) (1289—1326), laid the foundation of the independent power of the Turks; and Othman's son and successor, ORKHAH (1326—1359) continued the same aggressive policy, and gained a footing in Europe by the taking of Gallipoli, Koiridcastron, and other fortresses on the coast. The Greeks, with the usual contempt of civilisation for barbarism, made light of these losses, saying that the Turks had only taken from them a "hog's sty" and a "pottle of wine," in allusion to the magazines and cellars built by Justinian at Gallipoli; but, as the historian Knoblesqually remarks, "by taking of such hogsties and pottles of wine, the Turks had gone so far into Thracia, that Amvrath, a few years later, placed his royal seat at Adrianople." Sultan Orkhan, perceiving the advantage of possessing a force trained exclusively for war, organised the body of troops known as Janizaries (q. v.), and to these his successor added the Spahis (q. v.) and the Zanis.—AMURATH I. (1359—1390), the successor of Orkhan, rapidly reduced the Byzantine empire within the limits of Constantinople and some neighboring districts in Thrace and Bulgaria. A formidable confederacy of the Slavonian tribes of the Upper Danube was formed against him, and, supported by multitudes of warriors from Hungary and Italy, they advanced into Servia to give him battle; but their army, amounting, it is said, to 600,000 men, was defeated with dreadful slaughter at Kossova (1390); and though the sultan was assassinated on the eve of the battle, his son, BAJAZET I. (q. v.) (1390—1402), followed up this victory by ravaging Servia and Walachia. Moldavia was also overrun, and a second crusading army, under the king of Hungary, totally routed at Nicopolis (1396); but the defeat and capture of the sultan by Timur (q. v.), gave Constantinople a respite for half a century, by raising up numerous claimants for the Turkish throne; and it was not till 1438 that Bajazet's youngest son, MOHAMMED I. (1418—1422), established his claim to the sceptre. A war which broke out with the Venetian republic at this time produced the most disastrous consequences to the mercantile and maritime interests of the Turks, and internal disorders prevented any aggressions on their neighbors.—AMURATH II. (1423—1450), a prince of considerable ability, completed the conquest of the Greek empire by reducing Macedonia and Greece Proper; and finding that the Hungarians had concluded a secret treaty of offence and defence with the Turkish sultan of Caramania against him, he attacked the former, but was defeated by Hunyady (q. v.), and compelled to retreat. Disheartened at his ill success, he resigned the throne; but on receiving news of a formidable invasion by the army of the papal crusade, resumed the direction of affairs, and totally defeated the invaders, with whom were Hunyady (q. v.) and Scanderbeg (q. v.), at Varna (1444).—MOHAMMED II. (q. v.) (1450—1481), the sworn foe of Christianity, greatly enlarged the Turkish territories. It was he who stormed Constantinople in 1453, and destroyed the last relic of the empire of the Caesars.—His son, BAJAZET II. (1481—1512), extended his dominions to the present limits of the Turkish empire in Asia and Europe, including, however, also the country to the north of the Black Sea, as far east as the mouth of the Don, portions of Dalmatia, and Otranto in Italy. Bajazet was the first to feel the evil effects of the military organisation of Sultan Orkhan, but all his attempts to get rid of his formidable soldiery were unsuccessful. He attempted the invasion of Egypt, but was totally defeated by the Mameluke sultan at Arbeia (1493).—His successor, SELIM I. (q. v.) (1512—1520), and SOLYMAN I. (q. v.), (1520—1566), raised the O. E. to the height of its power and splendor. During their reigns, no ship belonging to a nation hostile to the Turks dared then navigate the Mediterranean, so completely did their fleets command that sea.—SELIM II. (1566—1574), a pacific prince, put an end to a war with Austria, which had been commenced in the previous reign, by a peace in which it was stipulated that the Emperor Maximilian II.

should pay a tribute of 30,000 ducats annually for the possession of Hungary, and that each nation should retain its conquests. During his reign occurred the first collision of the Turks with the Russians. It had occurred to Selim that the connection of the Don and Volga by a canal would, by allowing the passage of ships from the Black Sea into the Caspian, be a valuable aid to both military and commercial enterprise, and accordingly he sent 5000 workmen to cut the canal, and an army of 80,000 men to aid and protect them. But, unluckily, the possession of Astrakhan formed part of the programme, and the attack of this town brought down on the Turks the vengeance of the Russians, a people till then unknown in Southern Europe, and the projected canal-scheme was nipped in the bud. The rest of this sultan's reign was occupied in petty wars with Venice, Spain, and his rebellious feudatory of Moldavia.—His son, AMURATH III. (1574—1595), such was then the prestige of the Turks, dictated to the Poles that they should choose as their king, Stephen Bathory, Woiwode of Transylvania; and received the first English embassy to Turkey in 1589, the object of the embassy being to conclude an alliance against Philip II. of Spain. To this the sultan agreed; but the destruction of the Spanish Armada soon after rendered this interference unnecessary. After an exhausting though successful war with Persia, succeeded a long contest with Austria, in which the Turks at first obtained the most brilliant success, penetrating to within 40 miles of Vienna, but afterwards suffered such terrible reverses, that they were compelled to evacuate all Hungary and Transylvania (hitherto a feudatory), and were only saved from destruction by the Poles, who entered Moldavia, and drove out the Transylvanians and Hungarians, thus affording the Turks an opportunity of rallying, and even recovering some of their losses. The latter part of this war happened during the reign of MOHAMMED III. (1595—1604), and afforded unmistakable symptoms of the decline of Turkish prowess; and a rebellion of the Pasha of Carranova, in Asia, which was quelled not as a Mohammed II. or a Bajazet I. would have quelled it, but by yielding to the pasha's demands, afforded an equally convincing proof of the growing weakness of the central administration, and set an example to all ambitious subjects in future. During the reigns of ACHMET I. (1604—1617), MUSTAFA (1617—1617, 1622—1623), OTHMAN II. (1617—1622), and AMURATH IV. (1623—1640), Turkey was convulsed by internal dissensions, nevertheless, a successful war was waged with Austria for the possession of Hungary; but this success was more than counterbalanced in the East, where Shah Abbas the Great conquered Mesopotamia, Kurdistan, and Armenia; and in the north, where the Poles took possession of some of the frontier fortresses. While Amurath was recovering his lost provinces in the East, the Khan of the Crimea, countenanced by the Poles and Russians, threw off his allegiance. Mustafa, the grand vizier, a man of great ability and integrity, continued to direct the helm of government under IBRAHIM (1640—1648); took from the Poles their conquests; and in a war with the Venetians (1645), obtained Candia and almost all the Venetian strongholds in the Ægean Sea, though with the loss of some towns in Dalmatia.—MOHAMMED IV. (1648—1687) commenced his reign under the most unfavorable auspices; he was only seven years of age, and the whole power was vested in the Janizaries and their partisans, who used it to accomplish their own ends; but luckily for Turkey, an individual of obscure birth, named Mohammed Köprilli, supposed to be of French descent, was, when over seventy years of age, appointed vizier; and the extraordinary talents of this man proved to be the salvation of Turkey at this critical juncture. He was succeeded (1661) in office by his son Achmet, a man of equal ability, and under his guidance the central administration recovered its control over even the most distant provinces; a formidable war with Germany, though unsuccessfully carried on (1663), was concluded by a peace advantageous to the Turks; Crete was wholly subdued, and Podolia wrested from the Poles; though, shortly afterwards, much of this last acquisition was reconquered by John Sobieski (q. v.). Achmet's successor overran the Austrian territories, and laid siege to Vienna; but the siege was raised, and his army defeated, by a combined army under the Duke Charles of Lorraine, and John Sobieski, king of Poland. The Austrians followed up this victory by repossessing themselves of Hungary, inflicting upon the Turks a bloody defeat at Mohacz (1671); but the fortunate appointment of a third Köprilli as grand vizier by SOLYMAN II. (1687—1691), was the means of restoring glory and fortune to the Turkish arms.—The reigns of ACHMET II. (1691—1695),

and **MUSTAFA II.** (1695—1702), were occupied with wars against Austria; but with the death of Köprilî (1691) fortune deserted the Turks, and the peace of Carlowitz (1699) for ever put an end to Turkish domination in Hungary.—**ACHMET III.** (1702—1730) was forced by the intrigues of Charles XII. (q. v.) of Sweden, while residing at Bender, into a war with Russia; a step which was immediately followed by an invasion of Moldavia by the Czar Peter. The Czar, imprudently relying on the aid of the Woiwode of Moldavia, found himself in great straits, from which he was rescued by the genius of his queen, afterwards Catharine I. The recovery of the Morea from the Venetians, and the loss of Belgrade and parts of Servia and Walachia, which were, however, recovered during the subsequent reign of **MAHMUD I.** (1730—1754); and the commencement of a long war with Persia (see **NADIR SHAH**), were the other prominent occurrences of Achmet's reign. In 1736, the career of Russian aggression commenced with the seizing of Azof, Oczakof, and other important fortresses; but a scheme for the partition of Turkey between Austria and Russia was foiled by the continued series of disgraceful defeats inflicted upon the Austrian armies by the Turks; the Russians, on the other hand, were uniformly successful; but the Czarina becoming very desirous of peace, resigned her conquests in Moldavia, and concluded a treaty at Belgrade. Among the benefits conferred by Sultan Mahmud on his subjects, not the least was the introduction of the art of printing.—His successor, **OTHMAN III.** (1754—1767), soon gave place to **MUSTAFA III.** (1767—1774), under whom the empire enjoyed profound tranquillity; but after his death, the Russians, in violation of the treaty of Belgrade, invaded Moldavia.—The war with Russia continued during the succeeding reign of **ABDUL-HAMID** (1774—1789); the fortresses on the Danube fell; and the main army of the Turks was totally defeated at Shumla. The campaign was ended 10th July 1774, by the celebrated treaty of Kutschonk-Kainardji. In defiance of its provisions, the Czarina took possession of the Crimea, and the whole country eastward to the Caspian. The sultan was compelled, by his indignant subjects, to take up arms in 1787. In 1788, Austria made another foolish attempt to arrange with Russia a partition of Turkey; but, as before, the Austrian forces were completely routed. The Russians, however, with their usual success, had overrun the northern provinces, taken all the principal fortresses, and captured or destroyed the Turkish fleet.—The accession of **SELIM III.** (q. v.) (1789—1807) was inaugurated by renewed vigor in the prosecution of the war; but the Austrians had again joined the Russians. Belgrade surrendered to the Austrians, while the Russians took Bucharest, Bender, Akerman, and Ismail (see **SUVOROV**); but the critical aspect of affairs in Western Europe made it advisable for Russia to terminate the war, and a treaty of peace was accordingly signed at Jassy, 9th January 1792. By this treaty the provisions of that of Kainardji were confirmed; the Dniester was made the boundary-line, the cession of the Crimea and the Kuban was confirmed, and Belgrade was restored to the sultan. Numberless reforms were now projected for the better administration of the empire. The people were, however, hardly prepared for so many changes, and the sultan's projects cost him his throne and life. The occupation of Egypt by the French brought on a war between them and the Turks, in which the latter, by the aid of the British, were successful in regaining their lost territories. In revenge for the defeat of his Egyptian expedition, Napoleon contrived to entrap the sultan into a war with Russia and Britain, which was confined to a struggle in Egypt, in which the British were worsted.—After the ephemeral reign of **MUSTAFA IV.** (1807—1808), the able and energetic **MAHMUD II.** (q. v.) (1808—1839) ascended the throne; and though his dominions were curtailed by the loss of Greece, which established its independence, and of the country between the Dniester and the Pruth, which, by the treaty of Bucharest in 1812, was surrendered to Russia, the reformation he effected in all departments of the administration checked the decline of the O. E. Egypt, during his reign, attempted unsuccessfully to throw off the authority of the sultan (see **MEHEMET ALI, IBRAHIM PASHA**).—His son, **ABDUL-MEDJID** (1839—1861), continued the reforms commenced in the previous reign; but the Czar, thinking that the dissolution of the O. E. was at hand, constantly tried to wring from the sultan some acknowledgment of a right of interference with the internal affairs of the country. It was an attempt of this sort to obtain the exclusive protectorate of the members of the Greek church in Turkey, that brought on the “Cinque War” of 1853—1855, in which the Turks were effectively supported by

**England, France, and Sardinia.** The treaty of Paris (1856) restored to Turkey the command of both sides of the lower Danube, excluded the Czar from his assumed protectorate over the Danubian principalities, and closed the Black Sea against all ships of war. The Porte, apparently adopted into the family of Europe an nations, made proclamation of equal civil rights to all the races and creeds of the Turkish dominions. But a massacre of Christians in Lebanon and at Damasci provoked western intervention in 1860.—**Abdul-Medjid**, whose last years were disgraced by irrational profuseness of expenditure, was succeeded by his brother **ABDUL-AZIZ** in 1861. Meanwhile the nominally subject peoples of Moldavia and Walachia ventured to unite themselves into the one state of Rumania; and in 1866, the Empire, becoming more and more enfeebled through its corrupt administration, had to look on while the Rumanians expelled their ruler, and, in the hope of securing western support, chose Prince Charles of Hohenzollern to be hereditary prince (*ducant*) of the united principalities. The rebellion of Crete in 1866 threatened a severe blow to the integrity of the empire, but was ultimately suppressed in 1868—in spite of active help from Greece. Servia, already autonomous within her own frontiers, demanded the removal of the Turkish garrisons still maintained in certain Servian fortresses; and in 1867 Turkey saw herself compelled to make this concession. In the same year the sultan distinguished the Vali of Egypt by granting to him the unique title of Khedive (q. v.). The vassal king drew down the wrath of his suzerain in 1870 by negotiating directly with foreign courts, and was compelled to give formal tokens of vassalage. But later concessions have made the Khedive virtually an independent sovereign. The Russian government took the opportunity of war between Germany and France to declare, in 1871, that it felt itself no longer bound by that provision of the Paris treaty which forbade Russia to have a fleet in the Black Sea; and a London conference sanctioned this stroke of Russian diplomacy. Between 1854 and 1871 the Turkish debt had increased by more than £116,000,000; and in 1875 the Porte was driven to partial repudiation of its debts. An insurrection in Herzegovina in the latter part of 1874 marked the beginning of a very eventful and critical period in the history of the O. E. The insurrection smouldered on through 1875 and part of 1876, and excited all the neighboring Slavonic peoples. A threatened revolt in Bulgaria in May 1875 was repressed with much bloodshed; and the merciless cruelty displayed by the Bash-Bazouks or Turkish irregulars alienated foreign sympathy from the government.—In May Abdul-Aziz was deposed; and his nephew **MURAD V.**, son of Abdul-Medjid, who succeeded him, was destined in turn to make way for his brother **ABDUL-HAMID II.** in August of the same year. In June Servia declared war, and Montenegro followed her example. Before the end of the year the Servians were utterly defeated, in spite of the help of many Russian volunteers; but the state of affairs in the Turkish provinces seemed to call for a conference of the great powers at Constantinople. The proposals then made for the better government of the Christian subjects of Turkey were rejected by the Turkish authorities, who had, during the conference, taken the extraordinary step of bestowing a parliamentary constitution on the O. E. Russia took upon herself to enforce on Turkey the suggestions of the conference, and on 24th April 1877 declared war. Both in Armenia and Bulgaria the opening of the campaign was favorable to Russian arms, but later the Turks rallied and seriously checked the hitherto triumphant progress of the invaders. Even after the Russian forces had been greatly augmented the Turks resisted energetically. Kars, besieged for several months, resisted till the middle of November; Erzroum did not surrender until after the armistice had been concluded. Osman Pasha, who established himself in Pleven early in July, repelled with brilliant success repeated and determined assaults from a besieging army of Russians and Rumanians; and he had so strengthened the fortifications as to be able to hold out until the 10th December, when he surrendered. Desperate fighting in the Shipka Pass had failed to expel the Russians from their position in the Balkans; and within a month of the fall of Pleven, the Russians captured the whole Turkish army that was guarding the Shipka Pass, and then easily overran Roumelia. The victorious Muscovites occupied Adrianople in January 1878, on the last day of that month an armistice was concluded; and in March the "preliminary treaty" of San Stefano was signed. After grave diplomatic difficulties, owing chiefly to the apparent incompatibility of English and Russian interests, a Congress of the Powers met

at Berlin, and ultimately agreed to that solution of the "Eastern Question," discussed under the article TURKEY, which has so seriously affected the area and standing of the O. E.

OTWAY, Thomas, an English dramatist, was born March 8, 1651, at Trotton, near Medhurst, Sussex. He left Oxford without taking a degree, and went to London in search of fortune in 1671. He appeared on the stage, but made a signal failure; and next he applied himself to dramatic composition. In 1675, "Alcibiades," his first tragedy, was printed; and in the following year he produced "Don Carlos," a play which was extremely popular, and "got more money than any preceding modern tragedy." His first comedy, "Friendship in Fashion," appeared in 1678, and, being sufficiently immoral to please the taste of the age, met with general appreciation. In 1679 he received a cornet's commission in a regiment, which, however, was disbanded in 1682, and O., resuming his former occupation, produced the tragedy of "Caius Marius" in 1680. In the same year "The Orphan" met with an extraordinary, and, in some respects, a deserved measure of success. In 1681, "The Soldier of Fortune," and in the following year, the finest of all his plays, "Vivie Prisened," were produced. From this time till his death, the poet had much to endure from poverty and neglect. debts accumulating upon him, he retired to an obscure public-house on Tower Hill, for the purpose of avoiding his creditors, and here, at the premature age of 34, he died, April 14, 1685. Although O. achieved a brilliant reputation during his lifetime, although he is described by Dryden as possessing a power of moving the passions which he himself did not possess, and later by Sir Walter Scott as being Shakspere's equal, if not his superior, in depicting the power of affection; yet his plots are artificial, and his language is without fancy, melody, or polish.

OUDÉ, or And', a province of British India, separated on the north from Nepal by the lower range of the Himalaya, whence it gradually slopes to the Ganges, which form its boundary on the south and south-west. Extreme length from north-west to south-east, 270 miles; breadth, 161; area, 28,992 square miles. Population (1891) 11,220,232, or 463 to the square mile. O. is one great plain, the slope of which from north-west to south-east indicates also the direction of the principal rivers. These are the Gumti, the G-agra (Ghaghra), and the Rapti, which swarm with alligators. The northern part, on the edge of the Himalaya, is not very well known. It forms a portion of the Terai, a vast unhealthy tract stretching along the borders of Nepal, and covered with impassable forests. The climate of O. is cool and pleasant from November to March; during the next four months it is hot and sultry, after which follows the long rainy season, but in general it is considered the healthiest along the whole valley of the Ganges. The soil is light, and except small nodules of chalk and oolite called *kankars*, there is hardly a loose stone to be seen. O. was formerly more copiously watered than it is now, the clearing of the jungles having greatly decreased the moisture of the land. The chief crops are wheat, barley, gram, maastr, maa tard, rice (of the first quality), millet, maize, joar, b'jra, various kinds of pulse, and oil-seeds, sugar cane, tobacco, indigo, hemp, and cotton. The manufacturing industry of O. is not important; soda, saltpetre, and salt are the only articles of which more is produced than is requisite for home-consumption. Gunpowder, and all kinds of military weapons, guns, swords, spears, shields, and bows of bamboo, or Lucknow steel, are, however, also made, besides some woollen goods, paper, &c. Bridges are few, if any, and the roads in general bad. The principal is the famous military road from Cawnpore to Lucknow, which runs in a north-easterly direction.

The people are of a decidedly warlike disposition. The bulk of the inhabitants are Hindus, though the dominant race for centuries has been Mohammedan. The Brahmins are the most numerous class, but there are 29 different sects. It is these two classes that mainly supplied the famous (or infamous) sepoys of the Bengal army. The language spoken is Hindustani.

The most characteristic feature in the social economy of O. is its *village-system*, for a description of which see INDIA. The *ryots*, or cultivators of the soil, cling to the land which their fathers have tilled for ages, with extraordinary affection, and thoroughly believe that they have a right of property in it; and, in general, we believe they are *actually* the owners of their farms, but in many cases they have been

dispossessed by a class of tax-gatherers (resembling the Roman *publicani*) called *talukdars*, who farmed from the Mogul, and afterwards from the king of O., the revenues of a collection of villages called a *talukah*, and by their extortions so impoverished the ryots, or peasant-proprietors, that the latter were often forced to execute deeds transferring their property to the talukdars. Many of the more spirited would not submit to become *tenants*, and taking to the jungles, waged war on the new occupants of their ancestral lands, until gradually they sank into *dacoits*, or professional robbers. The extortions of the talukdars continued till the annexation of the country in 1856, and the country suffered severely from the retaliatory raids of the dispossessed ryots. The East India Company reinstated the ryots in their property, where the talukdars could not shew undisputed possession for 12 years—a proceeding which gave great offence to the latter, who, in consequence, assumed a coldly hostile attitude to the British during the great mutiny of the following year.

The principal towns are Lucknow (q. v.), Fyzabad, Oude, or Ayodha, Roy Barely, and Shahabad.

O. is believed, by Sanscrit scholars, to be the ancient *Kosala*, the oldest seat of civilisation in India. The country was conquered by a Mohammedan army in 1196, and made a province of the Mogul empire. In 1753, the vizier of O., Saffdar Jung, rebelled against his imperial master, Ahmed Shah, and forced the latter to make the governorship hereditary in his family. His son, Sujah-ud-Dowlah, became entirely independent, and founded a dynasty which ruled the country, generally in a most deplorable manner, until, in the interests of the wretched inhabitants, the East India Company was forced to adopt the extreme measure of annexation, February 7, 1856. The necessity for this high-handed but most beneficent act will be better understood if we read the statistics of crime in O. during the last years of its independence: one item will suffice—from 1848 to 1854, there were, on an average, no fewer than 78 villages burned and plundered every year, while murders, robberies, abductions, and extortions were everyday occurrences. A feeble king, a blackguard soldiery, and a lawless peasantry had brought about a most helpless and ruinous anarchy. When the mutiny of 1857 broke out, O. became one of the great centres of rebellion. Upon this, the confiscation of all the estates of the talukdars was proclaimed by Lord Canning; but when the country was subdued by force of British arms, the estates of all such as laid down their arms and swore fealty to the British government were restored. The forts of the petty chiefs, however, were dismantled, and the inhabitants disarmed. The province is now administered by a chief commissioner. The chief feature of the present condition of affairs in O. is the preservation in their integrity of the estates of the talukdars. The amount of government revenue paid by the talukdars is about £1,000,000.

OUDE, or Awadh, one of the principal towns of the province Oude (q. v.), stands amid ruins on a hilly site on the right bank of the Sarayu or Gogra River, 80 miles east of Lucknow. It is also called *Hanumang'dhi*, on account of a temple erected there in honor of Hanumat (q. v.), the fabled monkey-ally of Râma, an incarnation of the god Vish'nû. The name O. is a corruption of the Sanskrit *Ayodhyâ* (from *a*, not, and *yodhya*, conquerable, hence "the invincible" city); but the ancient city of that name was situated opposite the modern O., where its ruins may still be seen. Ayodhyâ was one of the oldest seats of civilisation in India; it was the residence of the solar dynasty, or one of the two oldest dynasties of India, deriving its descent from the sun, but it obtained special renown through Râma, the son of Das'aratha, a king of that dynasty. Its great beauty and immense size are dwelt upon in several of the Purânas and modern poems, but more especially in the "*Râmâyana*" (q. v.), the first and last books of which contain a description of it. According to some Purânas (q. v.), Ayodhyâ was one of the seven sacred cities, the living at which was supposed to free a man from all sin, and the dying at which, to secure eternal bliss. It was also called Saketa, Kosâla, and Uttarakosâla. See Goldstucker's "Sanskrit Dictionary," under *AYODHYÂ*.

OUDENA'RDE, a town in the province of East Flanders, Belgium, is situated chiefly on the east bank of the Scheldt, 16 miles south-by-east from Ghent. It has a population of 8000, and possesses a fine Gothic council-house, important manufactures of linen and cotton fabrics, and many extensive tanneries. The town was

taken by the French, aided by an English force, in 1658; it was again besieged in 1674, by the stadholder, William (III. of England) of Orange; and in 1706, it was taken by Marlborough. An attempt made by the French to retake it, brought on the famous battle of Oudenarde, one of Marlborough's most celebrated victories, which was gained, on the 11th July 1708, with the aid of Prince Eugene, over a French army under the Duke of Burgundy and Marshal Villars. After this battle, the French king made offers of peace, which were not accepted.

OUDINOT, Charles Nicolas, Duke of Reggio, and Marshal of France, was born at Bar-le-Duc, in the department of Meuse, France, 25th April 1767. At the age of 17 he entered the army, but returned home after three years' service. Having distinguished himself in 1790 by suppressing a popular insurrection in his native district, he was, after some volunteer service, November 1793, raised to the rank of chief of brigade, in the fourth regiment of the line, and distinguished himself in various actions with the Prussians and Austrians. He was wounded and taken prisoner before Maunheim, by the Austrians, but was soon exchanged, and served in the armies of the Rhine under Moreau, and in that of Switzerland under Massena. He was promoted to be general of division (12th April 1799), and for a daring capture of a battery at Pozzola, was presented by the First Consul with a sabre of honor and the cannon which he had taken. In 1805 he received the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor, and about the same time received the command of ten battalions of the reserve, afterwards known as the "grenadiers Oudinot." At the head of this corps, he did good service in the Austrian campaign. He was present at Austerlitz and Jena, and gained the battle of Ostrolina (16th February 1807, for which he was rewarded with the title of Count, and a large sum of money. He greatly contributed to the success of the French at Friedland, and was presented by Napoleon to the Czar Alexander as the "Bayard of the French army, the knight *sans peur et sans reproche*." He sustained his now brilliant reputation in the second Austrian campaign of 1809, and on the 12th of July was created Marshal of France, and on 15th of August, Duke of Reggio. In 1810, he was charged with the occupation of Holland, and by his unswerving probity and attractive personal qualities, drew the esteem of all classes. He was engaged in the disastrous Russian campaign, and subsequently took part in the various battles of 1813 between the French and the Russians and Austrians. He was one of the last to abandon Napoleon, but he did so for ever, and spent the period known as the "Hundred Days" on his own estates. At the second restoration he became a minister of state, commander-in-chief of the royal guard and of the national guard, and was created a peer of France, Grand Cross of St Louis, &c. In 1823, he commanded the first division of the army of Spain, and was for some time governor of Madrid. After the revolution of July 1830, O. retired to his estates, and only at rare intervals presented himself in the Chamber of Peers. He became Grand Chancellor of the Legion of Honor in May 1839, succeeded Marshal Moncey as governor of the Invalides in October 1842, and died at Paris 13th September 1847. A statue was erected in his honor at Bar, 29th September 1850.—His son, CHARLES NICOLAS-VICTOR OUDINOT, Duke of Reggio (born 3d November 1791), was a general in the French army. He first distinguished himself in Algeria, and in the Revolution of 1848—having previously distinguished himself as a deputy (1842–1846) by his admirable talent for dealing with questions affecting the comfort and discipline of the soldiery—he was chosen commander-in-chief of the army of the Alps. In April 1849, he was appointed general of the French expedition against Rome, and forced the city to surrender unconditionally on the 1st of July, in spite of the heroic resistance of the republican triumvirs—Garibaldi, Mazzini, and Saffi. He was, however, not a Napoleonist, and at the *coup d'état*, 2d December 1851, shared the fate of every eminent general who would not violate his oath to obey the constitution—i. e., he was arrested and imprisoned. He was soon set at liberty, and lived in retirement until his death in 1863. O. wrote several books of military matters.

OUGREE, a town of Belgium, in the province of Liège, three miles south-south-west from Liège, on the right bank of the Meuse. It has iron-works, a cannon-foundry, and oil and flour mills. The neighborhood produces coal. Pop. (1870) 6200.

OUISTITI. See MARMOSET.

OUNCE. The Latin *uncia* (derived by Varro from *unus*) was the name of the twelfth part of the *as* or *libra* (pound), and also was applied to the twelfth part of any magnitude, whether of length, surface, or capacity. Hence *inch*, the twelfth part of a foot. The modern ounce is a division of the pound-weight. See POUND.

OUNCE (*Felis Uncia*, or *Leopardus Uncia*), a large feline animal, nearly resembling the leopard, but having much rougher and longer hair, a longer and much more bushy tail; the general color is also paler, the rosette-like spots are less sharply defined, and there is a black spot behind the ears. Little is known of the O.; it is described by Buffon, but naturalists were for some time generally inclined to regard it as identical with the leopard, and its name has been transferred to South America to the Jaguar. It is a native of Asia, and probably of mountainous districts.

OU'RARI. See CURARI.

OU'RO PRE'TO (black gold), a city of Brazil, capital of the province of Minas Geraes, stands among barren mountains, 4000 feet above sea-level, and 200 miles north-north-west of Rio Janeiro. It contains the governor's residence and a college, and consists mainly of narrow and irregular streets. Although the neighboring mountains are very auriferous, and although the mines were once the richest in the kingdom, the mining is now reduced to comparatively unprofitable washings. A good trade in coffee, &c., is carried on with Rio Janeiro, but is retarded by the want of good roads. The journey from O. P. to the capital of the empire is performed by horses and mules only, and ordinarily requires 15 days. Pop. about 4000.

OUSE, called also for the sake of distinction, the NORTHERN or YORKSHIRE OUSE, a river of England, is formed by the union of the Swale and the Ure in the immediate vicinity of the village of Boroughbridge, and flows south-east past York, Selby, and Goole. About eight miles below the last town, it joins the Trent, and forms the estuary of the Humber. The length of its course from Boroughbridge is 60 miles, for the last 45 of which (from the city of York) it is navigable for large vessels. Its principal affluents are the Wharfe and the Aire from the west, and the Derwent from the north-east. The basin of the O., or the Vale of York, commences from the northern boundary of the county near the river Tees, from whose basin it is separated by a low ridge of hills, and extends southward, including almost the whole of the county. See YORKSHIRE.

OUSE, Great, a river of England, rises close to the town of Brackley, in the south of Northamptonshire, and flows north-east through the counties of Buckingham, Bedford, Huntingdon, Cambridge, and Norfolk, and falls into the Wash  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles below King's Lynn. It is 160 miles in entire length, and is navigable for about 50 miles. It receives from the east and south the Ivel, Cam, Lark, and Little Ouse.

OUTCROP, a term applied in Geology to the edge of an inclined bed at the place where it rises to the surface. The line of the outcrop is called the strike, which is always at right angles to the dip.

OUTER HOUSE. See COURT OF SESSION.

OUTFIT ALLOWANCE, in the British Army, is a sum of £150 for the cavalry, and £100 for the infantry, granted to non-commissioned officers promoted to commissions, to enable them to meet the heavy charges for uniform and equipments. The larger sum is given in the cavalry, because the newly-commissioned officer has to purchase his charger.

OUTLAWRY, in English Law, means putting one out of the protection of the law, for contempt in wilfully avoiding execution of legal process. Formerly, in the common law courts, if the defendant would not enter an appearance, certain proceedings were taken to outlaw him, so as to allow the action to go on without his appearance. These proceedings, however, are now abolished, and, in the majority of cases, it is immaterial as regards the action whether the defendant appear or not, provided he was properly served with the original writ of summonses. After judgment, he may still be outlawed, as a preliminary to seizing and selling his property. In criminal proceedings, outlawry still exists as part of the ordinary practice to compel a person against whom a bill of indictment for felony or misdemeanor has been found, but who will not come forward to take his trial, and who has not been arrested. In such

a case, process of outlawry against him is awarded, which is a kind of temporary judgment; and while this process exists, he is out of the protection of the law, and forfeits all his property. The courts will not listen to any complaint or attend to his suit till he reverse the outlawry, which is generally done as a matter of course.—In Scotland, outlawry or fugitation is a similar process, and the defendant must first be reponed against the sentence of outlawry before his trial can take place.

OUTPOSTS are bodies, commonly small, of troops stationed at a greater or less distance beyond the limits of a camp or main army, for the purpose of preventing an enemy approaching without notice, and also to offer opposition to his progress, while the main force prepares for resistance. Outguards march off to their position silently, and pay no compliments of any kind to officers or others. As soon as the officer commanding an outpost arrives on his ground, he proceeds to carefully examine the environs, noting all heights within rifle-range, roads and paths by which an enemy may approach, &c. He also takes such impromptu means of strengthening his position as occur to him—felling a tree here, cutting brushwood there, blocking a path in another place, and resorting to any expedient which may serve to delay the foe at point-blank range—an object of importance, as a stoppage at such a point is known to act as a great discouragement to advancing troops.

OUTRAM, Sir James, Lieutenant-general, G.C.B., Indian soldier and statesman, was born 1803, at Butterley Hall, Derbyshire, the residence of his father, Mr Benjamin Outram, a civil-engineer of note. His mother, the daughter of James Anderson of Monzie, Aberdeenshire, was descended from Sir W. Seton, Lord Pitmedden. O. was educated at Udney, Aberdeenshire, under the Rev. Dr Bisset, and afterwards went to Marischal College, Aberdeen. He was sent to India as a cadet in 1819, and was made lieutenant and adjutant of the 23d Bombay Native Infantry. He then took command of and disciplined the wild Bheels of Candesh, and successfully led them against the Dangi tribes. From 1835 to 1838, he was engaged in re-establishing order in the Mahratta. He went with the invading army under Lord Keane into Afghanistan as aide-d-camp; and his ride from Khelet, through the dangers of the Bolan Pass, will long be famous in Indian annals. He became political agent at Guzerat, and commissioner in Sind, where he made a bold and earnest defence of the Amirs against the aggressive policy of General Sir Charles James Napier. He was afterwards resident at Sattara and Baroda, and upon the annexation of Oude, was made resident and commissioner by Lord Dalhousie. His health failing, he returned to England in 1858; but when the war with Persia broke out, and it became necessary to send an expedition to the Persian Gulf, O. accompanied the forces, with diplomatic powers as commissioner. He conducted several brilliant and successful operations; the campaign was short and decisive; and the objects of the expedition having been triumphantly attained, he returned to India. Landing at Bombay in July 1857, he went to Calcutta to receive Lord Canning's instructions, and was commissioned to take charge of the forces advancing to the relief of Lucknow. He chivalrously waived the command in favor of his old lieutenant, Havelock (q. v.), who had fought eight victorious battles with the rebels, and, taking up only his civil appointment, as chief-commissioner of Oude, tendered his military services to Havelock as a volunteer. Lucknow was relieved, and O. took the command, but only to be in turn besieged. He held the Alumbagh against almost overwhelming forces, until Lord Clyde advanced to his relief. He then made a skilful movement up the left bank of the Gomti, which led to a final and complete victory over the insurgents. He was made chief-commissioner of Oude; and though he had strongly opposed its annexation, he was the man who did most to restore British rule, and attach the people to it. For his eminent services, he was promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general in 1858, and received the thanks of parliament in 1860. He took his seat as a member of the Supreme Council of India, but sank under the climate, and returned to England in 1860, already stricken by the hand of death. The communities of India voted him a statue at Calcutta, founded an institution to his honor, and presented him with commemorative gifts. A banquet was given to him and his chief and companion-in-arms, Lord Clyde, by the city of London. His English admirers determined to erect a statue to his honor in London, and gave him a valuable dessert-service in silver. He spent the winter of 1861—1862 in Egypt; and after a short residence in the south of France, expired at Paris, March 11, 1868. O. was styled by Sir Charles Napier the "Bayard of India." Than him, there is no more gallant name.

in the whole list of distinguished Indian soldiers. His services in the East as a soldier and a diplomatist extended over the period of forty years. He was ever the generous protector of the dark-skinned races among whom his lot was thrown, and set a bright example to all future administrators of moderation, conciliation, humanity, and practical Christianity in all his dealings with the natives of India.

OU'TRIGGER, in its proper sense, is a beam or spar fastened horizontally to the cross-trees or otherwise, for the purpose of extending further from the mast or top-mast the backstay or other rope by which that mast or topmast is supported. The power of the stay is thus increased. The term is also used improperly—because no "rigging" is in question—to denote the apparatus for increasing the leverage of an oar, by removing the resistance, as represented by the side of the boat (see OAR), further from the power represented by the rower's hand. This is effected by fixing an iron bracket to the boat's side, the row-lock being at the bracket's extremity. The necessary leverage is thus obtained without adding to the width of the boat itself.

OUTWORKS, in Fortification, are minor defences constructed beyond the main body of a work, for the purpose of keeping the enemy at a distance, or commanding certain salient points which it is undesirable that he should occupy. Such works are ravelins, lunettes, hornworks, crown-works, demi-lunes, tenailles, &c. They occur in certain necessary order, as a ravelin before the curtain and tenaille, a hornwork before a ravelin, and so on.

OUZEL, or Ousel (Old Fr. *oiseau*, bird), an old name of the black-bird, as is evident from the descriptive lines of Bottom's song in "Midsummer Night's Dream : "

"The ouzel cock, so black of hue,  
With orange tawny bill."

It is also applied to other birds, chiefly of the thrush family. Thus, one British thrush is called the Ring Ouzel. The Dipper (q. v.) is very generally known as the Water Ouzel; and the Rose-colored Pastor is also called the Rose-colored Ouzel.

OVAL, the name given to the figure presented by a longitudinal section of an egg through its centre. The oval has a general resemblance to the ellipse; unlike the latter, however, it is not symmetrical, but is thicker at one end than the other, and at the thin end, narrows almost to a point. The term "oval" is also used indiscriminately with "nodus," "loop," to denote the figure formed by a curve which either returns upon itself, as the lemniscata, &c., or the loops of the cubical and semi-cubical parabolas and other curves. In scientific language it is specially distinguished from the term "elliptical," with which, in common parlance, it is usually confounded.

OVAMPOS AND OVAMPOLAND. The Ovampos or Otjiherero are a tribe, seemingly a connecting link between the Kaffir and Negro races, who inhabit the region north of Great Namaqualand, in South Africa, extending north to the Cuanene River, and south to the parallel of 23° S. lat. The Ovambo tribes are described by Anderson as of a very dark complexion, tall and robust, but remarkably ugly. He found them, however, honest, industrious, and hospitable. They are not entirely pastoral, but cultivate much corn. Living in the same country are the Cattle Damaras, with still more of the Negro type, a stout, athletic people, very dirty in their habits, and generally armed with the bow and arrow. They live in a state of constant warfare with the Ghondabuap, or Hill Damaras, a nearly pure Negro race, on the one hand, and the Namaqua Hottentots, who live south of them, on the other.

Ovampoland is a more fertile region than Namaqualand, from which it is separated by a wide belt of densely-bushed country. It has but few rivers, and these not of a perennial nature. About 50 miles from the coast, the country rises to a table-land about 6000 feet above the sea-level, and then declines to the south and east into the deserts of the Kalibari, and the region of Lake Ngami. Many strong indications of copper-ore are found in various places. The principal rivers, or rather water courses, are the Swakop, Kusip, and their branches, which enter the Atlantic a few miles north of Walvis Bay. The other rivers in the interior seem to lose themselves in the sand. The climate is healthy, except near the coast, where fever in some seasons prevails. It seldom rains in the coast region, which is a very deso-

late one, and almost devoid of water. Thunder-storms are very violent in the summer season. All the large mammalia are found, more or less plentiful, according as water may be found at the different drinking-places. Elephants, rhinoceroses, elands, and other large animals driven from the south by the march of civilisation take refuge in the desert region lying east of Ovampoland, where sportsmen like Green and Andersson have been known to kill as many as twelve elephants in a day. The country was first described by Sir J. Alexander, who visited its south border. Mr Galt soon afterwards penetrated much further north; and Mr C. J. Andersson has since fully explored it nearly as far north as the Chuanene. Large numbers of horned cattle are annually collected by traders from the Cape in these regions, and whales abound on the coast. The trade in ostrich-feathers and ivory is of increasing importance, and several trading-stations are established for the collection of native products. Some elementary works have been printed in the Otjherero dialect by the German missionaries; two appear in Sir G. Grey's catalogue.

OVAR, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, 17 miles north from Aveiro, at the mouth of the small river Ovar, and at the head of one of the branches of the curious lagoon or bay called Itia d'Avacho. See AVEIRO. It is a prosperous and rapidly increasing town, and carries on an extensive fishery and a considerable trade. Pop. (1864) 10,374.

OVARIES are organs peculiar to the female, and are analogous to the testes in the male. They are two oblong flattened bodies (about an inch and a half in length, three-quarters of an inch in width, and nearly half an inch thick in the human subject), situated on either side of the uterus, to which they are connected by ligaments and by the Fallopian tube. On making sections of an ovary, numerous vesicles are seen. These are the ovisacs of the future ova or germs, and are termed the Graafian vesicles. Before impregnation, they vary in number from ten to twenty, and from the size of a pin's head to that of a pea; but microscopic examination reveals the presence of young vesicles in large numbers. At each monthly period a ripe Graafian vesicle bursts, and the ovum contained in it makes its way by ciliary motion along the Fallopian tube to the uterus, where, if it is not impregnated, it is disintegrated and absorbed.

Solid tumors or cysts, containing hair and teeth, are developed in these organs, but their principal disease is that to which the name of *Ovarian Tumor* is applied. This tumor may be described as consisting of an enormous enlargement of one or more of the Graafian vesicles into a mass which may weigh 80 or 100 pounds, or even more; and it may be either simple (that is to say, composed of natural structures much hypertrophied) or cancerous. The walls of the cysts (or enlarged Graafian vesicles) may be thin and flexible, or thick and cartilaginous; and the fluid they contain may be clear and limpid, or thick andropy, or granulous and opaque. The only disease with which it can be confounded is ordinary abdominal drop-y, or *Ascites*, and when its nature is clearly determined, three modes of treatment are open for adoption: these are (1) tapping, (2) various surgical and medical means of producing atrophy of the tumor, and (3) extirpation of the organ, or ovariectomy.

1. Tapping is the simplest mode of relieving the patient; but the cyst soon refills, and the operation must be often repeated. "Cases are extant in one of which the patient lived to be tapped 66 times at intervals of about a month, and in another, 128 times at intervals of six weeks; but, taken as a general rule, it may be affirmed that few patients survive more than four years after the first tapping, a period passed in the greatest misery and suffering."—Druet's "*Surgeon's Vade-mecum*," p. 498.

2. Under this head are included both numerous operations for causing the tumor to waste, and its internal walls to adhere, and the internal administration of absorbent medicines, with the view of producing atrophy and absorption of the tumor. The injection of tincture of Iodine into the previously emptied cyst, is sometimes followed with good results, as in the case of Hydrocele (q. v.).

3. Ovariectomy, or total extirpation of the morbid mass, is an operation regarding which there has of late years been much discussion. Its opponents urge (1) the difficulty of diagnosis; (2) the frequency of adhesion of the tumor to adjacent parts—a point which can often not be ascertained till the abdomen has been opened; and (3) the great mortality that follows it; while in favor of the operation it is urged (1)

that the mortality is not greater than from some other surgical operations which are regarded as justifiable; (2) that no other plan of treatment can effect a radical cure; (3) that if the surgeon, in order to complete his diagnosis, first makes a small incision, to enable him to ascertain the existence of adhesions, and closes it again with suture, if he finds this to be the case, no great harm is likely to result; and (4) that considering the miserable lives these patients lead during a course of tapping, &c., it is the most merciful course to adopt in patients who are young and otherwise healthy. For a description of the mode of performing the operation, and of the cautions to be observed, we may refer to a series of papers on Ovariotomy by Mr Spencer Wells in "The Medical Times and Gazette" for 1858 and 1859.

OVARY, in Botany. See GERMEN.

OVA'TION. See TRIUMPH.

OVEN, Field or Barrack, is a necessary apparatus in military economy to preserve the health of troops, by enabling them, at a comparatively small expenditure of fuel, to cook many rations together. In the British army, little attention was paid to such subjects, until, in 1853, the inquiries of Mr Sidney Herbert (afterwards Lord Herbert) brought to light the excessive mortality among soldiers, which was partly—and, as the event has shewn, justly—attributed to the bad cookery of their food. Captain Grant has bestowed much attention to army cookery, and has invented ovens for barrack use and for the field. While great improvements on the system—or want of system—which preceded them, these ovens are still admitted to be far from perfect in their arrangements.

For baking meat, &c., in the field, detached cylinders are employed, which, when empty, join and floor over for use as pontoons; when in use they are united crosswise, one in the middle, serving for a chimney. One or more empty barrels can be attached for steaming potatoes, and the roasting of coffee is performed, though not altogether successfully, in another cylinder made to revolve over the chimney. Up to the present time, other systems have been partially resorted to; but none has as yet been definitively adopted to the exclusion of others.

OVEN-BIRD (*Furnarius*), a genus of birds of the family *Certhiadæ* (q. v.), natives of the southern parts of South America, interesting on account of the remarkable nests which they construct. They are small birds, with short wings and feeble power of flight. One species, *F. albogularis*, or *F. rufus*, is found near Buenos Ayres; another, *F. fuliginosus*, inhabits the Malouine Islands. It is a fearless little bird, regarding the presence of man so little that it may be easily struck down with a switch. Both sexes take part in the construction of the nest, which is generally in an exposed situation, remarkably large, and of the shape of a dome, with a small entrance on one side, so as to have much resemblance to a rude oven. It is made of clay, grass, &c., well plastered together, and becomes quite firm as the clay dries in the sun. Internally, it is divided into two chambers by a partition reaching nearly to the roof, the eggs being placed in the inner chamber on a bed of soft grass and feathers. The outer chamber seems to be intended for the male.

OVERDA'Rwen is a very flourishing town of Lancashire, situated amid moorland hills,  $3\frac{1}{2}$  miles south of Blackburn, and  $19\frac{1}{2}$  miles north-west of Manchester, with which towns it is connected by the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway. It has risen into wealth principally by a trade with India and China in calicoes. At present, there are about 250,000 spindles and 15,000 looms, contained in upwards of 40 mills and manufactories, at work in it. The "India Mill," erected to contain 100,000 spindles, is in every respect one of the finest in the country. It is a first-class stone building in the Italian style, with engine-house, chimney, &c., highly ornamented, is 100 feet high, and covers an area of 81.00 square feet. The town also contains the most extensive paper-staining works in England, 5 paper manufactories, 1 calico-printing establishment, as well as works for the manufacture of fire-bricks, tiles, and sanitary tubes, iron and brass founding, bleaching, machine and reed making. Coal-mines and stone quarries also find employment for a considerable number of the inhabitants. The places of worship are—4 churches, 3 Independent chapels; a Baptist, Wesleyan, Primitive, Methodist Free Church, and Roman Catholic chapel. There are large and commodious schools for elementary education. The town possesses a covered market, public baths, and a valuable free library. The central stores

of the Industrial Co-operative Society, erected in 1867, at a cost of £10,000, contain a public hall to accommodate 1500 people. This society numbers 21,000 members, has 6 branches with £50,000 capital, and maintains a library of 2500 volumes, science classes, and well supplied news-rooms, free to members and their families. Pop. (1851) 11,702; (1861) 16,492; (1871) 21,278; and at the close of 1878, the estimate, on good authority, is given at 25,000.

**OVERBECK**, Friedrich, born at Lübeck, July 8, 1789, a distinguished painter, to whom is justly awarded a large share of the merit of the movement in the early part of this century, from which arose the modern German school of art. He commenced his studies as an artist at Vienna in 1806; but having adopted, and continued to persist in carrying out certain notions on art, and the mode of studying it, essentially different from those inculcated in the academy, he was expelled along with certain other students who entertained the same views, and in 1809 set out for Rome. Here he was soon afterwards joined by Cornelius and Schadow; and these three, animated with similar ideas, and mutually encouraging one another, laid the foundation of a school that now holds a high rank, and has in no small degree influenced the taste for art in Europe at the present time. A picture of the Madonna, which O. painted at Rome in 1811, brought him into marked notice. He was next employed along with Cornelius and others, by the Prussian consul, General Bartoldi, to execute certain frescoes illustrating the history of Joseph, the "Selling of Joseph" and the "Seven lean Years" being the subjects assigned to him. After completing these, he painted in fresco, in the villa of the Marchese Massimi, five large compositions from Tasso's "Jerusalem Delivered." In 1814, along with some of his artistic brethren, he abjured Lutheranism, and embraced the Roman Catholic religion. O.'s chief work is a fresco at Assisi, "The Miracle of Roses of St. Francis." His oil pictures are inferior to his frescoes, being dry and weak in color. His great picture, "The Influence of Religion on Art," preserved in the Stadel Institute at Frankfurt, and well known from the engraving, is an admirable composition, and is indeed the most favorable specimen of his powers as a painter in oil colors. He executed a great many drawings remarkable for high feeling, most of which have been engraved. One of his last undertakings, a series of designs from the Evangelists, delicately engraved in the line manner, is a work of high excellence. O. adhered closely to those ideas of art which he started with—namely, entire devotion to the style of the Italian artists prior to the period of the renaissance, particularly Fra Angelico (b. 1387—d. 1455), and a strong impression that form or drawing in the style of Greek or classic art is inadmissible in works embodying religious subjects; although many of his compatriots—Cornelius, for instance—have modified, or perhaps enlarged these ideas, and study the works of Michael Angelo and those of Raffael's later style executed under the influence of classic art. O. resided in Rome from the time he went there as a student. He died November 1869.

**OVERBURY**, Sir Thomas, an English author and courtier, whose mysterious death has given a peculiar interest to his history, was the son of Nicholas Overbury, a Gloucestershire squire, and was born at Compton Scoken, Warwickshire, the residence of his maternal grandfather in 1581. At the age of fourteen he entered Queen's College, Oxford, where he highly distinguished himself in logic and philosophy, and where he took the degree of B.A. in 1594. He then joined the Middle Temple, but soon after set out for the continent, from which he returned with the reputation of being a finished gentleman. While on a visit to Scotland in 1601, he met for the first time with his future murderer, Robert Carr (properly Ker), then a page in the service of the Earl of Dunbar. An intimacy unfortunately sprung up between the two, and Carr—a handsome ignoramus, sensual and unprincipled—followed his scholarly friend to London. On the accession of James to the English throne (1603), Carr rose rapidly into royal favor, and was created Viscount Rochester. Through his influence, O. was knighted in 1608, and his father appointed a judge for Wales. In return, O. gave his patron the benefit of his wit and judgment, both of which were singularly excellent; and, according to Hume, it was owing to O. that Carr enjoyed for a time the highest favor of the prince without being hated by the people. The circumstances that led to the rupture of their intimacy, and turned the earl into O.'s secret and relentless enemy, form one of the most flagrant scandals in the history of the English court. A brief outline of these circumstances is all that can be given here.

At the age of thirteen, Frances Howard, daughter of the Earl of Suffolk, was married (1606) to the Earl of Essex, himself only a year older. On account of their youth, it was reckoned advisable by their friends that they should not live together for some time. The boy-husband went away on his travels, and the wedded girl to her mother. After the lapse of nearly five years, Essex came home, and found his wife, now a splendid beauty of eighteen, the idol of all the court gallants. But there was not a touch of virtue or goodness in her whole soul. She had the disposition of a Messalina (q. v.) or a Brinvilliers (q. v.). For her husband she shewed the greatest aversion, and only consented to live in his house at the command of the king. It was well known that she had had intrigues with more than one lover, but in particular with Rochester, for whom she now cherished a fierce passion. O. had been instrumental in bringing about their guilty intercourse, and was now to reap the reward due to a pander. Rochester having told him that he purposed to get Lady Essex divorced from her husband, and then to marry her, O. strongly deprecated the idea, and declared that it would be disgraceful to form a union with so depraved a creature—she might do for a mistress, but not for a wife! The earl told Lady Essex what O. had said of her; she became furious for revenge, and offered Sir David Wood (between whom and O. there was a standing quarrel) £1000 to assassinate him, which that canny Scot declined to do. Rochester himself was now persuaded by his mistress to join privately in a plot against O., who on a most trivial and illegal pretext was thrown into the Tower, April 21, 1618. It was some time before he could bring himself to believe that his friend and patron was the cause of his imprisonment; but when he had assured himself of Rochester's treachery, he threatened to divulge certain secrets in his possession, whereupon it was determined by the earl and his mistress that he should be poisoned. This, after several trials, was successfully accomplished, and O. expired on the 18th of September. Rochester (now created Earl of Somerset), and his paramour were married on the 26th of December with great pomp, the brazen-faced beauty wearing her hair "as a virgin," and the whole affair was soon to appearance forgotten; but after George Villiers had supplanted the earl in the royal favor, an inquiry was instituted; Somerset and his wife were tried and found guilty of poisoning, but were, by an amazing and infamous stretch of the royal prerogative, pardoned. The motive for James's extraordinary clemency has never been ascertained; but the prevailing opinion is, that it was to prevent the disclosure of some discreditable, if not criminal, incidents in the private life of that monarch.

O. wrote several works, all of which were posthumously published. The principal are, "The Wif." (1614), a didactic poem; "Characters" (1614), the wit, ingenuity, precision, and force of which have long been admitted; "Cruinns Fallen from King James's Table" (1715). The latest edition of O.'s works is that by E. F. Rimbault with Life (1856).

OVERLAND ROUTE to India, the route generally chosen by those to whom time is a more important consideration than expense. The management of the route is in the hands of the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company, who present the traveller with a choice of lines of route to Alexandria in Egypt. He may sail from Southampton *via* Gibraltar and Malta, reaching Alexandria in 18 days, a very convenient route for those who have much luggage, as no shifting is required till Alexandria is reached; or he may travel overland by railway and steamer to either of the ports of Marseille or Trieste. The shortest route from London to the former is *via* Dover, Calais, and Paris, Alexandria being reached in 11 days (including the necessary stoppages at different points on the route); and to the latter, *via* Dover, Calais, Paris, Turin, and Venice. The shortest route to India at present, after reaching Paris, is *via* Lyon, the Mont Cenis Tunnel, Modena, to Brindisi; from that Adriatic port by steamer to Port Said, thence through the Suez Canal and the Red Sea to Bombay, &c. Passengers may still be conveyed from Alexandria by rail to Suez, where they again embark on board the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers, and are conveyed to Bombay, Madras, &c. The time occupied in travelling from Alexandria to Bombay is 18 days, to Madras 24 days, and to Calcutta 29 days. Thus a traveller can reach Calcutta from London in 40 days; at an expense, however, of more than £100. The long sea-route round by the Cape of Good Hope cannot be accomplished by steamer in less than 94 days, and by sailing vessels it takes more than four months, but the cost is much less.

**O'VERSEERS** are officers appointed annually in all the parishes in England and Wales, whose primary duty it is to rate the inhabitants to the poor-rate, collect the same, and apply it towards giving relief to the poor. These officers occupy an important position in all English parishes. They were first ordered to be appointed in each parish by the statute of 43 Eliz. c. 2, the leading Poor-law Act, which directed four, three, or two substantial householders in the parish to be nominated yearly, and a later statute fixed the time of nomination to be 25th March, or a fortnight thereafter. The courts have held that not more than four, nor less than two, can be appointed, the object being, probably, that so much responsibility should not be thrown on any one individual. Though it is usual for the vestry of the parish to nominate two persons to be overseers, still those who really appoint them are the justices of the peace, who are not bound to regard the wishes of the vestry in this respect. It is only householders in the parish who are qualified for the office, and though it is not necessary that they should actually reside in the parish, still they must occupy or rent a house there. Several classes of persons are exempt from serving the office, such as peers, members of parliament, clergymen, dissenting ministers, barristers, attorneys, doctors, officers of the army and navy, &c. But all who are not specially exempted by some statute are liable to serve the office, and even women may be appointed, though they scarcely ever are so in practice. The office is compulsory, and entirely gratuitous; and so necessary is it that some one shall fill the office, that it is an indictable misdemeanor to refuse, without cause, to serve when duly appointed. Though overseers are the proper managers of the poor for each parish, yet some parishes, especially in large overgrown towns, have been regulated by local acts, and guardians of the poor provided; and other parishes are under what is called a select vestry. In such cases, the overseers, though still appointed, are only allowed to give relief to paupers in certain urgent and exceptional cases, the ordinary regulation of poor-law affairs being confined to the guardians or the select vestry. The primary duty of the overseers consists in making, collecting, and applying the poor-rate for the relief of the poor of the parish, but, as will be seen, advantage has been taken by the legislature of the existence of these officers always representing the parish, to throw upon them various miscellaneous duties which are not directly connected with poor-law affairs.

1. Of the duties connected with the management of the poor. The overseers along with the churchwardens are to make a rate once or twice a year; i. e., a list of all the occupiers of lands and houses in the parish, specifying their names and the property occupied by each, and the ratable value and amount due by each. The next thing to be done is to go before two justices of the peace, and get the rate allowed—i. e., signed by them—and then it is published on the church-door on the following Sunday. The overseers must collect the rate also; but in all large parishes there is a collector of poor-rates who is specially appointed and paid for the purpose of collecting it. If a party refuses to pay the rate, the overseers must take proceedings before justices to compel payment, which is done by distraining the goods of the party, or, if there are no sufficient goods, by getting a warrant to imprison him. The party may, however, appeal against the rate to the Court of Quarter Sessions. When the money is collected, the overseers have to apply it towards the relief of the poor, and many other purposes of a kindred nature. Relief must be given to all the poor in the parish who are in destitute state; but it is the duty of the overseers, when the pauper has not a settlement in the parish, to obtain an order of removal, i. e., to get an order of justices, under which the pauper is taken by force, and sent to the parish where he has a settlement. See **REMOVAL OF THE POOR**. Relief is given, in general, only in the workhouse, and according to certain rules and conditions. Where the parish is included in a poor-law union, as is now generally the case, then the duty of overseers in giving relief is entirely confined to certain urgent cases; for the guardians of the union administer the ordinary business of the workhouse, and of relief generally. Another duty incident to overseers of a parish in a union is the duty of making out valuation lists—i. e., a new valuation of the property in the parish—which list is ordered by the guardians with a view to produce some uniformity in assessing the burdens on the various occupiers. Formerly, the mode of valuing property for the purposes of the poor-rate was not subject to any uniform rule, and in some parishes the valuers made a larger deduction from the actual value than in others; but in 1862, a statute passed, called the Union Assessment Act, the

object of which was to enable new valuations to be made on a uniform plan, till the occupiers in all the parishes are treated alike. At the end of the year of office, the accounts of the overseers of parishes in unions are audited by a poor-law auditor, who is a paid officer, and who examines the vouchers, and sees that no illegal payments have been made.

2. The miscellaneous duties now imposed by statute on overseers, over and above their original duty of relieving the poor, are numerous. The most prominent, perhaps, is that of making out the list of voters for members of parliament. This duty is done in obedience to certain precepts issued by the clerk of the peace each year, who gives the overseers full instructions how to make out the lists, and what claims and objections to receive, and how to deal with them. The overseers must also attend the court of the revising barrister, when he revises the lists, and disposes of legal objections. Another duty of the overseers is to make out the list of persons in the parish qualified to serve as jurors. So they must make out the burgess lists when the parish is situated within a borough. They must also make out the list of persons qualified to serve as parish constables. They are also bound to appoint persons to enforce the Vaccination Acts; they must give notice to justices of all lunatics within the parish, and pauper lunatics are removed to the county asylum. They must also collect and enforce payment of the rates levied to pay the expenses of school-boards. The overseers must also perform certain duties as to the election of guardians for the union. They must also bury the dead bodies of persons cast on shore, and of all paupers who die in the parish. They also are the proper parties to protect village greens from nuisances; and in general, where there is no local Board of Health, the overseers are the parties bound to act in carrying out the Nuisances Removal Acts (see *NUISANCE*) within the parish, which of itself is an onerous duty. In general, whenever overseers are bound to do miscellaneous duties of this kind, they are authorised to pay the necessary expenses and disbursements out of the poor-rate; but, as already stated, their services are gratuitous. The duties which in England are performed by overseers, devolve, in Scotland, upon the parochial board, the sheriff-clerk of the county, session-clerk, and others.

**OVERSEER, Assistant.** An assistant overseer is a paid officer, whose services have generally been found necessary in the larger parishes, in order to relieve the annual overseers of their burdensome office to some extent. Accordingly, the rate-payers, in vestry assembled, appoint a person as assistant overseer with a salary, who performs most of the same duties as the overseers. In many cases, however, a collector of poor-rates has been appointed, who is also paid by salary, and in such a case he discharges like duties. Both the assistant overseer and the collector of poor-rates are bound to find security for the faithful discharge of their duties, and for duly accounting for moneys in their hands.

**OVERSTONE,** Samuel Jones Loyd, Lord, one of the most skilful political economists, and the ablest writer on banking and financial subjects that this country has produced. He was born in 1796, being the only son of Mr Lewis Loyd, descended from a respectable Welsh family, and a leading partner in the eminent banking house of Jones, Loyd, and Co. of London and Manchester. Having gone through a regular course of instruction at Eton, young Loyd was sent to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he had Dr Blomfield, late Bishop of London, for tutor, and where he acquired a very extensive acquaintance with classical literature, and with the history and literature of his own country and of Europe generally. On leaving Cambridge, Loyd entered the banking-house as a partner along with his father, and on the retirement of the latter, he became its head. He distinguished himself highly in his capacity of banker. He had a profound knowledge of the principles of banking, and these he applied on all occasions in conducting the business in which he was engaged. Far-sighted and sagacious, he was seldom deceived by appearances or pretensions, however specious. Perhaps, if anything, he was too cautious; but he was neither timid nor irresolute. He was eminently successful in the employment of the very large deposits at his command, and while he eschewed hazardous transactions, he did not shrink from engaging in very extensive operations when he believed they could be undertaken with a due regard to that safety which should always be the first consideration in the estimation of a banker.

Loyd entered parliament in 1819 as member for Hythe, which he continued to represent till 1826. He made several good speeches in the House; and was one of a

small minority that voted for the proposal to make bankers issuing notes give security for their payment. Though opposed to all changes of a dangerous or revolutionary character, Loyd has been always a consistent liberal. Having either withdrawn, or being on the eve of withdrawing from business, Loyd was raised to the peerage in 1850, by the title of Baron Overstone and Fotheringhay, county Northampton; and if great wealth, consummate intelligence in regard to matters of great public importance, and the highest degree of integrity and independence, be qualifications for a seat in the Lords, few peers have had a better title to be enrolled in that august assembly.

The first of Lord O.'s famous tracts on the management of the Bank of England, and the state of the currency was published in 1857, and was followed by others between that period and 1857. The proposal for making a complete separation between the banking and issue departments of the Bank of England, introduced by Sir Robert Peel into the act of 1844, was first brought forward in these tracts, and its adoption has been the greatest improvement hitherto effected in our banking system. Having been collected, these tracts were published in 1857 with extracts from evidence given by Lord O. before committees of the Lords and Commons. And it would not be easy to exaggerate the value of this volume. Lord O. has also reprinted, at his own expense, four volumes of scarce and valuable tracts on metallic and paper money, commerce, the funding system, &c., which he has extensively distributed.

An inquiry took place before a committee of the House of Commons in 1857 into the practical working of the act of 1844, and Lord O. was the principal witness who came forward in defence of the act; but several leading members of the committee being hostile to it, exerted themselves to overthrow his lordship's theories and opinions, and subjected him to a severe cross-examination; which gave Lord O. the opportunity of successfully vindicating the principles and practical working of the act. This evidence was published in a separate volume in 1857.

Lord O. does not often speak in the House of Lords. His speech on the commercial treaty with France is probably the best of his parliamentary appearances. He has also been a zealous opponent of the principle of limited liability. He was a leading member of the commission appointed to inquire into the proposal for the introduction of a decimal system of arithmetic, and powerfully advocated the opinion that it would be injurious rather than beneficial.

All who have the privilege of knowing Lord O. regard him as one of the most honorable, high-minded, and upright men in the empire. But his rigid adherence to principle in his writings, his dealing, and his conversation, and his undisguised contempt for twaddle and pretension of all sorts, have made him be generally looked upon as austere and without sympathy. Such, however, is not the fact. When proper cases for the display of sympathetic and generous feelings are brought before him, none evince them more strongly. We may add that his conversational talents are of the highest order.

O'VERTURE (from Fr. *ouverture*, opening), a musical composition for a full instrumental band, introductory to an opera, oratorio, cantata, or ballet. It originated in France, and received its settled form at the hands of Lulli. Being of the nature of a prologue, it ought to be in keeping with the piece which it ushers in, so as to prepare the audience for the sort of emotions which the author wishes to excite. Such is to a great extent the character of the beautiful overtures by Mozart to "Zauberflöte" and "Don Giovanni," by Weber to "Freischütz," and by Mendelssohn to his "Midsummer Night's Dream," which are enriched by snatches of the more prominent airs in these operas. In the end of last century, overtures were written by Haydn, Pleyel, and other composers, as independent pieces to be played in the concert room; this sort of overture being, in fact, the early form of what was afterwards developed into the SYMPHONY (q. v.). The overture, as well as the symphony, is designated by the name *sinfonia* in Italian.

OVERY'SSEL, a province of the Netherlands, is bounded on the n. by Friesland and Drenthe; e. by Hanover and Westphalia; s. and s. w. by Gelderland; and w. by the Zuider Zee. It has an area of 1274 square miles; and (1874) a population of 268,008. The soil is sandy, with clay lands by the Yssel, rich pastures along the Zuider Zee and rivers, tracts of peat-land in various parts, and extensive heaths which are gradually being brought into cultivation. From south to north the pro-

which is intersected by an unbroken chain of sand-hills. The chief cities are Zwolle, Deventer, and Kampen; important manufacturing towns of less note being Almelo, Avereest, Dalfsen, Haaksbergen, Hardenberg, Hellendorn, Lonneker, Losser, Raalte, Staphorst, Steenwykerswold, Tubbergen, Weerselo, Wierden, Zwollerkerspel, &c. The principal employments are—agriculture, manufactures of various kinds, fishing, making peat, shipping and merchandise. In 1862, of 128,709½ acres under cultivation, 65,526 were in rye, 24,453 in potatoes, 18,367 in buckwheat, 763½ in oats, 4460 in barley; wheat, colza, beans, flax, carrots, &c., occupying smaller breadths. The stock consisted of 16,582 horses, 117,067 horned cattle, 80,852 sheep, 22,318 swine, and 8265 goats.

At Zwolle, Deventer, Kampen, Almelo, and Steenwyk, besides the ground produce, were sold 3,008,000 lbs. of butter, of 17½ oz. avoirdupois per lb. In O. 331,000 acres are still waste, 262,000 in pasture, and 7400 in wood.

Carpets are manufactured at Deventer and Kampen, leather at Blokzyl, calicoes and other cotton fabrics at Kampen, Almelo, Dalfsen, Ommeren, and many other towns. There are extensive brick-works at Rynsen, Zwollerkerspel, Markelo, and Diepenveen, producing a yearly aggregate of 43,760,000. Ship-building is carried on at Zwartsluis, Vollenhov, Steenwykerswold, Avereest, &c. There are 74 Dutch Reformed clergymen, 98 Roman Catholic priests, and a few churches belonging to smaller Protestant sects. The attendance at school is about 1 to 9 of the population. In 1862, the births amounted to 7318, of which 206 were illegitimate, or about 1 to 35½; the deaths were 5678, or 42 to the 1000 of the population.

The principal rivers are the Yssel, into which the Schipbeek runs, and the Overyselsche Vecht, which falls into the Black Water. Other important water-ways are the Dedems-Vaart and the Willem-Vaart canals. There were, in 1873, 109 miles of railways in the province. The island of Schokland, in the Zuider Zee, belongs to Overyssel.

OVID (Publius Ovidius Naso), the descendant of an old equestrian family, was born on the 20th March 43 B.C., at Sulmo, in the country of the Peligni. He was educated for the bar, and under his masters, Arellius Fuscus and Porcius Latro, he became highly proficient in the art of declamation. His genius, however, was essentially that of the poet, and the writing of verses began to absorb the time that should have been spent in the study of jurisprudence. His father, having but a scanty patrimony to divide between two sons, discouraged this tendency in the younger, but in vain. By the death of his elder brother, O. inherited all his father's property, and went, for the completion of his education, to Athens, where he acquired a perfect mastery of the Greek language. He afterwards made a tour in Asia and Sicily along with the poet Macer. It is uncertain whether, on his return to Rome, he ever practised as advocate. Although by birth entitled to aspire to the dignity, he never entered the senate; his weakness of body and indolence of habit prevented him from ever rising higher than from the position of *triunvir capitalis* to that of a *decemvir*, who convened and presided over the court of the *centumviri*. While his public life was unimportant, his private was that of a gay and licentious man of letters. The restraint of the matrimonial tie was always distasteful to him; twice married in early life, he soon divorced each of his wives; while he carried on an intrigue with a lady whom he celebrated as Corinna, and who is believed to have been no other than Julia, the accomplished daughter of Augustus. Before his thirtieth year, he married a third time and became the father of Perilla, of whom he was tenderly fond. Up till his fiftieth year, he resided chiefly at Rome, in a house near the Capitol, and occasionally visited his Pelignian estate. His society was much courted, and his large circle of distinguished friends included Augustus and the imperial family. By an edict of the emperor, however, he was, in 9 A.D., commanded to leave Rome for Touni, a town near the delta of the Danube, and on the very limit of the empire. The sentence did not condemn him to an *exilium*, but to a *relegatio*—or in other words, he did not lose his citizenship, nor was he cut off from all hope of return. The cause of this sudden banishment has long divided the opinion of scholars, since the one mentioned in the edict—the publication of his *Art Amanoria*—was a mere pretext, the poem having been in circulation for ten years before. His intrigue with Julia, or with Julia's daughter, and the consequent displeasure of Augustus or of Livia, have been adduced with various degrees of plausibility, as the

cause of a sentence to which O. himself only mysteriously refers. The misery of his life on the inhospitable and barbarous shore of the Euxine is commemorated by the poems in the composition of which he found his solace. He became a favorite with the Tomite, whose language he learned, and before whom he publicly recited some poems in honor of Augustus. But his devotion to the emperor, and the entreaties addressed to the imperial court by himself and his friends, failed to shorten the term, or to change the scene of his banishment; so he died, an honored citizen of Tomi, 18 A.D., in his sixtieth year. His works which have come down to us, either in whole or in part, appeared in the following order: 1. "Amorum Libri III.," a revised and abridged edition of an early series. 2. Twenty-one "Epistola Heroidum." 3. The "Ars Amatoria." 4. "Remedia Amoris." 5. "Nux," the remonstrance of a nut-tree against the ill-treatment it receives from the wayfarer, and even from its owner. 6. "Metamorphoseon Libri XV." This is deservedly O.'s best-known work. It seems to have been written between the poet's fortieth and fiftieth years, and consists of all the transformations recorded in legend from the creation down to the time of Julius Cæsar, whose change into a star forms the last of the series. 7. "Fastorum Libri XII.," the first six of which are all that remain. The poem is a Roman calendar versified, and describes the appropriate festivals and mythic legends from materials supplied by the old annalist. 8. "Tristium Libri V.," written in elegiac metre, during the first four years of the poet's banishment. They are mainly descriptive of his miserable fate, and are full of appeals to the clemency of Augustus. 9. "Epistolarum ex Ponto Libri IV.," also written in elegiac metre, and similar in substance to the "Tristia." 10. "Ibis," a short satire against some traducer of the poet's. 11. "Consolatio ad Liviam Augustam," held spurious by some critics. 12. "Medicamina Faciei" and "Hallicon," dubiously genuine, and of which we possess but fragments. Several of his works are entirely lost, the one best known to antiquity being "Medea," a tragedy.

The poetical genius of O. has always been admired. A masterly facility of composition, a fancy vigorous and rarely at fault, a fine eye for color, and a versification very musical in its flow, are the merits which have made him a favorite of poets from Milton downwards, in spite of his occasional slovenliness and flatness of thought. The best editions of O.'s entire works are Burmann's (Amsterdam, 1727), and the recent one of Merkel; while excellent commentaries on one or other of his poems have been published by Hanpt, Ramsay, and Paley. A good translation of his "Metamorphoses" is that edited by Garth, with the assistance of Dryden, Addison, Congreve, and others; while special passages of the same poem have been admirably rendered by Mr D'Arcy Thompson.

OVIEDO, a pleasant and healthy city of Spain, capital of the modern province of the same name (the ancient Asturias, q. v.), stands on a plain between the rivers Nalon and Nora, 61 miles north-north-west of Leon, and 22 miles south-south-west of Gijon, on the Bay of Biscay. In the centre of the city is a handsome square, from which four principal streets, terminating in alamedas or promenades, branch off toward the north, south, east, and west, respectively. These main streets are connected by others, and all are clean and well-paved. Pure water is abundantly supplied by means of a long aqueduct, and is delivered in the city by eleven public fountains. The cathedral, a beautiful cruciform specimen of Gothic, the ornamentation of which is as rich as it is elegant, contains (in the Chapel of the Virgin) the remains of many of the early kings and princes of Asturias, and has a fine old library. Some curious, but eminently questionable relics, are to be found in the church of *San Miguel*, which is the second oldest Christian building after the Moorish invasion. In the immediate vicinity of the city there are other churches in the early Saxon Style, which are among the oldest churches in the peninsula. The convent of *San Vincente*, founded in 1291, has been secularized, and is now occupied by government offices, &c. Linens, woollens, hats, and firearms are manufactured. Pop. 25,460.

O. was known during the middle ages as *Civitas Episcoporum*, because many of the Spanish prelates who had been dispossessed of their sees by the Moors, took refuge here. This city, which is the see of a bishop, was twice plundered of its ecclesiastical and other treasures during the war of independence; first by Soult, and subsequently by Bonap.

OVIEDO Y VALDES, Gonzalo Fer. De, a Spanish chronicler, born at Madrid in 1478, was sent by Ferdinand to St Domingo, in the West Indies, in 1514, as intendant and inspector-general of the trade of the New World. During his long residence in St Domingo, he spent his leisure in acquiring an extensive knowledge of the West Indies; and after his return to Spain published at Toledo, in 1528, a "Summario de la Historia General y Natural de las Indias Occidentales," which he dedicated to Charles V. He afterwards made some additions to the work, which was republished at Seville in 1535, in 21 vols., under the title of "La Historia General y Natural de las Indias Occidentales." He left other 29 books in manuscript. A complete edition is now being prepared at Madrid. O. died at Valladolid in 1557. Besides his "History of the West Indies," he wrote "Las Quinquagénas," a valuable, gossiping, and anecdotal account of all the principal personages of Spain in his time, which still remains in MS. in the royal library at Madrid; and chronicles of Ferdinand, Isabella, and Charles V. A life of Cardinal Ximenes is also attributed to him.

OVI'PAROUS, a term applied to animals in which reproduction takes place by eggs (*ova*). Except the mammals, all animals are either Oviparous or Ooviviparous (q. v.); the latter mode—which is not essentially different from the former—being comparatively rare. Even those invertebrate animals which multiply by gemination and division, have also a true reproduction by *ova*. See EGG and REPRODUCTION.

O'VOLO, a convex moulding much used in classic architecture. See MOULDING. In Roman architecture, the oculo is an exact quarter of a circle; in Greek architecture, the curve is sharper at the top and quirked. It is sometimes used in Decorated Gothic.

OVOVIVIPAROUS, a term applied to animals of which the egg is hatched within the body of the mother, so that the young is excluded alive, although the foetus has been enclosed in an egg almost to the time of parturition. It is probable that the egg is often broken in parturition itself. Some fishes are ooviviparous, and some reptiles; also the *Monotremata*. The Common Lizard and the Viviparous Lizard, both natives of Britain, are illustrations of the near resemblance which may subsist between oviparous and ooviviparous animals. The distinction is much less important than might be supposed.

OVULE (Lat. a little egg), in Botany, the rudimentary seed. The Germen (q. v.) or ovary sometimes contains only one ovule, sometimes a small *definite* number, sometimes a large *indefinite* number. Ovules are to be regarded as metamorphosed buds. "The single ovule contained in the ovaries of Composite and Grasses may be called a terminal bud, surrounded by a whorl of adhering leaves or carpels, in the axil of one of which it is produced."—Balfour, "Manual of Botany." The ovule is not always contained in an ovary. In Gymnogens (q. v.) it is wanting, and the ovule is naked; but the plants possessing this character are comparatively few. The ovule is attached to the *Placenta* (q. v.), and by it to the *Carpel* (q. v.), from which it is developed. The attachment to the placenta is either *immediate*, when the ovule is said to be *sessile*, or by means of an umbilical cord (*funiculus*), which sometimes elongates very much after fecundation. The ovule is, in general, essentially formed of a cellular *nucleus* enclosed by two membranes, the outer of which is called the *intine*, and the inner the *secundine*. At one end of the nucleus there is an opening of both membranes—the *foramen*—through which the access of the pollen in Fecundation (q. v.) takes place. The *Chalaza* (q. v.) unites the nucleus and these membranes at the base. When the ovule is so developed that the chalaza is at the base, and the foramen at the apex, it is said to be *orthotropal* (Gr. *orthos*, straight, *tropos*, a mode). When the ovule is bent, so that the foramen is brought near to the base, it is called *campylotropal* (Gr. *kampylos*, curved). When by increasing on one side more rapidly than on the other, the ovule has its foramen close to the base, the chalaza being carried round to the opposite extremity, the ovule is *anatropal* (Gr. *anatrepo*, to turn upside down). Anatropal ovules are very common. When the ovule is attached to the placenta, so that the foramen and chalaza are at opposite ends, the base being in the middle, it is called *amphitropal* (Gr. *amphi*, around). When the ovule arises from the base of the germen, it is said to be *erect*; when it hangs from

the apex of the cavity of the germen, it is *pendulous*; when it arises from the side of the germen above the base, it is *ascending*; when it hangs from the side of the germen below the apex, it is *suspended*. When two or more ovules are found, not only in the same ovary, but in the same cell, they generally exhibit different modes of attachment. See CHALAZA, EMBRYO, FECUNDATION, GERMEN, PLACENTA, SEED.

OWEN. Dr John, an eminent Nonconformist divine, descended from an ancient Welsh family, was the son of the Rev. Henry Owen, vicar of Stadham, in Oxfordshire, and was born at the vicarage in 1616. In his 12th year he was entered of Queen's College, Oxford, where he worked with amazing diligence; for years taking no more than four hours' sleep a night. In 1635 he "commenc'd" M.A. At this period (if his own statement does not exaggerate) his great ambition was to acquire celebrity either in church or state, he didn't particularly care which; and he affirms the irreligiousness and worldliness of his motives with entire frankness. Yet he appears, for all that, to have been agitated even during his student-life by the *quæstiones veritatis* of ecclesiastical politics, and made himself so conspicuous by his Anti-Laudianism, that he was forced to leave Oxford. In fact, his Puritanism had become so decided, that most of his former friends had abandoned his society. The next five or six years of his life were spent, speaking generally, in a state of anxious and melancholy introspection. When the civil war finally broke out, O. was living as chaplain with Lord Lovelace of Hurley, in Berkshire. His lordship was a royalist, and went to join the King's army, whither O., who had warmly espoused the cause of the parliament, could not accompany him. About the same time, his uncle, a gentleman of property in Wales, who, having no children of his own, meant to have made O. his heir, indignant at the zealous Puritanism of his nephew, settled his estate upon another, and died without leaving him a farthing. The almost friendless scholar now removed to London, where a casual sermon, preached by a stranger in Calamy's church, had the effect of imparting to his soul the peace he so ardently desired. In 1642, he published his "Display of Arminianism," a work that proved very acceptable to the Puritan party, and drew upon him the favorable regards of the House of Commons. Soon after, the "Committee for Purging the Church of Scandalous Ministers" presented him with the living of Fordham, in Essex. His ministrations were exceedingly popular, people coming from great distances to hear him preach. While residing at Fordham he married a lady named Rooke, by whom he had several children. Not long after he removed to Coggeshall, where his views of church government underwent a modification. Up to this point he had been a Presbyterian, but he now became a moderate Independent or Congregationalist. It is almost superfluous to add that the Presbyterian ministers—intolerant, dogmatical, and acrimonious to a degree that is scarcely credible—fell upon him at once for his apostasy, but failed to perturb his sober temper. At Coggeshall he wrote his "Salus Electorum, Sanguis Jesu" ("The Blood of Jesus, the Salvation of the Elect"), a work the result of seven years' study, and of which he himself said that "he did not believe he should live to see a solid answer given to it." His fame still increasing, he was sent for in 1646 to preach before the parliament. To his discourse, entitled "A Vision of Free Mercy," he added an Appendix, in which he pleads for liberty of conscience in matters of religion. He was again chosen to preach before the House of Commons the day after the execution of King Charles I. (January 31, 1649), but discreetly avoided a vindication of the act. About this time Cromwell made his acquaintance, and thought so highly both of his preaching and character, that he insisted on O. accompanying him to Ireland, where the latter remained about half a year. In 1650, he went with Cromwell to Scotland, and resided in Edinburgh for several months; in 1651, the House of Commons appointed him dean of Christ Church, Oxford; and in 1652, when only in his 36th year, he was admitted vice-chancellor of the university. The manner in which he discharged his duties reflects the highest credit on the impartiality of his disposition. Though himself an Independent, and owing his honors directly to the Independent party, O. never shewed himself a partisan. Most of the vacant livings in his patronage were bestowed on Presbyterians; and Episcopilians were allowed to celebrate divine worship in their own way, nor could the vice-chancellor ever be induced to offer them the slightest molestation. While at Oxford, the "Atlas of Independ-

dency," as Wood grandiloquently dubs O., wrote his "Diatribæ de Divina Justitia," his "Doctrine of the Saints Perseverance," his "Vindictæ Evangelicæ"—against Biddle (q. v.) and the Socinians—and his "Mortification of Sin in Believers." He was one of the well-known "tryers" appointed to "purge" the church of "scandalous" (i. e., royalist) "ministers," and in this capacity signalled himself by his friendly offices on behalf of men of learning and merit, among whom may be mentioned the celebrated Dr Edward Pococke, professor of Arabic. A coldness now appears to have sprung up between him and Cromwell. O. is said to have been opposed to what many people call the "ambitious" designs of the Protector, and in 1657 he was succeeded as vice-chancellor of the university by Dr Conant. The year after Cromwell's death, he was ejected from his deanery, and retired to Stadham, in Oxfordshire, where he had purchased an estate, and where he formed a congregation, to which he ministered until his removal to London shortly after the Restoration. The writings belonging to this period of retirement, if we may so call it, are, "Communion with God;" "On the Divine Original, Authority, Self-Evidencing Light and Power of the Scriptures;" "Theologomæna, or De Natura, Ortu, Progressu, et Studio veræ Theologie;" and an uncritical, irreflective, and unscholarly diatribe against Walton's "Polyglott," in which the different readings of Scripture were learnedly set forth. In 1662, he published "Aulimadversions to Fiat Lux," a treatise written by a Franciscan friar in the interests of Roman Catholicism. It was followed by works on "Iudwelling Sin," on the 130th Psalm, and on "The Epistle to the Hebrews," the last of which began to appear in 1668, and is usually reckoned O.'s *Magnum Opus*. In 1669 he published "Truth and Innocence Vindicated," a reply to Samuel (afterwards Bishop) Parker's "Discourse on Ecclesiastical Policy," and in 1673 became pastor of a large congregation in Leadenhall Street. His last publications of importance were a "Discourse Concerning the Holy Spirit" (1674); "Doctrine of Justification by Faith" (1677), a treatise still much admired by many; and "Christiologia, or Glorious Mystery of the Person of Christ."

O. in his later years was held in the highest esteem by many of the most influential personages in the land, such as the Earl of Orrery, the Earl of Anglesey, Lord Willoughby, Lord Berkley, Sir John Trevor. When drinking the waters at Tunbridge, even the Duke of York and Charles II. paid him particular attention, and had long conversations with him on the subject of Nonconformity. O. died at Ealing, 24th August 1693, and was buried in Bunhill Fields. His funeral was attended by no less than sixty noblemen. O. was the most voluminous, but by no means the most powerful writer among the Puritan divines. His prolix and passionless disquisitions, his dull, tedious, and exhausting argumentations, his lack of subtle spiritual perception, his ponderous and lumbering style, make his writings the reverse of interesting; and one can almost pardon the irreverent criticism of Robert Hall, who is said to have pronounced them a "continent of mud." Yet O. deserves respect for his learning and moderation. The best edition of his works was published at Edinburgh (1856, *et seq.*).

OWEN, Richard, was born at Lancaster, July 20, 1804. Having received his elementary education at the grammar-school of that town, he became, at the age of 20, a student in Edinburgh University. Under the guidance of the third Monro, Alison, Jameson, and Hope in the university, and of Barclay in the outdoor school, his natural talents early developed themselves. He was an active student, and with others of kindred spirit, formed the Hunterian Society, of which he was chosen president in 1825. In 1826, he removed to London, joining the medical school of St Bartholomew's Hospital; and to the Medical Society of this institution he communicated his earliest published paper: "An Account of the Dissection of the Parts concerned in the Aneurism, for the Cure of which Dr Stevens tied the Internal Iliac Artery," which appeared in the "Medico-Chirurgical Transactions" for 1830. It was doubted whether so deep-seated an artery could have been reached, but he shewed that the ligature had been applied to the internal iliac, and the aneurism had in this way been obliterated.

It had been his intention to enter the navy; but when he finished his education, he accepted an appointment as assistant to Mr Clift, the Curator of the Museum of the Royal College of Surgeons, and helped him in the preparation of his catalogues of "Pathological Specimens" (1830), "Monsters and Malformations" (1831), but

chiefly of the "Specimens of Natural History in Spirits" (1830). He had, about this time, the fortune to obtain a specimen of *Nautilus pompilius*, an animal almost unknown, and of great importance not only in itself, but also and chiefly because of its numerous fossil allies. The results of his careful dissection of this specimen were published in an elaborate Memoir, which at once gave him a high position amongst naturalists, for the advanced views on structure and affinities it contained.

The continued examination of Hunter's extensive collections in the College of Surgeons' Museum was his great work. This resulted in the enlargement and arrangement of the collections, and in the publication of his "Descriptive and Illustrated Catalogue of the Physiological Series of Comparative Anatomy," which was issued in sections during 1833—1840; of his "Palaeontological Catalogue," of which the Mammals and Birds were published in 1845, and the Reptiles and Fishes in 1864; and of his "Catalogue of Recent Osteology" (1854), in which he describes 5906 specimens. The collections, which in 1828 were contained in one small badly-lighted room, in 1856, when O.'s connection with them terminated, filled ten times the original space—three large galleries having been specially erected to contain them.

O.'s position as curator of the Hunterian Museum, to which he succeeded on the death of Clift, awakened in him a special interest in its famous founder. In 1837, he published a new edition of Hunter's "Animal Economy," adding to it all the known published papers of its author; and giving in the preface, for the first time, a descriptive narrative of Hunter's real discoveries. He afterwards edited two volumes of "Essays and Observations on Natural History, Anatomy, &c., by John Hunter" (1861), which had been saved from Home's unprincipled and barbarous destruction of Hunter's manuscripts, by having been transcribed by Clift, who was the last articled apprentice of Hunter. In the preface to these volumes, O. shewed the advanced views which Hunter entertained in Geology and Palaeontology.

The first appointment of O. as public lecturer was to the chair of Comparative Anatomy in St. Bartholomew's Hospital in 1834. Two years afterwards, he succeeded Sir Charles Bell as Professor of Anatomy and Physiology in the College of Surgeons, and was in the same year appointed by the College as first "Hunterian Professor." For twenty years he continued to illustrate the recent and fossil treasures of the museum, until, in 1856, he was appointed Superintendent of the Natural History Department of the British Museum, when his connection with the College of Surgeons ceased.

We have not space to record even the principal of O.'s numerous published papers. His earliest communications to the Royal Society were papers on the generation of the ornithorhynchus and of the kangaroo. In numerous Memoirs between 1835 and 1862, he expounded the structure and affinities of the higher quadrupeds; and in these and other papers, he proposed the use of the brain-structure, as an important element in classification. It has been objected, that the particular parts to which he referred in characterising his highest class, are found in the lower classes; but the objectors forget that he does not use the existence of the parts as his characters, but only their remarkable development. A similar objection may be urged against every system of classification, for no decided line can be drawn around any group, the whole animal world being united by a gradation of structure.

His exposition of the recent and fossil birds of New Zealand is well known. He first published two elaborate papers on the anatomy of the Apteryx, and then followed at intervals seven or eight monographs on the gigantic struthious Birds which once existed in these distant islands. His descriptions and restorations of extinct animals are perhaps the most important of all his labors. He has published a monograph of the British Fossil Mammalia and Birds, and six parts of an elaborate systematic history of British fossil Reptiles. In describing the fragmentary fossil relics brought home by Darwin from South America, he established many remarkable forms from very scanty materials, and shewed that there existed in America, during the Tertiary period, a mammalian Fauna, the individuals of which were, for the most part, of gigantic size, yet similar in type to the existing animals of that continent. Subsequently, he clearly expounded the various genera of huge sloths from the same region, whose remains were previously confounded or mis-understood. A series of fossils from Australia revealed to him a remarkable group of gigantic marsupials, resembling in type the present tenants of that island-continent. His latest palaeontological paper is his elaborate Memoir on the singular long-tailed

bird from Solenhofen, in which he for the first time expounded the structure and affinities of that anomalous creature. But we cannot even record the titles of his numerous researches on extinct animals, and must refer our readers, for a summary of them, to his work, "Paleontology" (Edin. Black, 1861).

His great work on the microscopic structure of the teeth must be named. The "Odontography," published in 1840—1845, contains descriptions and exquisite drawings of the minute structure of a very extensive series of the teeth of every class of animals, and forms an immense store-house of information alike to the anatomist and the geologist.

He has published original papers on every branch of the animal kingdom, living and fossil; and it has been justly said of him, that "from the sponge to man, he has thrown light over every subject he has touched." Some idea of the magnitude of his labors may be formed from the fact that his published productions amount to more than 300 different papers and works, many of them being of the most voluminous and laborious character.

O., in 1835, married the only daughter of Clift, his colleague at the College of Surgeons. In 1838, he resumed his position as Fullerian Professor of Physiology in the Royal Institution of Britain, which, some 20 years before, he had filled for two sessions; and in the following year he was appointed Reader Lecturer by the University of Cambridge, but has now resigned these offices. He is a Fellow and active member of most of the metropolitan scientific societies, one of the eight foreign associates of the Institute of France, and an honorary member of many foreign societies. From France he also received the order of the Legion of Honor; from Prussia, the Ordre pour le Mérite; and from Italy, the Order of St Maurice and St Lazare. He was made a companion of the Bath in 1873.

OWEN, Robert, a social theorist and schemer, was born on the 14th of May 1771, at Newton, in Montgomeryshire. He does not appear to have had any more than a merely commercial education to fit him for common business. The point from which his peculiar destiny in life may be said to have started, was his marriage in 1799 to the daughter of David Dale, the owner of the celebrated cotton mills at New Lanark, on the Clyde. This establishment was very successful as a money speculation, and it is curious that Jeremy Bentham made a small fortune by investing in it. Mr Dale was known to be a thorough man of business, but whether O., by his peculiar faculties for organisation, contributed to the prosperity of the establishment in its early stages, is a doubtful question. It is certain that as his larger schemes developed themselves, he was felt to be a dangerous partner in a good business, and he was gradually elbowed out of any voice in the management, and he finally disposed of his share in the property.

It should be remembered, however, of a man whose life will go down to posterity as one long absurdity, that in his connection with New Lanark Mills he did real practical good on a scale by no means limited. He was naturally active and interfering, and being a humane man, it struck him that much degradation, vice, and suffering arose from the disorganised manner in which the progress of machinery and manufactures was huddling the manufacturing population together. He introduced into the New Lanark community education, sanitary reform, and various civilising agencies, which philanthropists at the present day are but imperfectly accomplishing in the great manufacturing districts. The mills became a centre of attraction. They were daily visited by every illustrious traveller in Britain, from crowned heads downwards, and it was delightful not only to see the decency and order of everything, but to hear the bland persuasive eloquence of the garrulous and benevolent organiser.

A factory was, however, far too limited a sphere for his ambition. He wanted to organise the world; and that there might be no want of an excuse for his intervention, he set about proving that it was in all its institutions—the prevailing religion included—in as wretched a condition as any dirty demoralised manufacturing village. Such was the scheme with which he came out on the astonished world in 1816, in his "New Views of Society, or Essays on the Formation of the Human Character;" and he continued, in books, pamphlets, lectures, and other available forms, to keep up the stream of excitation till it was stopped by his death. He had at least three grand opportunities of setting up limited communities on his own principles—one at Romney, in America; a second at Orbiston, in Lanarkshire; the

third at Harmony Hall, in Hampshire, so lately as the year 1844. They were, of course, all failures, and O. attributed their failure to their not being sufficiently perfected on his principles. His life was a remarkable phenomenon; from the preternatural sanguineness of temperament which, in the face of failures, and a world ever growing more hostile, made him believe to the last that all his projects were just on the eve of success. In the revolution of 1848 he went to Paris, with hopes of course on the highest stretch; but his voice was not loud enough to be heard in that great turmoil. He appeared at the meeting of the Social Science Association at Liverpool in the autumn of 1859, with all his schemes as fresh as ever. He died a few weeks afterwards, on 17th November 1858. A life of O. by A. J. Booth appeared in 1869 (Trübner).

OWL, a numerous and extremely well-defined group of birds, constituting the Linnean genus *Strix*, now the family *Strigidae*, the whole of the *Nocturnal* section of Birds of Prey. The aspect of the owls at once distinguishes them from all other birds, being rendered very peculiar by the large size of their heads, and by their great eyes, directed forwards, and surrounded with more or less perfect discs of feathers radiating outwards, whilst the small hooked bill is half concealed by the feathers of these discs, and by bristly feathers which grow at its base. The bill is curved almost from its base; the upper mandible notched, but much hooked at the tip. The claws are sharp and curved, but, like the bill, less powerful than in the *Falconidae*. The outer toe is generally reversible at pleasure, so that the toes can be opposed two and two, to give greater security of grasp. The wings, although generally long, are less adapted for rapid and sustained flight than those of the diurnal birds of prey, and the bony framework by which they are supported and the muscles which move them, are less powerful; the owls in general taking their prey, not by pursuit, but by surprise, to which there is a beautiful adaptation in the softness of their plumage, and their consequently noiseless flight; the feathers even of the wings being downy, and not offering a firm resisting surface to the air, as in falcons. The soft and loose plumage adds much to the apparent size of the body, and also of the head; but the head owes its really large size to large cavities in the skull between its outer and inner *ables* or bony layers, which cavities communicate with the ear, and are supposed to add to the acuteness of the sense of hearing. This sense is certainly very acute, and the ear is, in many of the species, very large. It is furnished with an external conch, which is found in no other birds. It is, however, concealed by the feathers, being situated on the outside of the disc which surrounds the eye; but the feathers immediately surrounding the ear are arranged in a kind of cone, serving a purpose like that of an ear-trumpet. In some species, the ear is furnished with a remarkable lid or operculum, which the bird has the power of opening and shutting at pleasure. The disc which surrounds the eye serves to collect rays of light and throw them on the pupil; and owls can see well in twilight or moonlight, but are generally incapable of sustaining the glare of day, many of them becoming quite bewildered when exposed to it, and evidently suffering pain, which they instinctively seek to relieve by frequent motion of the third eyelid or nictitating membrane of the eye. The legs and feet of owls are feathered to the toes, and in many species even to the claws.

The digestive organs much resemble those of the *Falconidae*, but there is no crop, and the stomach is more muscular. The gullet is very wide throughout, and owls swallow their prey either entire or in very large morsels. The largest species feed on hares, fawns, the largest gallinaceous birds, &c.; others on small mammals, reptiles, birds, and sometimes fishes; some feed partly or chiefly on large insects.

The owl has from early time been deemed a bird of evil omen, and has been an object of dislike and dread to the superstitions. This is perhaps partly to be ascribed to the manner with which it is often seen suddenly and unexpectedly to fly by when the twilight is deepening into night; partly to the fact, that some of the best-known species frequent ruined buildings, whilst others haunt the deepest solitudes of woods; but no doubt, chiefly to the cry of some of the species, hollow and lugubrious, but loud and startling, heard during the hours of darkness, and often by the lonely wanderer. It is evidently from this cry that the name of owl is derived, as well as many of its synonomies in other languages, and of the names appropriated in

different countries to particular species, in most of which the sound *Oo* or *Ow* is predominant, with great variety of accompanying consonants. Many of the owls have also another and very different cry, which has gained for one of them the appellation screech owl, and to which, probably, the Latin name *strix* and some other names are to be referred.

Some of the owls have the discs of the face imperfect above the eyes, the whole aspect somewhat approaching to that of falcons; the conchs of the ears small, and the habits less nocturnal than the rest of this family. These constitute one of the three generally received divisions in which the species are arranged. Another division with more perfect discs around the eyes, is characterised by the presence of two feathery tufts on the head, popularly called horns, or ears, and sometimes egrets or alarotes. The third division is destitute of these tufts, the discs of the face are perfect, and the ears are very large. On these distinctions, and on the feathered or unfeathered toes, and other points not of great importance, are founded the genera into which the Linnean genus *Strix* has been broken down by recent ornithologists. See, for example, the characters of *Bubo* in the article EAGLE OWL.

Owls are found in all parts of the world, and in all climates. Ten species are reckoned as natives of the British Islands, some of which, however, are very rare, and about fifteen are natives of Europe. Some of the species have a very wide geographical range. One of the most plentiful British species is the WHITE OWL, or BARN OWL, or SCREECH OWL (*Strix flammea*), one of those having perfect discs around the eyes, and no aigrettes. It is about fourteen inches in its whole length. The tail is, as in most of the owls, rather short and rounded; the wings reach rather beyond the tail. The toes are not feathered. The head and upper parts are of a pale orange color, marked by a multitude of small, scattered chestnut-colored spots, and gray and brown ziz-zag lines; the face and throat white. This owl very generally frequents old buildings and outhouses. It destroys great numbers of rats and mice, and deserves the protection of the farmer. The voracity of owls is wonderful, and they kill, if possible, more than they need, storing it up for future use. The barn owl is easily tamed if taken young. When irritated, it has, like some other—perhaps all—owls, a habit of hissing and snapping its mandibles together. It almost never leaves its retreat by day, unless driven out; and when this is the case, all the little birds of the neighborhood congregate about it as an enemy which may then be safely annoyed, and the grimaces of the poor owl, blinded by the too strong light, are very grotesque and amusing. This species has been said to be an inhabitant of almost all parts of the world, but there is reason to think that similar species have been confounded.—The TAWNY OWL, BROWN OWL, or IVY OWL (*Strix*, or *Syrnium*, *stridula*, or *alutacea*) is another of the most common British owls, a species about the size of the barn owl, or rather larger, with rather longer tail, and comparatively short wings, the feet feathered to the claws; the upper parts mostly ash-gray mottled with brown, the under parts grayish-white and mottled.—The LONG-EARED OWL (*Strix otus*, or *Otus vulgaris*) and the SHORT-EARED OWL (*S.* or *O. brachyotus*), species with aigrettes, are not unfrequent British birds. The EAGLE OWL (q. v.) occurs, but is rare.—Of the species with imperfect discs around the eyes and more falcon-like aspect, the most interesting in the British fauna is the SNOWY OWL (*Strix*, or *Surnia*, *nyctea*), the *Harfang* of the Swedes, a species occasionally seen in the Shetland Islands, and very rarely in more southern regions in winter, but well known in all the very northern parts of the world. It is from 22 to 27 inches in length, feeds on every kind of animal food which it can obtain, and has white plumage spotted and barred with brown; the legs densely feathered to the claws.—Of owls not natives of Britain, one of the most interesting is the BURROWING OWL (*Strix*, or *Athene*, *cunicularia*), a North American species, which, when necessary, excavates a burrow for itself, but prefers to take possession of those of the marmot, called the Prairie Dog (q. v.). It is not the only species of owl which inhabits holes in the ground.—The BOOBOK or BOOKOO of Australia (*Strix*, or *Noctua*, *Boobook*) is a species of owl, which frequently repeats during the night the cry represented by its name, as if it were a nocturnal cuckoo. Some of the species of owl are small birds; among the rarer British species are one of 8½ inches, and one scarcely more than 7 inches long. Some owls are at least partially birds of passage, of which, among British species, the short-eared owl is an example.

OWLGLASS (GER. EULENSPIEGEL), Tyll, the prototype of all the knavish

"fools" of later time, is said to have been born in the village of Kneitlingen, in Brunswick. His father was called Klaus Eulenspiegel, and his mother Anna Wortbeck. In youth, we are told, he wandered out into the world, and played all manner of tricks on the people whom he met with. His tomb is shewn at Mölln, about four leagues from Lübeck, where tradition makes him die about 1350; but the inhabitants of Damme, in Belgium, also boast of having his bones in their churchyard, and place his death in 1801, so that several critics regard Eulenspiegel as an altogether imaginary person, a mere *nominis umbra* affixed to a cycle of medieval tricks and adventures. The opinion, however, considered most probable is that Eulenspiegel is not a myth, but that there were two historical individuals of that name, father and son, of whom the former died at Damme, and the latter at Mölln. The stories that circulate in Germany under Eulenspiegel's name were not collected, as the book containing them itself informs us, till after Eulenspiegel's death, and without doubt were originally written in the Low German tongue; from Low German, they were translated into High German by the Franciscan Thom. Murner, and this translation was followed in all the old High German editions of the work. At a later period, it underwent considerable alterations, at the hands of both Protestants and Catholics, who made it a vehicle for the expression of their own likings and dislikings. The oldest known edition is that printed at Strasburg in 1519. The verdict of modern times has been unfavorable, not only to the aesthetic, but to the moral value of the book; yet although indecencies may be found abundantly in it, they may perhaps in large measure be attributed to the age in which Eulenspiegel or the author of Eulenspiegel lived. For centuries it has been a favorite people's book, not only in Germany, but in many other countries. Translations of it exist in Bohemian, Polish, Italian, English (as a "Miracle Play"), Dutch, Danish, French, and Latin; it has been frequently imitated, and reprinted times without number down to the most recent years. Max Müller, in his "Lectures on the Science of Language" points out that Eulenspiegel is the origin of the French word *espigle*, waggish. When the stories about Eulenspiegel were translated into French, he was called Ulespègle, "which name contracted afterwards into *Espigle*, became a general name for every wag."

OWNERSHIP is not a legal term, though it is used frequently in law to denote the highest degree or kind of property which one can have in anything. Owner is often used in this sense as contradistinguished from an occupier, who has only a temporary interest in the property. Thus a freeholder, or one who holds a freehold estate in land, is an owner; though, in common parlance, it is not unusual also to describe as owner any one who has a long lease of the property. When a person is owner in fee of land, he has certain rights more or less absolute as incidental thereto; for example, he may build on his land as high as he pleases, subject only to doing no direct injury to his neighbor, such as darkening his windows; and he may dig as deep as he pleases, or, as it is said, to the centre of the earth. There are certain things which are said to be incapable of ownership, such as the air, the sea, and the water of navigable rivers, as to each of which every individual member of the public has the right merely of using it, but no one has the ownership—i. e., the exclusive right of property as well as possession thereof. As to things wild, such as birds, beasts, fishes, the rule is that he who first catches the animal becomes the owner thereof, and acquires such a property in it, that any one who takes it from him against his will commits larceny. But though the person who first catches a wild animal is entitled to it, penalties are sometimes imposed upon the person catching it, as to which see GAME, POACHING. In regard to lost property—i. e., property which had once been appropriated and possessed by some one, but who has casually lost or abandoned it—the rule is that he who finds it is entitled to keep it, provided at the time of finding it he had no means of ascertaining the owner. But the true owner, if he discover and can identify the property, can always in general reclaim it from the finder. See LOST PROPERTY.

OX (*Bos taurus*), a ruminant quadruped of the family *Bovidæ* (q. v.), the most useful to man of all domesticated animals. The species is distinguished by a flat forehead, longer than broad; and by smooth and round tapering horns, rising from the extremities of the frontal ridge. But among the many varieties or breeds which exist, there are great diversities in the length and curvature of the horns, and some are hornless. It is probable that the ox is a native both of Asia and of Europe, per-

haps also of Africa; and not improbable that it may have been domesticated at different times and in different countries. It cannot be confidently asserted that it now exists anywhere in a truly wild state; wild oxen are nowhere so abundant as on the pampas or great grassy plains of South America, where it is certain that they are not indigenous; and it is not impossible that the wild oxen still existing in the parks of a few noblemen in Britain may be also descended from domesticated animals. Whether or not the *Urus*, described by ancient authors as an inhabitant of Central Europe, was the original of the domestic ox, will be considered in the article *Urus*. The very early domestication of the ox is attested by the mention made of it in the writings of Moses, and by the worship of it in Egypt, which the Israelites imitated in making their golden calf at Mount Sinai. Yet oxen do not appear to have formed any part of the wealth of the patriarchs. The ox was probably used as a beast of burden or draught before it was valued for its milk. It is mentioned by Cæsar as the principal part of the wealth of the Britons at the time of the Roman invasion.

The ox is more frequently employed as a beast of burden and of draught in some parts of the continent of Europe than in Britain. From the earliest historic times, the horse has been more generally thus employed in Britain, and has now almost entirely superseded the ox. The gait of the ox is slow and plodding, but its strength enables it to perform a great amount of work, and it is not easily exhausted. It needs, however, intervals of rest inconvenient for the farmer; and it is not capable of exertion at all equal to that of the horse on any occasion of emergency.—The ox is chiefly valuable for its flesh and its milk; but almost every part of the animal is useful—the fat, skin, hair, horns, intestines.

The period of gestation of the ox is nine months, or 270 days. It rarely produces more than one calf at a birth. It attains maturity in two or three years, becomes evidently aged at ten, and seldom lives more than fourteen. Cows are seldom kept for the dairy after they are seven or eight years old, as after that age they yield less milk and of inferior quality. Modern husbandry has also found means to fatten cattle for the market at an earlier age than was formerly usual; and although the beef is not quite so good in quality, the profit is great, both to the farmer and to the community, through the increased productiveness of the land.

The ox is gregarious, and where circumstances permit, as in the South American plains, associates in very large herds. Herds of oxen defend themselves with great vigor against the large feline animals and other assailants, the younger and weaker animals being placed in the middle, whilst the bulls in the outer rank confront the adversary with their horns.

The varieties or breeds differ very much in size. Among those which occur in the British Islands, the Shetland breed is not much larger than a calf of some of the others. Some of the breeds of the torrid zone are also very small; but the fatty hump on the back may probably be regarded as indicating a connection with the Indian ox or Zebu (q. v.), which, although it has been generally regarded as a variety of the common ox, is perhaps a distinct species.—The "wild ox," now existing only in a few parks, as at Chillingham and Hamilton, seems, whatever its origin, to have been formerly an inhabitant of many forest districts in Britain, particularly in the north of England and south of Scotland. The Chillingham wild oxen are of a creamy white color, much smaller than many of the domestic breeds, of a graceful form, with sharp horns, which are not very long, and not very much curved. The uniform white color is to be ascribed to the care taken to destroy every calf which is not perfect in this respect. The habits of these wild oxen are very similar to those of the domestic races.—The *West Highland* breed, or *Kyloe*, differs very little from the Chillingham or Hamilton wild ox, except in being generally black. It has short muscular limbs, a wide and deep chest, well-arched ribs, and a straight back; the horns are often somewhat long; the muzzle is short, but not broad; the skin is closely covered with shaggy hair. The milk is very rich, but the quantity is so small, that this breed is very unsuitable for dairy farming. The beef, however, is of the finest quality, and great numbers of cattle, reared in the Highlands and Hebrides, are annually conveyed to other parts of the country, to be fattened on rich pastures. The breed is a very hardy one, and peculiarly suited to the region in which it prevails.—The *Galloway* breed is very like the preceding, but larger and destitute of horns; and many cattle

reared in the hilly parts of Galloway are fattened on English pastures for the London market.—The *Pembroke* and other Welsh breeds are not unlike the West Highland; but the cows yield milk more abundantly.—The diminutive *Shetland* breed is very hardy, and is celebrated for the fine quality of its beef. The Shetland ox is easily fattened, even on scanty pastureage. The milk which the cows yield is also remarkably abundant in proportion to their small size.—The *Ayrshire* breed is particularly celebrated for the abundance and excellence of its milk, but the beef is of inferior quality, and the animal is not easily fatted. Great care has been bestowed on this breed in Ayrshire and neighboring counties, where dry farming is much practised. The horns are smaller than those of the West Highland breed, the hair much smoother, and the color chiefly brownish-red, with large patches of white.—The *Alderney* breed much resembles the Ayrshire, but the milk is comparatively small in quantity, and remarkable for the richness of the cream, on which account Alderney cows are often kept for the supply of private dairies. The milk of an Alderney cow, mixed with that of a dozen other cows, will sensibly improve the quality of the butter. But this breed is worthless for the purposes of the grazier.—The *Suffolk Dun* is a polled or hornless breed, of clumsy form, and of little value to the grazier, but yielding a very large quantity of milk, on which account Suffolk has long been celebrated for its dairy produce.—The *North Devon* is a pretty large breed, with rather short horns, very muscular and powerful, and also very gentle and docile, so that it is particularly adapted for draught; and much agricultural labor is still performed in Devonshire by teams of oxen of this breed. The North Devon breed, however, is surpassed by others, both for the purposes of the dairy farmer and of the grazier.—The *Hereford* breed, of stouter form than the Ayrshire, but in some respects not unlike it, has long been in great repute both for its beef and its milk; but in the districts where it once prevailed, it is now giving place to the *Short-horn* breed, one of the new breeds which are the result of care and attention. The Short-horn breed, so called because the horns are shorter than in almost any other, originated about the beginning of the 19th c. on the banks of the Tees, and has spread very widely both in England and in Scotland, in the districts of richest pastureage. The color varies from pure white to bright red; the head is short and very broad; the chest is wide, deep, and projecting; the fore-legs are short, the back straight, and not very long, the "barrel" full. The ease with which oxen of this breed are fattened is one of its great recommendations. The beef is also of excellent quality. For dairy purposes, the Short-horn is surpassed by some other-breeds; but a cross between a Short-horn bull and an Ayrshire cow is found useful both for beef and milk. The Short-horn breed is now cherished in Britain with peculiar care; genealogies are registered, and prodigious prices are given for first-rate animals. It is also in great esteem in many parts of the continent of Europe, and in America.—The *Long-horn* breed, long prevalent in the midland countries of England, and still prevalent in Ireland, was brought to great perfection by Bakewell, one of the first to shew what could be done in the improvement of cattle; but is rapidly giving place to the Short-horn, by which it is much excelled. The length of the horns in this breed is very remarkable.

Of foreign races of oxen, one of the most notable, on account of its large size, is that in possession of the Kalmuck Tartars; another is that prevalent in the Roman states, generally of a bluish-ash color, with remarkably large and spreading horns. A large white breed was long kept in Egypt; and a similar breed, without the hump characteristic of the Indian Ox, is found in South Africa, where, however, it has become partially intermixed with European breeds. Oxen are much employed by the Kaffirs as beasts of burden; they were also formerly trained by the Hottentots to aid them in battle. Peter Kolben, in his account of the Cape of Good Hope, written in 1705, gives an interesting description of these trained fighting oxen, which, he says, are called *Backeleyers*. "In the wars of the Hottentots with one another," he says, "these backeleyers make very terrible impressions. They gore and kick, and trample to death with incredible fury." He ascribes to them also great docility, and states that they know every inhabitant of the kraal, and are perfectly inoffensive towards them, but ready to run with fury at strangers. The readiness with which the draught oxen of South Africa observe the words of the driver, is said to be almost, if not quite, equal to that of the dog. In the training of them, however, severe measures are often requisite, and particularly by a

hooked stick inserted through the cartilage which separates the nostrils, as bulls are *ringed* when sent to exhibitions of cattle in Britain. Trained oxen are also employed in the training of their younger fellows. In some parts of Africa the ox is used for riding as well as for draught. The horns, which are very long, are split into ribbons, or curved in various directions, to prevent their points from coming in contact, by any accident, with the person of the rider. The pace of the ox scarcely exceeds four or five miles an hour.

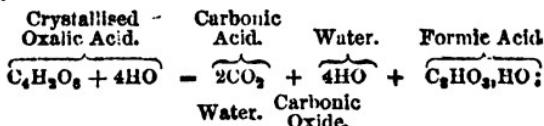
A very remarkable conformation of skull occurs in some of the herds of South American oxen, the bones of the nose and the jaw-bones being very much shortened; yet there is no question that this is a mere accidental variation, which has become perpetuated as one of race. Importance has been attached to it in the discussions regarding *species*.

The cow has been for ages tended by man on account of the agreeable and highly nutritious fluid which is obtained from it. Milk is manufactured into cheese and butter, which are capable of being preserved for a considerable time. The processes by which these are obtained are described under the article DAIRY. Cows, under our modern systems of agriculture, are selected either for their properties of giving large quantities of milk, or for raising stock which are well suited for grazing and fattening. For milking properties, the Ayrshire breed stands undoubtedly at the head of the list. In comparison with some of the other breeds, the Ayrshire is rather deficient in size, with the flesh spread thinly over its body. In the male animals these characteristics are all the more prominent, and for this reason the breed is not much liked by graziers. It is capable, however, of thriving on secondary or even inferior pastures. Wherever, therefore, it is found most profitable to follow dairy husbandry in Scotland, the Ayrshire cow is preferred. A considerable variety of breeds are cultivated both for milking and grazing in the western parts of England, the principal of which are the Herefords and Devons. In the eastern counties, again, where arable culture and the rearing and feeding of cattle are chiefly followed, the Ayrshire gives place to the Aberdeen, the Angus, and the Teeswater. The cow is there selected for its massive and square-built frame, soft skin, and meat-producing qualities. For more than a century vast care has been bestowed on the improvement of the short-horns. In this breed the pedigrees of the sire and the dam are traced back for many generations, and purity of blood is quite essential in herds of any pretensions. The large skins which particular cows and bulls of this breed realise, attest the value which modern breeders set upon animals which are considered to approach perfection in their form and style. In no department of British agriculture are the results of care and attention more strongly marked than in the noble figure of the short-horned cow or bull.

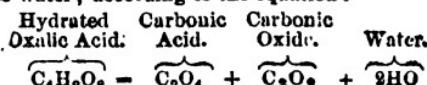
The rearing and fattening of the ox is one of the most important branches of agriculture. Since the prices of butcher-meat have become so much higher relatively to corn in this country, the breeding and feeding of cattle have received great impetus. Fifty years ago, many of our old breeds of cattle were kept till they were four or five years old before they were sent fat to the butcher. The demand for meat was so limited then in the north, that most of the cattle were sent south lean, to be fattened on the pastures and turnips of the eastern counties of England. The introduction of steam-shipping, followed by railways, has given the Scotch breeder and feeder great facilities for disposing of fatted cattle, and now there are no lean cattle sent to the south. Indeed, the extension of green crops in Scotland has been so great, that large numbers of lean cattle are imported from England, as well as Ireland, to be fed in the stalls and courts during winter. This applies to the arable districts, where the land does not remain more than one year in grass. In Aberdeenshire, where the hind rests from three to four years in grass, more cattle are bred and turned out fat, which is by far the most profitable system, seeing the breeder often gets a larger share of the profits than the feeder. The short-horned blood is in great request to cross with the native breeds, rendering the progeny much easier fattened, as well as causing them to grow to a larger size. It is now the most approved method to feed the calf from the time it is dropped till it is sent to the butcher. Oil-cake is generally considered the best and most healthy auxiliary food for stock, whether old or young. In the pastoral districts of England, where little of the land is cultivated, the rearing of cattle to be sent into the arable districts is carried out. The young animals are fed with hay in winter instead of straw and turnips. Large

numbers of cattle are fattened on turnips and mangold in winter in Norfolk and eastern counties. Large allowances of cake and corn are there given in addition to the roots.

OXA'LIC ACID ( $C_4O_6 \cdot 2HO + 4Aq$ ) occurs in colorless, transparent, oblique, rhombic prisms, which have an intensely sour taste, and are soluble in nine parts of cold water, and much more freely in boiling water. When heated to  $212^{\circ}$ , the crystals lose their four equivalents (or 88% per cent.) of water, and the residue, consisting of the hydrated acid ( $C_4O_6 \cdot 2HO$ ), becomes opaque; these two equivalents of water contained in the hydrated acid, cannot be expelled by mere heat, although they can be displaced by an equivalent amount of a metallic oxide. When the crystallized acid is rapidly heated to about  $800^{\circ}$ , it is decomposed into a final mixture of carbonic acid, carbonic oxide, and water; formic acid being produced and again decomposed in the process.



and formic acid when heated yields  $2HO + 2CO$ . When warmed with strong sulphuric acid, it is decomposed into equal volumes of carbonic acid, and carbonic oxide gases, and into water; according to the equation :



This reaction affords one of the best means of obtaining carbonic oxide for use in the laboratory. Oxidizing agents, such as binoxide of manganese, peroxide of lead, nitric acid, &c., convert oxalic into carbonic acid, and on this property is based a good method of determining the commercial value of the black oxide of manganese.

Oxalic acid is one of the most powerful of the organic acids, and expels carbonic acid and many other acids from their salts. The acid itself, and its soluble salts are poisons. This acid is very widely diffused throughout the vegetable kingdom. Sometimes it occurs in a free state (as in *Boletus sulphureus*), but much more frequently as a salt, either of potash, as in the different species of *Oxalis* (from which genus the acid was originally obtained and derives its name), and of *Rumex*; or of soda, as in various species of *Salicornia* and *Salsola*; or of lime, as in Rhubarb and many Lichens. In the animal kingdom, it never occurs except in minute quantity and in combination with lime. Oxalate of lime is found in a crystalline shape, both in healthy and morbid urine. In the latter, it constitutes the leading symptom of the affection termed OXALURIA (q. v.), while in the former it occurs after the use of wines and beer containing much carbonic acid, of sorrel, rhubarb-stalks, &c., and after the administration of the alkaline bicarbonates. It is the constituent of the urinary calculi, known from its rough exterior as the mulberry calculus. Crystals of oxalate of lime have also been found in the mucus of the gall-bladder, on the mucous membrane of the impregnated uterus, and in morbid blood. They have likewise been detected in the biliary vessels and excrements of caterpillars. In the mineral kingdom these crystals have been detected in association with crystals of calcareous spar.

Oxalic acid is produced by the action of either hydrate of potash or of nitric acid upon most organic compounds of natural occurrence. Its most common mode of preparation is by the oxidation of starch or sugar by nitric acid. The organic compound and the nitric acid are heated in a flask till all effervescence has ceased, after which the solution is evaporated, and the oxalic acid separates in crystals on cooling.

This acid forms three series of salts, viz., neutral, acid, and super-acid, which, if M represents the metal entering into the salt, may be represented by the formulae;

| Neutral Salt.                | Acid Salt.                         | Super-acid Salt.                 |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| $2\text{MO,C}_4\text{O}_6$ , | $\text{HO,MO,C}_4\text{O}_6$ , and | $3\text{HO,MO,2C}_4\text{O}_6$ , |

the last being a compound of the acid salt and the acid. Oxalate of lime ( $2\text{CaO,C}_4\text{O}_6 + 4\text{Aq}$ ) and ordinary (neutral) oxalate of ammonia ( $2\text{NH}_4\text{O,C}_4\text{O}_6 + 2\text{Aq}$ ) are examples of the first; binoxalate of potash, or salt of sorrel ( $\text{KO,HO,C}_4\text{O}_6 + 2\text{Aq}$ ) is an example of the second; while the salt usually termed quadroxalate of potash ( $\text{KO,3HO,2C}_4\text{O}_6 + 4\text{Aq}$ ) is an example of the third class. Of the numerous oxalates, the most important are the oxalate of lime (in consequence of its physiological and pathological relations); the neutral oxalate of ammonia, which is the best test for the detection of lime in solution (in consequence of the extreme insolubility of the resulting oxalate of lime); and the acid oxalate of potash, which is contained in the juices of *oxalis* and *rumer*, and is employed in various manufacturing processes.

The best test for this acid is the production of a white precipitate (of oxalate of lime), on the addition of any soluble salt of calcium. The precipitate is insoluble in water, in solution of potash, and in acetic acid, but dissolves in the mineral acids. A solution of nitrate of silver also gives a white precipitate of oxalate of silver, which explodes when heated.

In consequence of its employment in cotton printing, bleaching straw, &c., oxalic acid is more accessible to the general public than many other poisons; and on this account instances of suicide from the swallowing of this acid are by no means uncommon. Cases of accidental poisoning, moreover, sometimes occur by its being sold by mistake for Epsom salts. Large doses destroy life very rapidly. Dr A. Taylor mentions a case in which a man died in 20 minutes after taking two ounces of the acid. Dr Christison records a case in which an ounce killed a girl in 30 minutes, and another case in which the same quantity destroyed life in ten minutes; and, as a general rule (liable to exceptions), when the dose is half an ounce or upwards, death commonly takes place within the hour. The symptoms are a hot or burning acid taste, with a sense of constriction or suffocation; vomiting, great pain in the region of the stomach, convulsions, cold perspirations and general collapse speedily follow; and respiration shortly before death becomes slow and spasmodic. With the view of converting the free acid in the stomach into an insoluble and inert salt, chalk, whiting, or lime-water, with full draughts of milk, should be administered with the least possible delay. Salt of sorrel is almost as poisonous as the pure acid.

**OXALIDÆ, or Oxalidaceæ**, a natural order of exogenous plants, allied to *Geraniaceæ*; including herbaceous plants, shrubs, and trees; with generally compound alternate leaves; calyx of five equal persistent sepals; corolla of five equal unisexual petals, spirally twisted in bud; ten stamens, usually more or less united by the filaments, in two rows; the ovary usually 5-celled, with five styles; the fruit a capsule opening by as many or twice as many valves as it has cells, or more rarely a berry; the seeds few, attached to the axis. There are upwards of 300 known species, natives of warm and temperate climates. They are particularly abundant in North America; but at the Cape of Good Hope. The flora of Britain includes only two small species of *Oxalis*. An acid juice is very characteristic of this order. Some of the tropical species produce agreeable acid fruits, as the Carambols (q. v.).—The genus *Oxalis* has a capsular fruit, and the seeds have an elastic integument, which at last bursts open and projects the seed to a distance. The species are mostly herbaceous plants with ternate or digitate—rarely simple or pinnate—leaves; a few are shrubs. The stems and leaves generally contain a notable quantity of *Binoxalate of Potash*, and have therefore a sour taste.—The COMMON WOOD-SORREL (*O. acetosella*), very abundant in shady woods and groves in Britain and most parts of Europe, a native also of North America, is a beautiful little plant, often covering the ground with its green leaves, amidst which the white or slightly rosaceous flowers appear. Its leaves all grow from the root, a long leaf-stalk bearing three obovate leaflets; the scape bears a single flower. There is a subterranean scaly root-stock. On account of their grateful acid taste, the leaves are used in salads and sauces. The plant is extremely abundant in Lapland, and is much used by the Laplanders. It is antiscorbutic and refrigerant, and an infusion of it is a grateful drink in fevers. *Binoxalate of potash* is obtained from the leaves by

expressing the juice, and crystallising, and is sold not only under the name of *Salt of Sorrel*, but also of *Essential Salt of Lemons*, and is used for extracting spots, and particularly iron-marks, from linen, and for other purposes. Much of it is now, however, obtained from a very different source. See **OXALIC ACID**.—*O. corniculata*, rare in Britain, and almost confined to the south of England, but a plant of very extensive distribution, being found in Europe, North America, India, Japan, and some of the African islands, has a branched stem, with decumbent branches, leaves very similar to those of the common wood-sorrel, and yellow flowers. Its properties agree with those of the common wood-sorrel. Many other species much resemble these in their general appearance and properties. Some of the species exhibit an irritability like that of the Sensitive Plant; generally, as in the two British species, in a slight degree, and notably only in hot sunshine; but *O. sensitiva*, an East Indian species, with pinnate leaves, possesses this property in a high degree. Some species of *Oxalis*, as *O. cernua*, a native of South Africa, are remarkable for producing large bulbils in the axils of the lower leaves. Several species have tuberous roots, and are cultivated on account of their tubers; as *O. crenata* and *O. tuberosa*, natives of Peru and Bolivia, where they are much esteemed, and both receive the name *Oca*. The tubers, when cooked, become mealy like potatoes. They have a slightly acid taste. *O. crenata* has been cultivated in gardens in Britain for about thirty years, but continues to be almost exclusively an object of curiosity, being too tender for the climate, and its produce very inconsiderable in quantity. Its tubers are yellow in size, and shape like small potatoes. The succulent stalks of the leaves abound in a pleasant acid juice, and make excellent tarts and preserves. *O. tuberosa* produces numerous small tubers. The Bolivians often expose them for a long time to the sun, by which they lose their acidity, become saccharine, and acquire a taste and consistence like dried figs. *O. Deppii* is a Mexican species, with a root somewhat like a small parsnip, quite free of acidity. It is much cultivated in its native country, and succeeds well in the southern parts of England. *O. tetraphylla* and *O. crassicaulis*, natives of Mexico, and *O. enneaphyllo*, a native of the Falkland Islands, also have eatable roots. Many species of *Oxalis* are much esteemed as ornaments of gardens and green-houses.

**OXALURIA**, or The Oxalic Acid Dia'thesis, is a morbid condition of the system, in which one of the most prominent symptoms is the persistent occurrence of crystals of oxalate of lime in the urine. These crystals most commonly occur as very minute transparent octohedra, but sometimes in the form of dumb-bells; in order to detect them, the urine, which usually in these cases presents a mucous cloud, should be allowed to stand for some hours in a conical glass, and after the crystals have gradually subsided, the greater part of the fluid should be poured away, and the drops remaining at the bottom examined with a power of not less than 200 diameters. These crystals, which are insoluble in acetic acid, may occur either in acid or in alkaline urine. Persons who secrete this form of urine are usually dyspeptic, hypochondriacal, and liable to attacks of boils, cutaneous eruptions, and neuralgia. The oxalic acid, in these cases, is not introduced into the system with the food, but is a product of the disintegration of the tissues, and is due to the imperfect oxidation of compounds, which should normally have been converted into carbonic acid. (Anhydrous oxalic acid,  $C_2O_4$ , obviously requires 2 equivalents of oxygen to be converted into carbonic acid,  $C_2O_5$ , or  $2CO_2$ . Hence, if these two equivalents of oxygen are wanting in the system in consequence of imperfect oxygenation of the blood, oxalic acid, in combination with lime, appears as a final excretion in place of carbonic acid.) The occurrence of oxalic acid as a persistent sediment in the urine, is not only an indication of an existing morbid condition of the system, but may give rise to two perfectly distinct dangerous complications; (1) a concretion of oxalate of lime (mulberry calculus) may be formed either in the kidney or the bladder; and (2) bad consequences may arise from the poisonous action of the oxalic acid on the digestive organs, on the heart, and on the nervous system.

The treatment is simple. Care must be taken that the patient should avoid articles of diet containing oxalic acid (such as sorrel, rhubarb, tomatoes, &c.), or readily converted into it (such as sugar), and all drinks containing much carbonic acid; while he should take plenty of exercise in the open air, without fatiguing himself; should use the shower-bath, unless he feels chilled and depressed after its application, in which case he should rub the body all over daily with a horse-hair

glove; and should employ as a tonic medicine either a little nitro-muriatic acid in a bitter infusion (20 minims of the acid in an ounce and a half of Infusion of Cyn-retta), or five grains of citrate of iron and quinine three times daily. Under this treatment, the oxalates usually almost entirely disappear from the urine in two or three weeks.

OXENSTIerna, Axel, Count, an illustrious Swedish statesman, was born at Fanö, in Uppland, 16th June 1583. He was originally educated for the church, and studied theology as well as jurisprudence at Rosstock, Jena, and Wittenberg, in the last of which universities he took his degrees. Although he afterwards devoted himself to public affairs, he continued all his life to take a deep personal interest in religious questions, and labored zealously for the extension of the Protestant doctrines. After leaving the university, he visited most of the German courts, but returned to Sweden in 1603, and soon afterwards entered the service of Charles IX., who, in 1606, despatched him as ambassador to the court of Mecklenburg. He became a senator in 1608—a dignity which had been enjoyed by thirteen of his predecessors in uninterrupted succession. Having displayed great prudence and wisdom in the settlement of certain disputes between the Livonian nobles and the town of Reval, he was appointed by Charles—now infirm from age—guardian of the royal family, and head of the regency. On the accession of Gustavus Adolphus (q. v.), in 1611, O. was made chancellor; and in 1613, acted as minister-plenipotentiary in the negotiations for peace between Sweden and Denmark. In the following year he accompanied his sovereign to Poland, and by the peace of Stolbova, in 1617, terminated hostilities between Sweden and Russia. His political sagacity was not less conspicuously shewn in his successful efforts to prevent Gustavus from marrying Ebba Brahe, a Swedish beauty, and in bringing about a match between his master and the Princess Maria-Eleonora of Brandenburg. In 1621, on the departure of the king for the Polish war, he was charged with the administration of affairs at home, which he conducted with his invariable felicity; subsequently, he was appointed governor-general of the conquered districts; and in 1629, concluded peace with the Poles on highly favorable conditions. For a while O. strongly opposed the desire of Gustavus to take part in the "Thirty Years' War;" his hope being to see the latter arbiter of the north of Europe; but when he found that the Protestant sympathies of the king were irrepressible, he set about collecting money and troops for the perilous enterprise, with all the quiet but wonderful activity and persistency that so remarkably characterised him. After Gustavus had fairly entered on the bloody struggle, O. joined him, and conducted most of the extensive and complicated diplomacy which the course of events entailed on Sweden. The death of Gustavus for a moment paralysed him, but he instantly recovered, and heroically resolved to continue the contest with the imperialists, in spite of the visible disaffection of many of the German Protestant princes, among others, of the Elector of Saxony. The will of the dead monarch was sent to Stockholm; according to its conditions, the government—during the minority of Christina (q. v.)—was intrusted to five nobles, who empowered the chancellor to prosecute the war. His difficulties were enormous, yet by indefatigable efforts he managed partly to allay the discontents, jealousies, and rivalries of the Protestant leaders. The disastrous defeat of the Swedes at Nördlingen in 1634, and the perplexities which followed it, would have stupefied most men in the position of O., but it only called out more energetically his splendid diplomatic genius. Transferring the leadership of the Protestant forces to Duke Bernhard (q. v.) of Weimar, he proceeded, in 1635, to France and Holland, and formed alliances with these countries. Returning to Germany, he assisted in quelling a mutiny among the Swedish troops at Magdeburg; put Pomerania in a state of defence, to resist the meditated attack of the Elector of Brandenburg; renewed the treaty with Poland; and leaving Bauer in command of the Swedes, returned to Stockholm in 1635, where he was received with the liveliest enthusiasm. He still continued, however, to direct ably the policy of the Protestants in Germany, till the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, put an end to the war. O.'s son was one of the Swedish envoys who signed the treaty, and it is in a letter to him that the famous sentence of the statesman occurs, *Nescis, mi fili, quantilla prudentia homines reguntur* ("You do not yet know, my son, with how little wisdom men are governed"). Christina, who had been declared of age in 1644, did not shew a proper respect for the advice of O.; and after she had—through mere feminine

wilfulness—abdicated in spite of all his protestations, he withdrew from public life, and died 28th August 1654, shortly after she had left Sweden. He entertained a genuine affection for the daughter of his noble master, and in his last moments her name was upon his lips. Some treatises and historical fragments are attributed to him, and his "Journal" has been published in the "Stockholm Magazine." See Lundblad's "Sven-k Plutarch" (2 vols. Stock. 1824); Fryxell's "History of Gustavus Adolphus;" and Geijer's "History of Sweden."

**OX-EYE.** See *CHRYSANTHEMUM*.

OXFORD, an ancient and famous city and seat of learning in England, the chief town of the county of Oxford, is situated on the north-east bank of the Isis, a tributary of the Thames, a little above the point where it is met by the Cherwell. Both streams are crossed by numerous bridges, of which the finest are Folly Bridge over the Isis, and Magdalen Bridge over the Cherwell. Lat. of the city,  $51^{\circ} 45' 55''$  n., long.  $1^{\circ} 15' 29''$  w. Distance from London, 55 miles west-north-west. Pop. (1871) 34,452. O. occupies an undulating site, is surrounded by rich and wooded meadows, and presents to the eye of the approaching visitor a scene of unequalled architectural magnificence—spires, and towers and domes rising as thickly as chimney-stacks in the manufacturing towns of Lancashire or Yorkshire. The four main streets of O. meet at right angles near the centre of the town, at a place still called Carfax, a corruption of *Quatre voies*, and which appears in Agas's map (*temp. Elizabeth*) as *Cater voys*. These are—Cornmarket Street, leading into St Giles's, and running due north; Queen Street, leading to the railway-stations, and running west; St Aldate's Street, leading to the Is:es, and running due south; and High Street, which is the chief street of the city, gracefully curving in an easterly direction, and conducting to the river Cherwell, a smaller river joining the Isis soon after it has passed Oxford.

The western half of the town is the most uninteresting; and it is a misfortune that the railway-stations are placed here, as travellers, on arriving, are introduced to the meanest parts of the city first. The county courts and jail, and the remains of the castle, from which the Empress Mand escaped while it was besieged by King Stephen, will be observed in passing. There is one good street in this part—viz., Beaumont Street, built on the site of the ancient Beaumont Palace, in which Richard I. was born. At the end of this street is Worcester College. Passing to the north from Carfax, along the Cornmarket, the old tower of St Michael's Church is seen, against which stood formerly the north gate of the city; next St Mary Magdalen Church; then the Martyr's Memorial, with the Taylor Buildings and Randolph Hall on the left, and part of Balliol College and St John's College on the right. St Giles's Church is at the north end of this street, which is very wide, and has a row of elm-trees on each side, forming a picturesque avenue like a foreign *boulevard*. Beyond this, to the north, is the Radcliffe Observatory and Infirmary. The High Street is about 1000 yards in length; it is reckoned one of the noblest streets—architecturally considered—in Europe, and contains, among other edifices, part of the buildings of Magdalen College, Queen's College, All-Souls' College, University College, and St Mary's and All-Saints' Churches. Parallel to it is Broad Street, in which are situated Balliol, Trinity, and Exeter Colleges, the Ashmolean Museum, the Clarendon Rooms, the Sheldonian Theatre, and close by are the Academical Schools, the Bodleian Library, and the Picture Gallery. In St Aldate's Street, which forms the southern part of the series of streets already mentioned as forming one line, and running north and south, is Christ Church College (the entrance tower of which contains the great bell "Tom of Oxford," weighing upwards of 17,000 lbs.) and St Aldate's Church. The other colleges and important buildings connected with the University of O. lie back from the principal streets. To attempt particularising the architectural characteristics of each of these edifices is impossible within our limits. It may suffice to say, that though there is nothing extraordinarily fine about the architecture of the colleges, regarded individually, yet the vast number of the structures and variety of styles present a *tout ensemble* that is altogether sublime. The effect is wonderfully heightened by the interspersion of gardens, incadows, and venerable trees—old as the buildings that tower above them. Christ Church is celebrated for its magnificent hall, picture gallery, and library, as well as for its extensive grounds; its chapel, the cathedral church of O., is Norman in style, but is inferior, both in size and beauty, to most English cathedrals. Mer-

ton College is situated a little to the south of the High Street, and still retains the original chapel and part of the other buildings, erected by Walter de Merton in the 13th century. Magdalen College retains its celebrated cloister and tower of the 15th c., and the buildings here are the most complete of any college in Oxford. Oriel College, a comparatively modern structure, is very picturesque, but far from chaste in its design; New College ranks among the noblest buildings in the city—"the chapel, the hall, the cloisters, the groined gateways, and even some original doors and windows remain, in their exterior at least, as they came from the hand of their master architect," William of Wykeham, 500 years ago; Queen's College is built in the Grecian style of architecture, with a spacious and handsome chapel and a fine library; so is Trinity College; University College is a not unpleasing mixture of Gothic and Italian; Exeter College has a splendid frontage on the west, and its chapel (built 1857-1858) in the Gothic style, is the finest modern building in the city; it has also an excellent hall, and a beautiful library; Balliol College has a remarkably fine chapel, built only a few years ago. Among the other churches in O., besides the cathedral church and the college chapels, are—St Mary's, which is attended by the members of the university; St Martin's, the church of the corporation of O.; St Peter-in-the-East, with a Norman crypt; St Michael's, with a Saxon tower; and St Aldate's. The chief buildings connected with the university, besides the Bodleian and the Ashmolean Museum already mentioned, are the Radcliffe Library, a circular structure, adorned with Corinthian columns and surmounted by a dome; the Radcliffe Observatory, crowned by an octagonal tower, in imitation of the Temple of the Winds at Athens; the University Printing-Office, and the Taylor Institution, founded "for the teaching the European languages," an exceedingly handsome and extensive range of buildings. The Botanic Gardens are situated not far from the Cherwell, and nearly opposite Magdalen College. Other notable buildings, not connected with the university, are—the Town Hall, the Radcliffe Infirmary, the County Gaol, and one or two dissenting places of worship, such as the Westleman Chapel in New Inn Hall Lane, and the Independent Chapel in George Lane.—The city of O. is a mart for the disposal of the agricultural produce of the neighboring country, but has little trade of its own, and is dependent for its prosperity chiefly on the university. It is a municipal and parliamentary borough, and governed by a mayor, nine aldermen, and thirty councillors, whose jurisdiction, however, does not embrace the university. Both the city and the university send two members to parliament.

O., by the Saxons called Oxenaford, and in the "Domesday Book," Oxeneford (probably from its having been originally a ford for the passage of oxen), is a place of great antiquity. The date of its origin is unknown, but as early as the 8th c. there was a nunnery established here; and in 802, an act of confirmation by Pope Martin II. describes it as an ancient seat of learning. It is said to have been a residence of King Alfred, and also of Canute, who held several parliaments within its walls. The townsmen closed their gates against William the Conqueror, who stormed the town in 1067, and gave it to one of his followers, Robert d'Oyley, who built a castle here to overawe the disaffected Saxons, some ruins of which are still to be seen. The faction that terminated the strife between Stephen and Henry II. was drawn up at Oxford. In the reign of Edward III., the preaching of Wickliffe excited great commotion among the students, and threatened well-nigh the dissolution of the university. In the reign of the "Bloody Mary," it witnessed the martyrdoms of Ridley, Latimer, and Cranmer; and during the great civil war of the 17th c., it was for a while the head-quarters of the Royalist forces, and was conspicuous for its adherence to Charles I. Ever since that period the city—or, at any rate, the university—has been in general characterised by an extreme devotion to the "church" and the "king."

**OXFORD UNIVERSITY** is said to have been founded by King Alfred. Without claiming for it an origin quite so ancient, it is certain that from very early times students resorted to Oxford in order to attend lectures there delivered by learned men, and that they lived in the houses of the townpeople. In some cases they combined together, so as to secure the service of a common teacher, with whom they lived in a large tenement called an inn, hostel, or hall. For a long time, however, the great majority of the students lodged in rooms hired from the citizens; and as late as the year 1512, regulations were made for the governance of such students.

**As their numbers increased,** the halls were multiplied. Anthony Wood states that he could shew the names and places of more than a hundred. A great diminution in the numbers of the students took place about the middle of the 16th century. This, among other causes, led to the gradual disappearance of the halls, which were bought up by the wealthier colleges. Only five of the halls now exist, which differ from the colleges only in that they are unincorporated, and have little or no endowments. Residence in private lodgings had also fallen into disuse; and by the time of Queen Elizabeth, it had become a compulsory rule that all undergraduates should reside in some college or hall, at least for the first twelve terms of residence. Now, however, undergraduates may in most colleges live in lodgings from the beginning of their course.

The colleges were founded at various periods, from the end of the 13th c. to the beginning of the 18th. Fourteen out of the 20 were founded before the Reformation. Their object originally was to support limited societies of students, who were to devote their lives to study—by no means, as at present, to educate large classes of the community. Students, other than those on the foundation, seem not to have been regarded by the founders as an essential part of the college. The colleges arose, as has been already said, partly instead of the old halls, and were partly at first connected with the monasteries, it being by means of these institutions that benevolent persons were enabled to give permanent support to poor secular scholars. University and Balliol, which now rank as the oldest colleges, were in point of fact halls supported by endowments held in trust for the maintenance of their students. The originator of the collegiate system, in anything like its present form, was Walter de Merton, who, besides having founded Merton College, is entitled to the honour of having mainly contributed to fix the university in its present site. All those on the foundation of the colleges before the Reformation were called Clerici. The great majority of the fellows were required to take priest's orders within a certain period after their election. This requirement of course involved celibacy, which, *à side*, was expressly imposed in some colleges; and practically, in old times as now, was enforced by the rule of life and the obligation of residence. Within the last few years, in some of the colleges the restriction of celibacy has been, under certain conditions, remitted in the case of fellows engaged in college work.

Under a statute passed in 1868, any person may now become a member of the university, without becoming a member of a college or hall, provided he satisfies certain disciplinary requirements. For such purposes these unattached students are under the control of a board of delegates; but no special provision is made for their instruction. In 1871, the new foundation of Keble College, built in memory of John Keble, was admitted to enjoy the same privileges (save as regards the academic status of its head) as are possessed by the existing colleges and halls.

Previous to the statute 17 and 18 Vict. c. 81, the constitution of the university was as follows: 1. The Hebdomadal Board, or Weekly Meeting, consisting of the Heads of Houses and the two Proctors, which body exercised the chief share of the administration of the university, and possessed the exclusive power of initiating legislation; 2. Congregation, consisting of certain university dignitaries, which met merely for the purpose of conferring degrees; 3. Convocation, consisting of all Masters of Arts, a body whose consent was necessary before any of the measures proposed by the Hebdomadal Board could become law, which elected the chancellor, the two representatives of the university in parliament, several of the professors, and dispensed the ecclesiastical patronage of the university. The statute referred to introduced important changes. The Hebdomadal Board has been changed into the Hebdomadal Council, consisting of the chancellor, the vice-chancellor, the proctors, six heads of houses, six professors, and six members of convocation of not less than five years' standing—such heads, professors, and members of convocation being elected by congregation, and holding office for six years. Congregation, again, now consists of all the great officers of the university, the professors, the public examiners, and all resident masters; and on this body is now bestowed the power of accepting or rejecting and of amending any statute framed by the Hebdomadal Council. The composition and powers of Convocation remain unchanged. The students not on the foundation are for the most part commoners. In Worcester College and the halls there is still a class of fellow-commoners, who pay larger fees, and enjoy certain privileges. They mainly consist of men above the ordinary age of undergraduates,

who wish to have the intellectual advantages of the university without being subjected to the common routine of discipline. All other formal distinctions due to wealth or poverty are almost entirely abolished; such as the special privileges of peers, and the regard had to the poverty of candidates in the case of certain scholarships. It is very difficult to ascertain the actual number of students at any one time in Oxford, but now it is probably seldom above 1600.

There are four terms in each year—viz., Michaelmas Term, which begins on the 10th of October and ends on the 17th of December; Hilary Term, which begins on the 14th of January and ends the day before Palm Sunday; Easter Term, which begins on the Wednesday in Easter-week, and ends on the Friday before Whitsunday; Trinity Term, which begins on the Saturday before Whitsunday and ends on the Saturday after the first Tuesday in July. Fall Term, as it is called, does not begin till the first day of the week after the first congregation is held. By undergraduates, Michaelmas and Hilary Terms are kept by six weeks' residence, and Easter and Trinity Terms by three weeks each; but more than this is required by most of the colleges. Twenty-six weeks may be taken as the ordinary length of the academic year. Twelve terms of residence are required for the degree of B.A. from all. The degree of M.A. is obtainable in the twenty-seventh term after matriculation. By a statute passed in 1850, the following examinations were made necessary for a degree in arts; but their nature has been considerably changed by the new statutes which came into effect 1873—1874: 1. Responsions, called "Little Go" or "Smalls" in the familiar language of undergraduates, are obligatory upon all. The university does not, as to this or any other pass examination, fix a limit of time within which they must be passed; but most colleges require their members to pass responsions, at least within their first year of study. Subjects: one Latin and one Greek author—or portions of them, as five books of Homer, five of Virgil, two Greek plays, &c.—with a paper of grammatical questions; a piece of English to be translated into Latin; two books of Euclid, or algebra up to simple equations inclusive; and arithmetic. 2. The First Public Examination, or Moderations, is also obligatory upon all. Candidates must have entered upon their fourth term. Subjects: the Four Gospels in Greek (except in the case of persons not members of the Church of England, when some one Greek author is to be substituted); one Greek and one Latin author; not the same as those offered for responsions, and one must be a poet, the other an orator; a piece of English into Latin, and a paper of grammatical questions; logic, or Euclid III. and IV., 1—9, and algebra. Honors are awarded at this examination both in classics and pure mathematics. Candidates are recommended to take up especially poets and orators. Verses, as well as Greek and Latin prose-writing, and a paper of grammatical and philological questions, are set. In the mathematical school, which in this examination exists as a separate school for honors only, candidates are examined in pure mathematics up to the Integral Calculus and the Calculus of Finite Differences inclusive. 3. The Second Public Examination held twice a year, to be passed not earlier than the 12th term, and for honors not later than the 16th term of standing; unless the candidate has been classed in some other school of the Second Public Examination, in which case he may be admitted up to the 20th term inclusive. This examination consists of three parts: (1.) an examination in the rudiments of faith and religion, or in the case of those who (or whose guardians) object to such examination, certain substituted books or subjects; (2.) an examination of those who do not seek honors; and (3.) an examination for those who do seek honors. In this last there are, in Oxford phraseology, six schools: Literæ Humaniores, Mathematics, Natural Science, Jurisprudence, Modern History, Theology. Candidates are entitled to a degree of B.A. who, having passed the two previous examinations, also passed the examination appointed for those who do not seek honors, or who obtain honors in any one of the six honor-schools. But every candidate, except he has obtained honors in the Theology School, must have satisfied in the rudiments of faith and religion or the substitute. By these rudiments are understood the Old and New Testaments (Gospels and Acts of the Apostles in the original Greek); and the 89 articles. The pass examination embraces subjects chosen from at least two out of the three following groups: (a) Greek and Roman history and philosophy; (b) English, modern languages, political economy, and law; (c) geometry, mechanics, chemistry, and physics. Out of these the candidates must select three subjects, one of which must be either (1) ancient

philosophy and history (in the original Greek, or Greek and Latin); or (2) a modern language (French or German). The classical books must be other than those offered for Responsions and Moderations. Candidates for honors may select any one, or more than one, of the six schools. The most popular and influential of these is the school of Literae Humaniores. The examination in this school includes (1) the Greek and Latin languages; (2) the histories of ancient Greece and Rome; (3) logic and the outlines of moral and political philosophy. Candidates may also offer certain special subjects in any of these three departments. The republic of Plato and the ethics of Aristotle form the basis for philosophical study, though they are every year more largely supplemented by modern philosophy. Next in the numbers of its candidates is the school of Modern History, which includes (1) the continuous history of England; (2) general history during some period, selected by the candidate, from periods to be named from time to time by the Board of Studies; (3) a special portion of history, or a special historical subject, carefully studied with reference to original authorities. The School of Jurisprudence includes (1) general jurisprudence; (2) the history of English law; (3) some department of Roman, and it may be, of English law; (4) international law, or a specified department of it. The School of Mathematics embraces pure and mixed mathematics (algebra, trigonometry, calculus, mechanics, optics, astronomy). The School of Natural Science has a double examination for honors—a preliminary and a final. The preliminary examination, incumbent upon all, is restricted to the elementary parts of mechanics, physics, and chemistry. In the final examination, the candidate may offer himself for examination in one or more of the three general subjects of physics, chemistry, and biology. The examination in the Honor School of Theology includes the Holy Scriptures, dogmatic and symbolic theology, ecclesiastical history and the fathers, the evidences of religion, liturgies, sacred criticism, and the archaeology of the Old and New Testaments. A knowledge of Hebrew will have weight in the distribution of honors. The organisation of these schools is at present the main function of the university, as distinct from the colleges. Professorial teaching on its own account only exists to a very limited extent. In the main, the teaching power of the colleges is devoted to preparing their undergraduate members for these various examinations.

Examinations also take place for degrees in law, medicine, divinity, and music; but these are in great measure formal. The examinations for degrees in arts are the proper work of the university.

Besides these honors, various distinctions are conferred by the university. There are several university scholarships, more particularly the Vinerian law fellowships and scholarships; the Eldon law scholarship; one Sanscrit and two Hebrew scholarships yearly; two mathematical scholarships; the Hertford scholarship, for the encouragement of the study of Latin, and the Ireland and Craven scholarships, for the encouragement of the study of classics. There is also the Newdigate prize for the best composition in English verse; and the three chancellor's prizes for the best compositions in Latin verse, Latin prose, and English prose; the Gaisford prizes for Greek composition; and the Arnold, Stanhope, and Marquis of Lothian's prizes for the best essays on an historical subject. But the great prizes are the scholarships and the fellowships. By the commissioners under 17 and 18 Vict. c. 81, these have been for the most part thrown open, and are now awarded after examination without restrictions as to kin or place of birth. At All-Soul's, and also at St John's College, since the labors of the commissioners, an attempt has been made to keep up the former exclusiveness. The scholarships, which are so numerous as to be within the reach of any young man of ability, range from £60 to £80 a year, with rooms free, which would go a considerable way towards defraying the expense of a university education. At the close of this education come the fellowships; and it has been calculated that when the arrangements of the commissioners are complete, there will be between 20 and 30 fellowships, mostly about £300 per annum, open yearly to competition.

Oxford is, of course, chiefly fed from the great English schools. A close connection subsists, by the terms of the foundation, between Winchester and New College, between Westminster and Christ Church, and between Merchant Taylors' and St John's. For the nature of this connection, see under these colleges. A student desirous of going to Oxford, must apply to the Head of the College to which he wishes to belong. Application in former times had to be made early, as all the good

colleges were filled up for several years in advance. But now that undergraduates are allowed by most colleges to live in lodgings from the first, a candidate can have no difficulty in securing admission even to a distinguished college at short notice. There is no university examination at matriculation; but all the good colleges have such an examination before they receive any one—the standard of the examination, of course, varying with the college. After being received into the college, the undergraduate is sometimes assigned to a college tutor, who exercises a special control over his reading; but he also attends the instruction of the other college tutors or lecturers, as the course of his studies may require. The cost of tuition varies at different colleges, but an average of £65 may be given as paid by the undergraduate during his whole career. This payment is at some colleges distributed over three, at others over four years. Besides this, almost every undergraduate finds it necessary, at some period, before taking his degree, to read with a private tutor, whom he chooses for himself. Private tuition has grown to be quite an institution in Oxford, though not formally recognised. Many of the ablest young men, after taking their degree, remain in Oxford for a year or two, taking private pupils. In this way, an undergraduate, even of a badly-taught college, could secure the advantages of the best tuition. But during the last few years, the lecturers in different colleges have more and more combined and systematised their work; and thus to a slight extent obviated the need for private tuition. Much discussion has taken place on the merits and faults of this system; but, on the whole, it must be allowed to be useful for the tutor, as clearing up and concentrating his knowledge, while, at least to undergraduates who read for honors (with a few rare exceptions), it may be considered as absolutely necessary. Private tutors usually charge £10 a term for three hours a week. Previous to 1862, the professoriate of Oxford was strictly ornamental. A great effort was then made to stir it into life, which has been partially successful. New professorships were created, and the endowments of old ones were increased by the commissioners, under 17 and 18 Vict., c. 81. But the former of these measures, at least, whatever it may have done for the interests of science, has produced but little effect on the undergraduates. They still limit their range of studies by the requirements of the examinations of the schools, and it were hard to expect them to do otherwise. But professional teaching has undoubtedly become more popular in the ordinary branches of study. Lectures by the professors of Law and Modern History, of Moral Philosophy, Logic, Greek, and Latin, are felt to be useful, and are therefore well attended. With regard to the expenses of Oxford, it is difficult to say anything very definite. They vary at different colleges, not only indirectly from the tone of the society, but even directly from the charges made for necessities. A man should be exceedingly comfortable at Oxford with £200 a year; on £150, he can manage with economy. Many young men could not with prudence, be exposed to the difficulties of living in Oxford on less than the latter sum. There have indeed been instances of men passing creditably through the university course on £100 a year. The necessary expenses do not exceed that sum; the habits of the young men themselves cause a great part of the expenses. Returns procured by the delegates for unattached students shew that some students cover their board, lodging, and tuition for about £45 a year. Discipline inside the college is maintained by the head of the house and the tutors; in the town and its neighborhood, by the proctors, who are university officers invested with great authority. As a rule, this authority is well exercised. According to the "Universities Commission Report" (1874), the revenue of the colleges and university in 1871 was £418,000.

The following is a list of the colleges and halls as they rank in the university; an account of each will be found in its alphabetical place; University, Balliol, Merton, Exeter, Oriel, Queen's, New College, Lincoln, All Souls, Magdalen, Brasenose, Corpus Christi, Christ Church, Trinity, St John's, Jesus, Wadham, Pembroke, Worcester, Keble, St Mary Hall, St Magdalen Hall, New Inn Hall, St Albans Hall, St Edmund Hall. To these may be added Charsley's Hall, being a private hall under the mastership of W. H. Charsley, in virtue of a statute passed in 1864, empowering any M.A. of a certain standing to open a private hall on his obtaining a license from the vice-chancellor. The Unattached Students now number upwards of 100; but the present system of university teaching is not very favorable either to their increase or progress.

Among the books which may be consulted with regard to Oxford are—Ayliffe's

"History of Oxford," Wood's "Annals," the "University Calendar," and, above all, the "Report of the Royal Commissioners for 1852."

### OXFORD BLUES. See HORSE GUARDS, ROYAL.

**OXFORD CLAY**, the principal member of the Middle Oolite series, is a bed of stiff dark-blue or blackish clay, sometimes reaching a thickness of 600 feet. There occur in its lower portion in some places layers of tough calcareous sandstone, called Kelloway Rock, from a place in Wiltshire, where it is quarried. The O. C. lies beneath the plain on which Oxford is built, and extends south-west and north-east from the shore at Weymouth to the fen lands south of the Wash, thence it may be traced through Lincoln into Yorkshire, until it disappears under the sea at Scarborough. The close packing of the fossils in the fine compact clay has caused them to be beautifully preserved; the shells frequently retain their iridescence, and even the softer parts of the cephalopods have sometimes left with tolerably clear definition their form in the clay. The fossils are, however, often filled with iron pyrites, which, on exposure to the atmosphere, readily decomposes and destroys all traces of the beautiful organism. The remains of chambered shells of the genera *belemnites* and ammonites are very abundant, and with them are associated other shells, interesting crustacea, and the species of fishes and reptiles which are characteristic of the oolite.

**OXFORDSHIRE**, an inland county of England, bounded on the s. by the river Thames, on the e. by Bucks, and on the w. by Gloucestershire. Area, 472,717 acres. Pop. (1871) 177,975. The surface, where it is not level, is undulating. In the north-west the hills rise in Broom Hill to 836 feet above sea-level, and in the south-east of the county are the Chiltern Hills (q. v.), rising near Nuffield to 820 feet in height. It is watered along its southern border by the Thames, and the other chief rivers are the Windrush, Evenlode, Cherwell, and Thame, affluents of the Thames. By means of the Oxford Canal, which joins the Thames at Oxford, the towns and districts lower down the river (Abingdon, Wallingford, &c.), are supplied with coal from the Leicestershire coal-fields. The soil is fertile; the state of agriculture is advanced, 414,668 acres being under crops, fallow, or grass, in 1876; and the county may be considered one of the most productive in the country. Three members are returned to the House of Commons for the county.

**OXIDATION** is the term applied to the union of any body with oxygen, the body being then said to be *oxidised*, and the resulting compound being termed an *oxide*. Many bodies possess the property of entering into several distinct combinations with oxygen. For example, manganese (Mu) forms no less than six such compounds—viz.,  $MnO$ ,  $Mn_2O_3$ ,  $Mn_3O_4$ ,  $Mn_2O_5$ ,  $MnO_2$ ,  $Mn_2O_7$ , which represent different stages of oxidation.

**O'XIDES**, Metallic, are the most important of all the compounds of the metals, and in many cases occur naturally as abundant and valuable ores. They are divided by chemists into three classes—viz., (1) basic oxides or bases, (2) saline or indifferent oxides, and (3) acid oxides or metallic acids. The different oxides of the same metal usually afford illustrations of two, and not infrequently of all three of these classes. Thus (to take the case of manganese referred to in the last article) the protodoxide ( $MnO$ ) is a powerful base, the red oxide ( $Mn_3O_4$ ) is a saline or indifferent oxide, shewing little tendency to combine either with acids or alkalies, while permanganic acid ( $Mn_2O_7$ ) presents all the properties of an acid. "As a general rule, the greater the number of atoms of oxygen which an oxide contains, the less it is disposed to unite with the acids; on the contrary, it frequently possesses acid properties, and then unites with bases to form salts." Protodoxides generally are strong caustic bases; they require one equivalent of a monobasic acid to form neutral salts. Sesquioxides are weaker bases; their salts are usually unstable; they require three atoms or equivalents of a monobasic acid to form a salt which is neutral in composition, though it may not be neutral to test-paper; and in general, all oxides require as many equivalents of acid as they contain atoms of oxygen in their composition. Some of the metallic acids, like the stannic and titanic, contain two atoms of oxygen to one atom of metal, but most of them contain three atoms of oxygen—such, for example, as the manganic, ferric, chromic, tungstic, molybdic, and vanadic acids; whilst in a few cases, such as the arsenic, antimonic, and permanganic, the pro-

portion of oxygen is still higher."—Miller's "Inorganic Chemistry," 2d edit. p. 814. Of the basic oxides, which form by far the most important class, it may be observed that they are devoid of all metallic appearance, and present the characters of earthy matters, and that six only of them are soluble in water to any considerable extent—viz., the three alkalies, and baryta, strontia, and lime. All the oxides are solid at ordinary temperatures, and as a general rule, the addition of oxygen to a metal renders it much less fusible and soluble; the protoxide of iron, the sesquioxide of chromium, and molybdic acid being the only oxides that melt more readily than the metal.

**OXYLEYA**, a genus of trees of the natural order *Cedrelaceae*, of which one species, *O. xanthoxylo*, the Yellow Wood of Eastern Australia, is a very large tree, 100 feet high, valuable for its timber.

**O'XUS**, the ancient name of a great river in Central Asia, which is called by the Turks and Persians JIMŪN, and AMŪ or AMŪ-DARIA by the natives of the country through which it flows. The O. rises in Lake Sari-kol, in the elevated plateau which separates Eastern and Western Turkestan. It flows through Buddakshan, Bokhara, and Khiva, and empties itself by several mouths into the Sea of Aral. In the first part of its course, its volume is increased by numerous affluents, but it receives no tributaries after entering Khiva, from which point its course is wholly through a dry sandy desert. Its total length is about 1150 miles. The value of the Oxus for the purpose of water communication, is said by recent Russian geographers to have been much overrated in Europe; and they add that, in summer, vessels of even slight draught could only be got upon the stream by shutting off the irrigation canals, and risking the desolation of the country dependent on them for its crops. The true value of the Oxus lies in the means it will supply of irrigating the sterile alluvial wastes through which it runs. Before the Christian era, it is believed that the Oxus flowed into the Caspian, and that since 600 A.D. it has twice changed its course (see ARAL). A great part of the old bed of the Oxus has recently been explored by M. Stebnitzki ("Bulletin de la Soc. de Géogr. de Paris," April 1871), who has ascertained that it has a fall towards the Caspian, from which he infers that its course was not changed by an upheaval of the Turcoman desert, but by the simple accid·nts of fluvial action on an alluvial soil. In his address to the London Geographical Society in May 1872, Sir Henry Rawlinson said the restoration of the Oxus to its old bed was then under the serious consideration of the Russian government, that it was a work of no engineering difficulty whatever, and would assuredly be accomplished as soon as the neutrality of Khiva was secured.—See "A Journey to the Source of the Oxus," by John Wood, with Essay of the Geography of the Oxus Valley, by Colonel Yale, 1873, and paper read by Colonel Gordon before the British Association in 1875.

**OXYACIDS.** When Lavoisier, in 1789, gave the name of oxygen to the *Dephlogisticated Air* discovered, in 1774, by Priesiley, he believed that the presence of that body was essential to the existence of an acid, and this view was supported by the composition of the principal acids which were then known, such as sulphuric, nitric, carbonic, and phosphoric acids. But, by degrees, acids were discovered into which no oxygen entered, but which always contained hydrogen, and hence acids were divided into two great classes, the *cyanacids* and the *hydronacids*; oxygen being supposed to be the acidifying principle in the former, and hydrogen in the latter. At the present day, scientific chemists usually restrict the term *acid* to compounds into which hydrogen enters, and the acids are regarded as salts of the last-named element; thus, sulphuric acid ( $\text{HO SO}_4$ ) and nitric acid ( $\text{HO NO}_3$ ) are the sulphate and nitrate of oxide of hydrogen; hydrochloric acid ( $\text{HCl}$ ) is chloride of hydrogen, &c.

**OXYCHLORIDES**, chemical compounds containing both chlorine and oxygen in combination with some other element or radical. Chloride of lime ( $\text{CaOCl}$ ), chloride of potash ( $\text{KOCl}$ ), oxychloride of lead or Turner's yellow ( $\text{PbCl}_2\text{PbO}$ ) belong to this class.

**OXYGEN** (symb. O, equiv. 8; new system, 16—see CHEMISTRY—sp. gr. 1.056) is a colorless, inodorous, tasteless gas, which has never been reduced to a liquid or solid condition. Its chemical affinities for other elementary substances are very powerful; with most of them it is found in combination, or may be made to combine, in more than one proportion; with several in 4, 5, or 6 propor-

tions; and there is only one element (fluorine) with which it does not enter into any combination. Owing to the intensity with which many of these combinations take place, this gas has the power of supporting Combustion (q. v.) in an eminent degree. Of all known substances, it exerts the smallest refracting power on the rays of light. It possesses weak but decided magnetic properties, like those of iron, and like this substance, its susceptibility to magnetisation is diminished or even suspended by a certain elevation of temperature. It is only slightly soluble in water; 100 cubic inches of that liquid dissolving 4.11 cubic inches of gas at 32°, and only 2.99 inches at 59°.

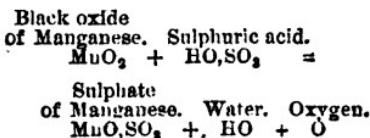
Oxygen gas is not only respirable, but is essential to the support of animal life; and hence it was termed *vital air* by some of the older chemists. A small animal placed in a bell-glass containing pure oxygen will not be suffocated so soon as if it were placed in the same glass filled with atmospheric air. For further details on this property of oxygen, the reader is referred to the article RESPIRATION.

Oxygen is the most abundant and the most widely distributed of all the elements. In its free state (*mixed* but not *combined* with nitrogen), it constitutes about a fifth of the bulk, and considerably more than a fifth of the weight of the atmosphere. In combination with hydrogen, it forms eight-ninths of all the water on the globe; and in combination with silicon, calcium, aluminium, &c., it enters largely into all the solid constituents of the earth's crust; silica in its various forms of sand, common quartz flint, &c.—chalk, limestone, and marble—and all the varieties of clay, containing about half their weight of oxygen. It is, moreover, found in the tissues and fluids of all forms of animal and vegetable life, none of which can support existence independently of this element.

There are various modes of obtaining oxygen, the simplest of which consists in the exposure of certain metallic oxides to a high temperature. It was originally obtained by its discoverer, Dr Priestley, from the red oxide of mercury, which, when heated to about 750°, resolves itself into metallic mercury and oxyg'n gas. It may be similarly obtained from red oxide and peroxide of lead, the resulting products in these cases being protoxide of lead and oxygen. The following are the chief methods now employed: (1.) The black oxide (or binoxide) of manganese ( $MnO_2$ ) is much employed as a source of this gas. The mineral is reduced to small pieces of about the size of a pea, and introduced into an iron bottle, with a pipe through which the gas may escape. When the bottle is placed in a furnace, and attains a red heat, the mineral parts with one-third of its oxygen, and the red oxide of manganese ( $MnO, Mn_2O_3$ ) remains behind; the reaction being explained by the equation:



(2.) A very pure and abundant supply of oxygen may be obtained by heating chlorate of potash ( $KO_3ClO_4$ ), which yields up all its oxygen (amounting to 39.16 per cent.), and leaves a residue of chloride of potassium. One ounce of this salt yields nearly two gallons of oxygen gas. It is found by experiment, that if the chlorate of potash is mixed with about a fourth of its weight of black oxide of copper, or of binoxide of manganese, the evolution of the gas is greatly facilitated, although the oxides do not seem to undergo any change during the process. (3.) Oxygen is readily obtained by heating strong sulphuric acid with about half its weight of powdered black oxide of manganese, or chlorate of potash, in a glass retort; the reaction in the former case being expressed by the equation:



and in the latter case, being of a more complicated character. (4.) Various processes have been proposed for obtaining the gas on a large scale, of which the following,

recommended by St. Claire Deville and Debray, is perhaps the best: The vapor of hydrated sulphuric acid is passed over red-hot platinum, by which it is decomposed into oxygen and sulphurous acid, the latter of which may easily be separated (and made available for the formation of sulphites) by its solubility in water or alkaline solutions. It has been calculated that a cubic metre (35.875 cubic feet) of oxygen costs 8s. 4d. when obtained from chlorate of potash; nearly 4s. 1d. when obtained from magnesia; and only 10d. when obtained from sulphuric acid.

Of the compounds of oxygen, it is unnecessary to speak here, as they are described in the articles on the other chemical elements.

Oxygen was discovered almost simultaneously, in the year 1774, by Priestley and by Scheele, the English chemist having the precedence by a few weeks. Priestley gave it the name of *Dephlogisticated Air*; Scheele termed it *Empyrean Air*; Condorcet shortly afterwards suggested *Vital Air*, as its most appropriate designation; and in 1789, Lavoisier, who, by a series of carefully conducted and very ingenious experiments, proved that the combination of bodies in the air consisted essentially in their chemical combination with oxygen, and thus overthrow the *Phlogiston* (q. v.) theory, gave it the name which it now retains, in consequence of his (erroneously) believing that it possessed a certain property which is described in the article *OXYACIDS*.

#### OXYHYDROGEN MICROSCOPE. See SOLAR MICROSCOPE.

OXYRHYNCHUS, the name of a celebrated Egyptian fish, said to be reverenced throughout Egypt, and sacred to the goddess Athor. Its name in Egyptian is *tha*, and the fish in the hieroglyphic was used for this syllable, and particularly expressed the idea of the body. In the ritual, the deceased particularly stated that he had not caught this fish. The name appears to have comprised the genus *Mormorus*, distinguished by its pointed nose and long dorsal fin. The fish was worshipped in one of the nomes, which was called after it, and the inhabitants held it in such reverence that they would not touch any fish captured by a hook. When the portions of the body of Osiris were flung into the Nile, this fish alone ate one portion of his body. The O. was not eaten in Egypt, except by the natives of the Cynopolites Nomos. Its modern name is *Mizeleh*, which seems retained in the Coptic *Pemga*, the name of the city of Oxyrhynchus. It is represented both in the sculptures and on the coins of the Nome, and was anciently embalmed.—The city of Oxyrhynchus is the modern Behnesch, lying on the west bank of the Nile, in Lower Egypt, near the Bahr-el-Jusuf.

OXYURIS VERMICULARIS is the name now assigned by most zoologists to the intestinal worm described as *Acaris* (q. v.) *vermicularis*, yet it is the original and true Ascaris. For the mode of recognising the presence of this worm, and treating patients suffering from its presence, the reader is referred to the articles *VERMIFUGES* and *WORMS*.

OYER AND TERMINER (Fr. *oïer*, to hear; *terminer*, to determine). A commission of oyer and terminer is granted by the crown to all the judges and others to hear and determine all treasons, felonies, and trespasses; and it is by virtue of this commission that the judges on circuit dispose of criminal cases in the various circuits. Sometimes a special commission of the same kind is issued, authorising the judges to go and try prisoners at other than the ordinary times.

OYSTER (*Ostrea*), a genus of lamellibranchiate molluscs, of the section with a single adductor muscle. See LAMELLIBRANCHIATA. The shell consists of two unequal and somewhat irregularly shaped valves, of laminated and coarsely foliated structure; and the hinge is without tooth or ridge, the valves being held together by a ligament lodged in a little cavity in each. The animal is, in its organisation, among the lowest and simplest of lamellibranchiate molluscs. It has no foot; and, except when very young, no power of locomotion, or organ of any kind adapted to that purpose. Its food consists of animalcules, and also of minute vegetable particles, brought to it by the water, a continual current of which is directed towards the mouth by the action of the gills. The gills are seen in four rows when the valves of the shell are separated, a little within the fringed edge of the mantle. In the most central part is the adductor muscle; towards the hinge is the liver, which is large; and between the adductor muscle and the liver is the heart, which may be

recognised by the brown color of its auricle. The mouth—for, as in the other lamellibranchiata, there is no head—is situated beneath a kind of hood, formed by the union of the two edges of the mantle near the hinge. It is jawless and toothless. The ovaries are very large during the season of reproduction, which extends over certain months in summer, when oysters are out of season for the table. Oysters are hermaphrodite. They produce vast numbers of young. Leenwenhoek calculated that from 3000 to 4000 exist within an O. at once when "sick," "milky" or full of spawn; and according to Poli, one O. produces about 1,200,000 eggs. The eggs are hatched within the shell and minute of the parent, and the young are to be seen swimming slowly in a whitish and mucous or creamy fluid surrounding the gills, which becomes darker and of a muddly appearance when they are about to be expelled. Each young O. is then about 1-120th of an inch in length, and about two millions are capable of being closely packed in the space of a cubic inch. When the parent O. expels the young, and this is done simultaneously by multitudes on an oyster-bank, the water becomes filled up with a thick cloud, and the spawn—called *spat* by fishermen—is wafted away by currents; the greater part, of course, to be generally lost, by being driven to unsuitable situations, as exposed rocks, muddy ground, or sand to which it cannot adhere, or to be devoured by fishes and other marine animals, but some to find an object to which it can attach itself for life. The young come forth furnished with a temporary organ for swimming, ciliated, and provided with powerful muscles for extending it beyond the valves and with drawing it at pleasure; and when the O. has become fixed in its permanent place of abode, this organ, being no longer of any use, has been supposed to drop off, or gradually to dwindle away and disappear. But Dr F. Buckland has recently expressed the opinion, that the swimming organ of the young oyster is the "lungs," and remains as the "lungs" in the mature oyster. In very favorable situations, oysters grow rapidly, so that the Common O. is ready for the table in a year and a half or two years; but in other places, a longer time is required, often about five years.

The species of O. are numerous, and are found in the seas of all warm and temperate climates. None have been found in the coldest parts of the world. The COMMON O. (*O. edulis*) is the only British species. Like it, the other species are generally found where the water is of no great depth; and some of them, also like it, are very abundant in estuaries, where the water is not very salt. The mangrove swamps of warm climates often abound in oysters of excellent flavor (*O. para-ativa*, &c.) adhering to the roots and branches of the trees, within the reach of the tide. Some of the species differ from the common O. not a little in form, as the LONG-BINED O. (*O. Canadensis*) of North Amerien, which is very elongated; and some of them far exceed it in size. Sir J. E. Tennent states that he measured the shell of an edible O. in Ceylon, and found it a little more than 11 inches in length by half as many in breadth; "thus unexpectedly attesting the correctness of one of the stories related by the historians of Alexander's expedition, that in India they had found oysters a foot long." Some species of O. have the valves plated with strong longitudinal plaits.—For the descriptions here given, we are indebted to the kindness of the editor of the "Field."

Young oysters readily attach themselves to the shells of old ones, and thus, in favorable circumstances, oyster-banks increase rapidly, so as to fill up shallow parts of the sea, and to form walls which effectually resist the waves and tide. This is very remarkably the case on the alluvial shores of Georgia and some other parts of North America, where these banks are called *Racoon Banks*, because the racoon, among other animals, visits them to feed upon the oysters. Marshy land extends inwards from 12 to 18 miles from the sea, with tidal rivers meandering through it, and these rivers are kept pretty constant to their channels by the walls of living oysters on both sides. Large bunches of oysters may even be found among the long grass. It is not unusual for the inhabitants of the neighborhood to light a fire, and roast a bunch of oysters on the spot. So abundant are the oysters in many places, that a vessel of 100 tons might be loaded within three times her own length. American oysters, which are of excellent flavor, are an important article of commerce in America, and have begun to be imported (alive) into Britain.

Notwithstanding the prodigious fecundity of the O., however, the beds or banks which yield it for the markets of Britain and other European countries are not sufficiently productive to satisfy the demand, and it is not so much an article of ordinary

food for all classes, as a luxury of the wealthy. The usual mode of taking oysters by dredging is destructive, although, for oyster-beds, which are at all states of the tide covered with a considerable depth of water, nothing better has been devised, and the anxiety of fishermen to make the most of the present opportunity has caused many beds to be almost ruined by over-dredging. But the artificial formation of oyster-beds has been resorted to with great promise of success. It is indeed no novelty, having been practised by the Romans. Pliny says that "the first person who formed artificial oyster-beds was Sergius Orata, who established them at Baiae. . . . This was done by him, not for the gratification of gluttony, but for the sake of gain, as he contrived to make a large income by the exercise of his ingenuity." Sergius Orata lived in the time of Augustus. Among the *vivaria* of later emperors and other wealthy Romans were *ostraria*, specially devoted to oysters; and oyster-culture has never ceased to be practised in Italy, although to an inconsiderable extent, and particularly in Lake Fusaro, the Acheron of Virgil, a muddy salt-water pond, nowhere more than two yards deep. In Britain, it has also long been practised to some extent, particularly on the coasts of Kent and Essex, for the supply of the London market.

In 1864 an act of parliament was passed, giving exclusive rights to a Company called the "Herne Bay, Hampton, and Reculver Oyster Fishing Company," over a certain portion of the shore at Herne Bay, extending about six miles in length by  $1\frac{1}{2}$  in breadth. The oyster-beds fished by the public had, till then, yielded a very small supply, and it was urged that this supply could be largely increased by a well-managed Company. In order that the public should not be injured by this legislation, it was declared by one of the clauses of the Act that "If the Company fail to maintain and cultivate the beds, or to produce well-fed oysters fit for the public market in such quantities as to be of public advantage, all the privileges conferred on the Company would be withdrawn, and the dredging of the beds, as formerly, thrown open to the public to fish."

In 1869, the Board of Trade commissioned Mr Pinwell, Inspector of Oyster Fisheries, to visit the oyster-culture grounds of France, in order to ascertain whether we could gather any useful hints therefrom. In his Report he explained that the English plan, as conducted at Herne Bay, Reculver, Whitstable, Langston Harbor, the Isle of Wight, and other localities, depends on the provision of salt-water tanks or ponds, in which the oysters are kept for a certain time. In France, the system is much more elaborate. He found that the coast is parted off into divisions or districts, each of which is placed under a maritime prefect. Each district is divided and subdivided into smaller portions, managed by commissioners, inspectors, syndics, and watchmen. The determination of "close-time," when oyster-fishing is totally prohibited; the decision how much to fish up, and how much to reserve for re-stocking; the discrimination between public oyster-beds and those which are made over to individuals by "concessions;" the control of the fore-shore; the maintenance of oyster-breeding farms; the prevention of poaching by fishers not belonging to the respective districts—occupy quite an army of officials. Mr Pinwell recommended the adoption of some matters of detail from the French system, but not an imitation of the elaborate official machinery.

In 1872, the enhanced price of oysters in France attracted much public attention. Close observers arrived at an opinion that it was due to three causes—the impoverishment of some of the beds by injudicious dredging; a greatly increased demand for the supply of Germany and Russia; and a private understanding between many of the French Companies, leading to something very like a monopoly. The "Economiste Français" drew a comparison between various dates, in regard to the number of oysters consumed in Paris, and the price per 100. Considering price alone, we find that it was 1.20 francs per 100 in 1840, 2.88 francs in 1856, 4.88 francs in 1860, 7.20 francs in 1868, and no less than 11.20 francs in 1872. Of course, the price charged to foreign consumers augmented in somewhat the same proportions.

In 1874 the free fishers and the public of Herne Bay complained that the Oyster Company in that locality, above adverted to, had not fulfilled the required conditions. The Company, on the other hand, declared that they had spent £100,000 in ten years, and were fairly attending to their engagement. The Board of Trade thereupon sent down Mr Spencer Walpole, an Inspector of Fisheries, to hold a Court of Inquiry at Herne Bay. He decided on a compromise, by which a certain portion

of the ground was to be re-transferred to the public or free fishers; the remainder being left in the possession of the Company, who would hold the exclusive right of fishing thereon as long as they continued to maintain and foster the beds.—It is gratifying to find that oyster-culture is receiving much attention in Australia. Oyster-farms were established both in New South Wales and in Victoria in 1872.

Oysters live equally well in situations where they are constantly under water, and in those which are left dry by the retiring tide. In the latter kind of situations, they instinctively keep their valves closed when the water deserts them. It is in such situations that oyster-culture can be most easily and profitably carried on. Our space will not admit of details, which we would gladly give. Various methods are adopted of preparing the artificial oyster-bed, by providing suitable solid objects for the oysters to attach themselves to. Stones are piled together, and in such a way that there are many open spaces among them; stakes are driven into the mud or sand; bundles of small sticks are fastened to stones or stakes; floors of planks are formed, at a little height above the bottom, with alleys between them, the under surface of the planks being roughened by the adze; and tiles are arranged in various ways, so as to turn to account the whole space at the disposal of the oyster-cultivator as high as the ordinary tides reach. The method must be varied in accordance with the situation, and the probable violence of winds and waves; but sheltered situations are best in all respects; and experience in France seems to prove that tiles covered with cement are preferable to everything that has yet been tried, as convenient for the cultivator, presenting a surface to which oysters readily attach themselves, and from which they can easily be removed, whilst the larger seaweeds do not grow on it so readily as on stones or wood. By the use of tiles, covered with cement, the cultivator is also able easily to remove young oysters from breeding-grounds to feeding-grounds; the best breeding-grounds being by no means those in which the oyster most rapidly attains its greatest size, and that greenish tinge which Parisian epicures so much desire to see, and which is owing to the abundant *confervæ* and green monads of quiet muddy waters.—It has been long known that the oysters of particular localities are finer than those produced elsewhere. Nowhere, perhaps, are finer oysters produced than on some parts of the British coasts. Those of Rumpness, now Richborough, in Kent, were highly esteemed by the Romans, whose epicurism in oysters exceeded that of modern nations.

Of the culinary uses of oysters, it is unnecessary to say anything. Raw oysters, however, are generally believed to be more nutritious and more easily digested, as to many they are more delicious, than oysters cooked in any way; and it does not appear that any such evil consequences ever ensue from eating them, as are known to ensue from eating other kinds of uncooked food. Probably no parasite capable of developing into any form injurious to the human being exists in the oyster.

The genus *Ostrea* gives its name in some zoological systems to a family *Ostreidae*. The fossil species are more numerous than the recent.

The name *O.* is popularly extended to many molluscs not included among the *Ostreidae*, as the Pearl-oyster (*q. v.*).

Oysters raised in artificial beds are called "natives," and are considered very superior to those which are dredged from the natural beds; although to these last the name of "native" would seem more appropriate than to the other. Some years ago, it was estimated that 500,000,000 oysters were consumed annually in London alone, at cost of £100,000; but the supply has since lessened, and the price per 100 greatly increased. A large trade in oysters has sprung up in the United States; that of New York alone being estimated at \$25,000,000 annually.

*Fossil Oysters*.—A single species occurs in the Carboniferous Limestone, and as we rise in the crust of the earth, the genus becomes more and more common, no less than 200 species having been recorded, many of them scarcely distinguishable from the living species. The sub-genus *Gryphaea* was a free shell, with a large thick left valve and small concave right valve. Thirty species have been found in beds of the Oolite and Chalk periods. In the same beds there occurs another form of *Ostrea* with subspiral reversed umbones, to which the subgeneric name *Exogyra* has been given. Forty species of this form have been described.

**OYSTERS, Law as to.** The rule is, that he who has the right of property in the soil or sea-shore is entitled to catch or keep and breed oysters there. But the shore below the medium line of the tides belongs to the crown, and not to any individual.

and it is only by virtue of some grant from the crown that an individual or a corporation can establish an exclusive title to the sea-shore, and in such a case is exclusively entitled to any oyster-beds there. It is thus always by virtue of a grant from the crown that oyster-fishries are claimed as the property of an individual or of a corporation. The acts 31 and 32 Vict. c. 45, however, now enables the Board of Trade to grant parts of the sea-shore of Great Britain to individuals for breeding oysters and mussels, and has given new remedies for the protection of this property. The general law is as follows: Whoever steals oysters or oyster-brood from an oyster-bed which is private property, is guilty of felony; and whoever unlawfully or wilfully uses any dredge, net or instrument within the limits of a private oyster-bed, for the purpose of taking oysters, though none are actually taken, is guilty of a misdemeanour, and is liable to be imprisoned for three months. But persons are not prevented from fishing for floating fish within the limits of an oyster-fishery, if they use nets adapted for floating fish. Certain statutes as old as the time of Richard II. were passed to protect oyster-brood, but these were recently repealed by the Sea Fisheries Act, 1868 (Paterson's "Fishery Laws of the United Kingdom"). Under the convention between England and France, confirmed by the statute 31 and 32 Vict. c. 45, a close season is prescribed for oyster-fishing in the seas between England and France, from 15th June to 1st September, during which time oyster-fishing boats may be boarded by officers of the coast-guard or navy; and oysters illegally caught may be seized and destroyed, and the master is liable to a penalty. In 1877 an Act was passed appointing 15th June to 4th August as a close time for fishing deep-sea oysters, and from 14th May to 4th August for other kinds, in the British seas; it also grants power to prohibit the fishing in any locality for not more than a year. The law as to oysters in Scotland is substantially the same as in England. As to Ireland, the Irish Fishery Acts give power to the Irish Fishery Commissioners to grant a licence to individuals, as is now done in England, to appropriate a certain tract of the shore for the purpose of forming oyster-beds, and thereupon the beds become private property (Paterson's "Fishery Laws" (p. 257). There is also a close season in Ireland for oysters, like what is established under the convention with France.

OYSTER BAY, a favorite watering-place on the north coast of Long Island, New York, U. S., on a deep sheltered bay, opening into Long Island Sound, 25 miles north-east of New York city. It abounds in handsome residences and fine scenery, and offers facilities for fishing, bathing, &c. Pop. in 1870, 10,595.

OYSTER-CATCHER (*Hæmatopus*), a genus of birds of the family *Charadriidae* (q. v.), chiefly inhabiting sea-coasts where they feed on molluscs, crustaceans, annelids, and other marine animals—sometimes even on small fishes. Their legs are of moderate length, like those of the plovers, and, like them, they have no hind-toe. The most remarkable generic distinction is found in the bill, which is long, strong, straight, much compressed and wedge-like toward the point. They are generally said to make use of the bill for opening the shells of oysters and other molluscs; but the late Mr James Wilson expresses a very reasonable doubt on this point. The habits of the British species (*H. ostralegus*), so far as they have been accurately observed, agree with those of the American. It is the only European species, and is common on all parts of the British coasts, on those of continental Europe, the north of Africa, and of the north of Asia. Its whole length is about 16 inches. Its finely-contrasted black and white colors have gained it the name of SEA PIE. It is most abundant on the sea-coast, but often visits inland regions, and sometimes breeds in them. It does not make a nest, but lays its eggs—usually four—on the shingly beach or bare ground. On some of the sandy flat coast of Lincolnshire, the O. is so abundant, that a bushel of the eggs have been collected in a morning by a single fisherman. The American O. is a bird of passage, deserting the northern regions in winter. It is rather larger than the European species, and differs from it in colors, and in greater length and slenderness of bill.

OZENNA (from the Gr. *ozen*, I smell) signifies a discharge of fetid, purulent, or sanguous matter from the nostrils. It is a symptom rather than a disease, and may arise from ulceration of the membrane lining the nostrils, or from caries of the adjacent bones, and may accompany syphilitic, scorbutic, scrofulous, or cancerous affections of those or adjacent parts. A slighter form of ozenna sometimes follows chronic coryza (or cold in the head), malignant scarlatina, and erysipelas of the face.

The discharge is seldom accompanied by acute pain, unless when caused by cancer, sometimes, however, an aching is complained of. The prognosis must depend upon the nature of the disease, of which the discharge is a symptom. The treatment may be divided into the general or constitutional, and the local. The *general treatment* should consist of tonics combined with alteratives, as the preparations of bark with the alkalies, or with the mineral acids; a dry, bracing air, or a temporary removal to the seaside, is also usually of service. If the discharge arises from syphilis or scurvy, the treatment suitable to those diseases should be prescribed. The *local treatment* consists in the inhalation, once or twice a day, of the steam of boiling water, to which a little creosote or carbolic acid has been added; and in more severe cases, in the thorough syringing of the nostril, so as to wash away all collections of matter with a copious stream of warm water, to which a little chloride of zinc has been added (about 30 minims of Burnett's solution to half a pint of water).

OZIE'RI, a town of the island of Sardinia, in the province of Sassari, 26 miles east-south-east from Sassari, amongst the mountains which occupy the centre of the island. It stands in a deep valley, open only to the north, and is therefore peculiarly exposed to cold winds. Pop. (1871) 7965.

O'ZONE (Gr. *ozo*, I smell). It was remarked long ago that a peculiar odor was produced by the working of an electrical machine. Van-Marum found that when electric sparks were passed through a tub containing oxygen, the gas became powerfully impregnated with this odor—which he therefore called the “smell of electricity.” Subsequent writers attributed the phenomenon to the formation of nitric acid, due to a trace of nitrogen mix'd with the oxygen; especially as the gas was found to act energetically upon mercury. This supposed to be explained, these curious results were soon forgotten. But in 1840, Schönbein (q. v.) with remarkable acuteness, made a closer investigation of the question, and arrived at many most curious results, all of which have not even yet been satisfactorily accounted for. The problem remains, in fact, one of the most perplexing, as well as interesting, questions imperfectly resolved in chemistry.

The earlier results of Schönbein were as follow: (1.) When water is decomposed by the voltaic current, the electrodes being of gold or platinum, the oxygen (which appears at the positive pole) possesses in a high degree the smell and the oxidising power developed by Van-Marum by means of friction-electricity. (2.) When the positive electrode is formed of an oxidisable metal, these results are not observed, but the electrode is rapidly oxidised. (3.) The oxygen collected at a platinum electrode retains these properties for an indefinite period, if kept in a closed vessel; but loses them by heating, by the contact of an oxidisable substance, and even by contact with such bodies as charcoal and oxide of manganese. To the substance, whatever it may be, which possesses such powerful chemical affinities, Schönbein gave the name ozone, from its peculiar smell.

In 1845, he shewed that the same substance can be produced by the action of phosphorus on moist air; and suggested that it might be a higher oxide of hydrogen.

De la Rive and Murgnac shortly afterwards, repeating the experiments of Van-Marum, shewed that electric sparks produce ozone even in *pure* and *dry* oxygen; and came to the conclusion, that ozone is oxygen in an *allotropic* state, as diamond is a form of coke or charcoal.

Baumert, in 1858, endeavored to shew that there are two kinds of ozone—one formed from pure oxygen by electric sparks, which he allowed to be allotropic oxygen; the other formed in the voltaic decomposition of water, which he endeavored to prove to be a *teroxide* of hydrogen ( $\text{HO}_3$ ). But Andrews, in 1856, completely refuted this view, by shewing that no such oxide of hydrogen (at least in a gaseous form) is produced in the electrolysis of water; and that ozone, from whatever source obtained, is the same body; and is not a compound, but an allotropic form of oxygen.

In 1860, Andrews and Tait published the results of a series of *volumetric* experiments on this subject, which led to some remarkable conclusions—among which are the following: When the electric discharge is passed through pure oxygen, it contracts. If ozone be oxygen in an allotropic form, it must therefore be denser than oxygen. It was found also that a much greater amount of contrac-

tion, and a correspondingly greater quantity of ozone, were produced by a silent discharge of electricity between fine points, than by a brilliant series of sparks. The contraction due to the formation of the ozone is entirely removed by the destruction of the ozone by heat; and this process can be repeated indefinitely on the same portion of oxygen.

In attempting to determine the density of ozone, they used various bodies to take up the ozone from the oxygen containing it; and met with many very curious results. Thus, if mercury be introduced, it is immediately attacked and oxidised, and yet the oxygen *increases* in volume. If iodine be employed, it is immediately oxidised, and *no change* of volume was observed, though the apparatus would have at once rendered visible a change to the amount of 1-60000th of the bulk of the oxygen. By measuring the contraction produced by electricity in the oxygen, then the effect of introducing a solution of iodide of potassium, and determining the amount of oxygen taken up from the quantity of iodine set free, Andrews and Tait shewed that the density of ozone, if it be allotropic oxygen, must be practically *infinite*—i. e., that ozone must have the density of a *liquid* or a *solid* at least, although existing in the gaseous form. This conclusion is, they say, inevitable, unless we make the very improbable assumption, that when iodine, &c., are exposed to ozone, one portion of the ozone (of volume, as oxygen, equal to the volume of the whole ozone) combines with the iodine, and the other portion is restored to the form of oxygen. The paper from whose statements we have quoted concludes with the suggestion that it is *possible* that, in the formation of ozone, oxygen may be decomposed. This is, of course, contrary to all the received notions of chemistry—but such a supposition would at once reconcile all the apparently contradictory facts connected with this singular body. Soret and Von Babo have recently repeated and verified a few of these results, and the former, by using turpentine as an absorbing substance, and also by measuring its diffusion rate, has endeavored to shew that the density of ozone is 50 per cent. greater than that of oxygen—a result on the whole consistent with the recent experiments of Brodie. Andrews has lately shewn that ozone is rapidly destroyed when shaken up with dry fragments of glass, &c. He has also proved that the effect which is (almost invariably, and sometimes in fine weather powerfully) produced by the air on what are called ozone-test papers—paper steeped in iodide of potassium (and generally spoiled by the addition of starch) which are rendered brown (or blue) by the liberation of iodine—is really due to ozone. He did so by shewing that it acts upon mercury as ozone does, and that it is destroyed by heat at the same temperature. This action is more strongly manifested in the air of the open country than in that of towns; and its absence would seem to imply vitiation of the atmosphere.

## P

P, the sixteenth letter of the English alphabet, was in Hebrew called *Pe*, i. e., mouth, most probably from its original form. P. is the thin letter of the labial series (*p, b, f, v*), and is interchangeable with the other letters of the series. P, in Sanscrit, Greek, and Latin, is replaced by *f* in the Teutonic tongues. See F. Words beginning with *p* in English, and its kindred Teutonic tonguea, are almost all of foreign origin (Slavic, Celtic, Latin), as *pain* (Fr. *peine*, Lat. *pœna*), *plough* (Pol. *plug*), *pit* (Lat. *puteus*, a well). The Greek prep. *apo* (Sans. *upa*) became in Lat. *ab*; Gr. *upo*. Lat. *sub*; Sans. *upa*, Lat. *ob*; but before sharp letters, as *t* and *s*, the original *p* was retained in pronunciation, as is shewn by inscriptions (*aptulit, optimi*). There are remarkable interchanges of *p* with a sharp guttural *k* or *g*. Thus, for Lat. *quis, quod, quam*, the Oscan dialect had *pis, pod, pam*; Lat. *equus, equo*, corresponded to Gr. *hippos* (Aiol. *hikkos*), *pepo*; similarly, Gaelic *mac* (son), *ceathair* (Lat. *quatuor*, four), *coig* (Lat. *quinque*, five), correspond to Welsh *map*, *pedwar* (Gr. *pettores*), *pump* (Gr. *pente* or *penpe*). In Gr. *p* is sometimes replaced by *t*, as *tis, tessares*, for *pis, pettores*. In such words as *redemption, consumption*, *p* has been introduced as an intermediary between the incompatible sounds *m* and *t*. The initial *p* of Latin words has for the most part passed into French unaltered; in other positions, *p* has become *v*; thus, Fr. *évéque, cheveu, décevoir, pauvre*, from Lat. *episcopus, capillus, decipere, pauper*.

**PACA** (*Coelogenys*), a genus of rodent quadrupeds, allied to the agoutis, civets, and capybara, and inhabiting Brazil, Guiana, and some of the West India Islands. The dentition very nearly resembles that of the agoutis. The cheek-bones are prodigiously developed, in a way of which no example exists in any other mammalian animal, so that the zygomatic arches enclose a large hollow space, whilst the bone also descends to an unusual depth from the arch, even below the lower jaw-bone. Within this structure, which gives an extraordinary breadth and peculiar aspect to the face, is a sac in each cheek, opening in front, and lined with a fold of the skin of the face. The whole of this seems to be intended to preserve the true cheek-pouches from external shocks. The cheek-pouches open from the mouth in the usual way, and are capable of very great distention. The lip is cloven; the ears are small; the eyes are large and full; the neck is short; the tail is a mere tubercle; the feet have each five toes; the legs are thick; the back is rounded. The form and gait are clumsy, yet the P. (*C. pacca*) is very quick and active. It lives in moist grounds, burrowing like the rabbit, but not so deeply; its burrow, however, is always provided with three openings. It feeds on vegetable substances, and often does great damage to plantations of sugar-cane. It is one of the largest rodents, being about two feet long. It is generally of a dark brown color, with four rows of white spots along the sides, the throat and belly white. A lighter-colored species has been described, but is perhaps a mere variety. The flesh of the P. is much esteemed, and is very fat.

**PACAY** (*Prosopis dulcis*), a tree of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Mimosæ*; a native of Peru, of rather large size, with a broad head; producing pods from twenty inches to two feet long, which contain black seeds imbedded in a sweet flaky substance as white as snow. This flaky substance is used as an article of food and much relished by the Peruvians.

**PACE** (Lat. *passus*), in its modern acceptation, is the distance, when the legs are

extended in walking, between the heel of one foot and that of the other. Among disciplined men the pace becomes of constant length, and as such is of the utmost value in determining military movements, the relative distances of corps and men being fixed by the number of paces marched, and so on. The pace in the British army is 2½ feet for ordinary marching, and 3 feet for "double-quick" or running time.—With the Romans, the pace had a different signification, and it is important to bear the distinction in mind, when reading of distances in Latin works; the single extension of the legs was not with them a pace, (*passus*), but a step (*gradus*); their pace (*passus*) being the interval between the mark of a heel and the next mark of the same heel, or a double step. This pace was equivalent to 4½ English feet. The pace was the Roman unit in itinerary measure; the mile being 1000 paces, or 5000 Roman feet, equal to 917 of an English mile. See MILE. Whether measurements were effected by actually counting the paces, or by the time occupied, is not clear; but either method would, with disciplined troops, give a safe result.

In the middle ages, writers confound accounts of distances by allusion to a geometrical pace, a measure which varied with different authors.

PACHOMIUS, an Egyptian monk of the 4th c., is held in high estimation by the Roman Catholic church, as being the first to substitute for the free asceticism of the solitary re-cluse, a regular cenobitic system. He was born towards the close of the 3d c., was brought up as a pagan, but converted to Christianity by the kindness of certain Christians whom he encountered at Thebes. About 340 A.D., at Tabenna, an island in the Nile, he founded the first monastic institution. The members agreed to follow certain rules of life and conduct drawn up by P., and to subject themselves to his control and visitation. He also established the first convent for nuns, which was under the presidency of his sister, and labored with so much diligence and zeal, that at his death, according to Palladius, not fewer than 1000 monks and nuns were under his inspection. The various writings extant under the name of P. are—"Regule Monastice" (of doubtful genuineness); "Monit.", SS. PP. Pachomii et Theodori," "Epistole et Verba Mystica" (a farrago of undistinguishable allegory), and "Præcepta S. Pachomii." See "Acta Sanctorum," vol. iii.

PACHYDERMATA (Gr. thick-skins), in the system of Cuvier, an order of Mammalia, including part of the *Bruta* (Rhinoceros, Elephant) and all the *Belluae*. (Horse, Hippopotamus, Tapir, Hog, &c.) of Linnaeus, besides one genus (*Hyrax* or Daman) of the Linnean *Gires*. It has been often described as less natural than any other of Cuvier's mammalian orders, as it consists of animals among which there are wide diversities, and the associating characters are rather negative than positive; but it is now universally received by naturalists as indicating a real, though not a close affinity; and when we extend our view from existing to fossil species, numerous connecting links present themselves. As defined by Cuvier, the order consists of those hoofed mammalia (*Ungulata*) which are not ruminants; all of which possess, as a more positive character, a remarkable thickness of skin. This order he divides into three sections—(1.) *Proboscidea*, having a prolonged snout or proboscis, through which the nostrils pass as elongated tubes, a powerful organ of prehension, and a delicate organ of touch, and having also five toes on each foot, enclosed in a very firm horny skin; (2.) *Ordinaria*, destitute of proboscis, although in some (Tapirs), there is such an elongation of the upper lip and nostrils as approximates to it; and the nose is employed by hogs, &c., in seeking their food, not only as an organ of smell, but as an instrument for turning up the ground, and as an organ of touch; the number of toes varies, four, three, or two on each foot; those with an even number of toes, having in the cleft foot a resemblance to the *Ruminantia*; and (3.) *Solidungula*, in which the foot has but one apparent toe, enclosed in a hoof. Some naturalists have thought it better to separate the *Solidungula* or *Equidae* (q. v.) from the P. as a distinct order; whilst others have enlarged instead of restricting the limits of the order, by adding, as a fourth section, the *Herbivorous Cetacea*.

Those P. which have a number of toes differ completely from the mammalia having claws (*Unguiculata*) in their inability to bend their toes in order to seize any object. Some of the *Edentata* have very large hoof-like claws, but this difference still subsists. The fore-limbs of the P. are also incapable of any rotatory motion, serving for support and locomotion only, not at all for prehension; the metatar-

sal and metacarpal bones being consolidated as in the *Ruminantia*, and they have no clavicles.

The largest terrestrial mammalia belong to this order. Most of the P. are of large size, although the damans are a remarkable exception, and some of the hog family are also comparatively small. Most of them have a clumsy form, with a slow and awkward gait; but they are capable of activity beyond what might be supposed, and sometimes move at a pretty rapid pace. Gracefulness and fleetness are characteristics of the otherwise exceptional *Solidungula*. The *P. Ordinaria* have generally great strength, and the larger ones push their way through the entangled thickets of tropical forests, bending or breaking the banyans, small trees, and branches which oppose their progress, their thick hides resisting the spines and broken branches by which the skins of other animals would be pierced. The horse and other *Solidungula* are not inhabitants of forests and jungles, but generally of grassy plains, and their hides are much less thick and hard than those of most of the Pachydermata.

The physiognomy of the P. in general is rather dull and unexpressive, the eyes being small, and having that character of which a familiar example is found in the common hog. When enraged, however, they manifest their fierceness in their eyes; and although, in general, mild and gentle, they are capable of being aroused to great fury.

The skeleton of the *P. Ordinaria* and *Proboscidea* is strong and massive; the neck short, the processes of its vertebrae strongly developed; the skull affording a large surface for the muscles which support and move it.

The P. generally feed on vegetable substances. Some are omnivorous. The digestive organs are more simple than in the *Ruminantia*, but exhibit considerable diversity. The stomach is simple in some, and in others is more or less completely divided into sacs, approaching to one of the most remarkable characters of the *Ruminantia*. The intestines are generally longer than in the *Ruminantia*. The dentition exhibits considerable diversity; the adaptation to vegetable food being the most prevalent character. The most important peculiarities of the dentition and digestive organs are noticed in the articles on particular families and genera.

PACIFIC OCEAN, the largest of the five great Oceans (see OCEAN), lies between America on the east, and Asia, Malasia, and Australasia on the west. The name "Pacific," given to it by Magellan, the first European navigator who traversed its wide expanse, is doubtless very appropriate to certain portions of this ocean; but, as a whole, its special claims to the epithet are at the least doubtful, though the name has by long usage become too well established to be easily supplanted by any other.

The greatest length of the P. O. from the Arctic (at Behring's Strait) to the Antarctic circles is 9200 miles, and its greatest breadth, along the parallel of latitude 5° N., about 10,800 miles; while its area may be roughly estimated at 80,000,000 English square miles, or about 2-5ths of the whole surface of the earth. Its form is rhomboidal, with one corner incomplete (at the south), and its surface is studded with numberless islands, either scattered or in groups; these, however, are chiefly confined to the western side. Along the whole eastern side, there is a belt of sea of varying width, which, with a very few exceptions, is wholly free from islands. The deepest sounding yet found (in N. lat. 11° 24', E. long. 148° 16') in the P. O. is 26,850 feet, or above 5 miles—nearly equal to the height of the highest mountain on the globe.

The coasts of the P. O. present a general resemblance to those of the Atlantic, and the similarity in the outline of the western coasts of each is even striking, especially north of the equator; but the shores of the former, unlike those of the latter, are sinuous, and, excepting the north-east coast of Asia, little indented with inlets. The shore on the American side is bold and rocky, while that of Asia varies much in character.

Though the P. O. is by far the largest of the five great oceans, being about equal to the other four in extent, the proportion of land drained into it is comparatively insignificant. Its basin includes only the narrow strip of the American continent to the west of the Andes and Rocky Mountains; Melanesia (with the exception of almost the whole of Australia), which contains few rivers, and none of them of large

size; the Indo-Chinese states, China Proper, with the east part of Mongolia, and Manchuria in the Asiatic continent.

**Winds.**—The trade-winds of the Pacific have certain peculiarities, which have only lately been discovered. In general, they are not found to preserve their peculiar characteristics except within certain limits, thus, the south-east trades are found to blow steadily only between  $90^{\circ}$  and  $140^{\circ}$  of west longitude; while the north-east trades are similarly fluctuating, except between long.  $115^{\circ}$  w. and  $214^{\circ}$  w. Beyond these limits, their action is in whole or in part neutralised by the monsoons and other periodical winds peculiar to the tropical regions of the Pacific. In Polynesia, especially near the New Hebrides group, hurricanes are of frequent occurrence from November to April, but they exhibit few of the terrible characteristics which distinguish the hurricanes of the West Indies and Indian Ocean. North and south of the tropical zone, the winds exhibit little periodicity, being found to blow from all parts of the compass at any given season of the year, though a general westerly direction is most frequent among them. On the coast of Patagonia and at Cape Horn, west winds prevail during the greater part of the year, while in the Sea of Okhotsk they are of rare occurrence. The frightful Typhoon (q. v.) is the terror of mariners in the Chinese seas, and may occur at all seasons of the year. There are many other winds and storms, such as white squalls, cyclones, "tempestades," &c., which are confined to particular localities, and will be found noticed under other heads, and also under **STORMS**.

**Currents.**—The currents of the P. O., though less marked in character and effects than those of the Atlantic, are yet of sufficient importance to require a brief notice. The *Southern Pacific current* takes its rise south of Van Diemen's Land, and flows eastward at the rate of half a mile per hour, dividing into two branches about long.  $93^{\circ}$  w., the northern branch or *Current of Mentor* turning northward, and gradually losing itself in the counter equatorial current; the southern branch continuing its eastward course till it is subdivided by the opposition of Cape Horn into two branches, one of which, the *cold Current of Peru* or *Humboldt's current*, advances northward along the west coast of South America, becoming finally absorbed in the equatorial current; the other washing the coast of Brazil, and becoming an Atlantic current. The P. O., like the Atlantic, also possesses its equatorial current, separated into a northern and southern current by the equatorial counter-current. It sweeps across the whole ocean from east to west. Two subdivisions of the southern current, called respectively the "current of Rossel" and the "warm current of Australia," flow, the one through the Polynesian Archipelago to New Guinea, and the other along the east coast of Australia. The northern equatorial current, after reaching the coast of Asia, turns north-east, washing the shores of China and Japan, under the name of the *Black* or *Japan current*; it then sends off a branch along the coast of Kamtschatka, and advances eastward till it becomes lost on the north-west coast of North America. There are other minor currents, the most remarkable of which is that of Fleurieu, which describes a kind of irregular circle with a radius of about 240 miles. It is situated in lat.  $25^{\circ}$ — $40^{\circ}$  n., and long.  $138^{\circ}$ — $155^{\circ}$  w. All these currents have their corresponding counter-currents.

There are two "sargassos" or weedy seas of considerable extent in the P. O., one lying  $15^{\circ}$  east-south-east of New Zealand; the other, and by far the larger, about  $15^{\circ}$  west of San Francisco in California. There is also a large region lying nearly half way between Cape Horn and New Zealand, which seems to correspond to the deserts on land, as mariners report it almost wholly destitute of any signs of life either in sea or air.

**History.**—The existence of this ocean first became known to Europeans through Columbus, who had received accounts of it from some of the natives of America, though it was first seen by Balboa, September 29, 1518, and first traversed by Magellan eight years afterwards; but its size, limits, and the number and position of its islands, &c., were little known till long afterwards. Captain Cook deserves the first place among the investigators of the P. O.; and after him come Anson, the two Bougainvilles, La Perouse, Carteret, Vancouver, Krusenstern, Kotzebue, &c. But the most thoroughly scientific examination of its physical condition is that accomplished by the "Challenger" Expedition of 1873-76.

PACIFIAN CORPUSCLES are very remarkable structures appended to the nerves. In the human subject, they are found in great numbers in connection with

the nerves of the hand and foot, and sparingly on other spinal nerves, and on the plexuses of the sympathetic, but never on nerves of motion. They always present a *proximal end*, attached to the nerves by a stalk of fibrous tissue prolonged from the neurilemma, and occasionally one-tenth of an inch long; and a *distal end*, lying free in the connective or areolar tissue. In the human subject, the corpuscles vary in length from one-twentieth to one-tenth of an inch. They are usually seen very readily in the mesentery of the cat, appearing as pellucid oval grains, rather smaller than hemp-seed. The microscopic examination of these bodies discloses an internal structure of a very remarkable kind. They consist, first, of a series of membranous capsules, from thirty to sixty or more in number, enclosed one within the other; and secondly, of a single nervous fibre, of the tubular kind, enclosed in the stalk, and advancing to the central capsule, which it traverses from beginning to end, and where it finally terminates in a fixed swollen extremity. The ten or fifteen innermost capsules are in contact with one another, while the rest are separated by a clear space containing fluid, which is so abundant as to constitute far the largest portion of the bulk of the entire corpuscle. Such are the views of Pacini (as given in his "Nuovi Organi Scoperte nel Corpo Umano," 1840), who is usually regarded as their discoverer, although they had been noticed and roughly described nearly a century before by Vater, of Henle, and of Todd and Bowman; but later observations made by Huxley, Leydig, Köllicker, and others, shew that the question of their true nature is still an open one. Huxley asserts that their central portion is solid, and not hollow; that in birds, and in the human hand there is no fluid between the laminae—and indeed, that the laminae themselves have no real existence—the Pacinian corpuscle being merely a solid mass of connective tissue (a thickened process of the neurilemma of the nerve to which it is attached), whose *apparent lamination* depends on the regular disposition of its elastic elements. If Pacini's view of these structures be correct, there is probably some general analogy between the electric organs of the torpedo and these corpuscles; at present, we know nothing with certainty regarding their office.

**PACKFO'NG**, or Peto'ng, a Chinese alloy or white metal, consisting of arsenic and copper. It is formed by putting two parts of arsenic in a crucible with five parts of copper turnings, or finely divided copper; the arsenic and copper require to be placed in alternate layers, and the whole is covered with a layer of common salt, and pressed down. When melted, the alloy contains nearly the whole of the arsenic, and is yellowish-white in color when in the rough state, but takes a fine white polish resembling silver. It is not very ductile, and cannot be fused without decomposition, as the arsenic is easily dissipated. It was formerly much used in this country, as well as China and India, for making the pans of small scales, dial-plates, and a variety of other articles requiring nicety of make, such as graduated scales for philosophical instruments. It is probably never imported now, the nickel alloys of Europe having quite superseded its use; in China, however, it is still extensively employed.

**PA'CKHORSE**, a horse employed in the carriage of goods, which are either fastened on its back in bundles, or, if weighty, are placed in panniers, slung one on each side across the horse's back. The saddle to which the bundles were fastened consisted of two pieces of wood, curved so as to fit the horse's back, and joined together at the ends by other two straight pieces. This frame was well padded underneath, to prevent injury to the horse's back, and was firmly fastened by a girth. To each side of the saddle, a strong hook was attached, for the purpose of carrying packages, panniers, &c. Panniers were sometimes simply slung across the horse's back with a pad under the band. The panniers were wicker baskets, and of various shapes, according to the nature of their usual contents, being sometimes long and narrow, but most generally having a length of three feet or upwards, a depth of about two-thirds of the length, and a width of from one to two feet. The packhorse with panniers was at one time in general use for carrying merchandise, and for those agricultural operations for which the horse and cart are now employed; and in the mountainous regions of Spain and Austria, and in other parts of the world, it still forms the sole medium for transport; though the mule has, especially in Europe, been substituted for the horse.

An army requires to be accompanied by several thousand pack-animals, sc

times horses, but preferably mules; and in Asia, commonly camels, or even elephants. Pack-saddles are variously fitted, according to the objects to be carried: some for provisions or ammunition; others for carrying wounded men, tents, and in mountain-warfare, even small cannon. In battle, the immediate reserves of small-arm ammunition are borne in the rear of divisions by pack-animals; the heavy reserves being in wagons between the army and its base of operations.

PACOURY-UVA, a sweet and delicious Brazilian fruit, a large berry, produced by the *Platonia insignis*, a tree of the natural order *Clusiaceæ*. The seeds have the taste of almonds.

PACTO'LUS, anciently the name of a small brook of Lydia, in Asia Minor, which rises on the northern slope of Mount Tmolus (modern *Buz Dagh*), flows north past Sardis (*Sart*), and empties itself into the Hermus (*Kodus*). It is never more than ten feet broad, and one foot deep. The sands or mud of P. were long famous in antiquity for the particles of gold dust which they contained, and which are supposed to have been carried down by its waters from the bosom of Tmolus—a hill rich in metals. The collection of these particles, according to legend, was the source of Croesus's vast wealth. But as early even as the time of Strabo, P. had ceased to yield any of the precious dust. The brook is now called *Sarabat*.

PA'C'TUM ILLI'CITUM is, in the law of Scotland, a contract or agreement for some illegal purpose, i. e., a purpose either expressly prohibited by statute, or by the general policy of the law. Thus, an immoral contract between a man and woman would be held void on the ground that the law disapproves practices *contra bonos mores*. A contract between a client and agent, called a *pactum de quota citis*, whereby a share of the property which is the subject of litigation is given to the agent instead of his usual fees, is void in most cases; though it is often difficult to determine what contracts fall within this rule. The courts, however, have construed very jealously every contract which tends to corrupt the administration of the law, and hence an agreement between a town and country agent to divide the profits has been held a *pactum illicitum*. So agreements by a client to give an excessive sum to his law-agent as a gift have been often set aside.—In England, similar doctrines prevail, though the phrase *pactum illicitum*, which was borrowed from the Roman law, is not used, contracts of this description being technically described as illegal contracts.

PADA'NG, the capital of the Dutch government of the west coast of Sumatra, is situated in  $0^{\circ} 59' 30''$  s. lat., and  $100^{\circ} 20' 30''$  e. long., and has about 12,000 inhabitants. The Padang flows through the town, but is only navigable for small vessels, the larger requiring to anchor in the roadstead, about three miles distant. On the left bank, stand the houses of the natives, unsightly bamboo erections, elevated about eight feet from the ground by posts of the coco-nut tree, and covered with leaves. The government buildings, houses of the Europeans and Chinese, &c., are on the right, and mostly built of wood or stone, and roofed with tile. P. is picturesquely enclosed by a semicircle of mountains, behind which rises a loftier chain, two being volcanoes. There are a Protestant church, a Roman Catholic church, flourishing schools, a fort, military hospital, government workshops, large warehouses, &c. An agent of the Netherlands Trading Company (q. v.) resides at Padang. Being the centre of the exports and imports of Sumatra's west coast, P. has a lively trade, not only with Java, the other islands of the Eastern Archipelago, and Europe, but also with the interior of the island.

The climate is considered healthy, although the heat is great. Colonel Nahuys found the thermometer range from  $70^{\circ}$  to  $80^{\circ}$  at 6 A.M., from  $82^{\circ}$  to  $88^{\circ}$  at noon,  $84^{\circ}$  to  $90^{\circ}$  at 2 P.M.,  $78^{\circ}$  to  $84^{\circ}$  at 6 P.M., and from  $72^{\circ}$  to  $80^{\circ}$  at 10 in the evening.

The governor resides at a country-house about two and a half miles above P., and rules over a territory stretching, from the Residency of Bencoolen (which has a population of 112,000 souls, and stands immediately under the government at Batavia), north-west over seven degrees of latitude. It is divided into the residencies of Lower Padang, Upper Padang, and Tapanoeli (*Tapanuli*); the population in 1870 being 1,600,780 natives, 2178 Europeans, and nearly 8000 Chinese.

Lower Padang was the first district of the west coast of Sumatra which submitted to the Dutch, who had formed a settlement at Padang as early as 1663, and by repeated wars, gradually extended their territory.

Upper Padang lies to the north-west of the lower province from which it is separated by a chain of lofty mountains, some of which, as the Singalang, Merapie, and Sago, attain to nearly 10,000 feet in height; Merapie being an active volcano, the last eruptions of which were in 1846 and 1855, through it sent forth volumes of smoke in 1861. This residency possesses the most lovely districts of the island, or of any tropic land, the mountain slopes being studded with villages, rice-fields, coco-nut and coffee-trees, of which last, it is calculated that there are 82,000,000 in Upper Padang. In addition to the coffee-culture, gambier, cassia, pepper, ratans, indigo, caoutchouc, &c., are largely produced, and gold, iron, copper, lead, and quick-silver are found. In the district of Tamah Datar is the town of Paggeroejeng, formerly the capital of the powerful kingdom of Menangkabu, and the residence of the king.

Tapanoeli, the remaining residency under the government of Sumatra's west coast, lies north-west from Upper Padang. The independent spirit of the inland natives has caused the Dutch much trouble, but each fresh outbreak only extends their territory and power further into the interior, and towards the north-west of the island.

PADDLE, probably the precursor of the OAR (q. v.), and still its substitute among barbarous nations, is a wooden implement consisting of a wide flat blade with a short handle, by means of which the operator spoons the water towards him. In canoes for only one rafter, a double paddle is generally used, which is dipped alternately on either side: the inhabitants of Greenland are especially skillful in this operation. The action of the paddle is the same as that of the oar. The paddle-line, however, one advantage—viz., that the rafter faces the bow of his boat, and therefore sees what is before him. In threading narrow streams, &c., this is an appreciable gain.

PADDLE-WHEEL—one of the appliances in steam-vessels by which the power of the engine is made to act upon the water and produce locomotion—is a skeleton wheel of iron, on the outer portion of whose radii flat boards, called floats or paddles, are fixed, which beat upon the water, and produce, continuously, the same effect as is given, in an intermittent manner, by the blades of oars. The use of paddle-wheels in conjunction with steam as a motive-power dates from about the commencement of the present century, but the employment of the paddle-wheel itself is as ancient as the time of the Egyptians. A specimen is also known to have been tried in Spain in the 16th century.

A certain loss of power is involved, as the full force of the engine on the water is only experienced when the float is vertical, and as on entering and leaving the water the power is mainly employed in depressing or lifting the particles of water. This objection has great force at the moment of starting, or when progress is very slow, as is illustrated by the small power a paddle steamer evinces when trying to tug a stranded vessel off a sandbank; but when in full progress, the action is less impeded by this circumstance, the water in front of the wheel being depressed, and that shaft being thrown into the form of a wave. The extent of the immersion much influences the economy of power, as will be readily understood if the consequences of immersion up to the centre of the wheel be imagined. An immersion somewhat over the top of the lowest float is about the most advantageous, and in order that the floats may be as nearly as possible vertical when they strike the water, it is advisable to give the wheel as large a diameter as possible, and to place the axis at the highest available point in the vessel.

To overcome the drawbacks to the radial wheel, Elijah Galloway patented, in 1829, the *Feathering Paddle-wheel*, in which the floats are mounted on axes, and are connected by rods with a common centre, which revolves upon a pin placed eccentrically to the axis of the paddle-wheel. By this method, the floats are kept, while immersed, at right angles to the surface of the water. So long as the water is smooth the gain is great, consequently feathered floats are much used in river-steamers; but for ocean-steamer the liability to derangement, perhaps at a critical period, is a great objection to their use.

The paddle-wheel, in revolving, imparts both a forward velocity to the vessel and a backward velocity to the water. The latter is called the *slip*, and sometimes bears a very large and wasteful proportion to the former. The absolute velocity of the paddle floats is equal to the sum of the slip and the forward motion of the ship, so that the wheel always revolves faster than the ship makes way.

PADDY, or Paddle, the name commonly applied in India to rice in the husk. It is the Tamil and the Malay name. See RICE.

PADELLA (Ital. a frying-pan; plur. *padelle*), a shallow vessel of metal or earthenware used in illuminations. The illumination of St Peter's at Rome, and other large buildings in Italy, is effected by the tasteful arrangement of large numbers of these little pans, which are converted into lamps by partly filling them with tallow or other grease, and placing a wick in the centre. This mode of illumination was first adopted on a large scale in Great Britain on the occasion of the marriage of the Prince of Wales with the Princess Alexandra, when the inhabitants of Edinburgh produced by this means a most magnificent illumination of their city.

PA'DERBORN, the chief town of a district in the Prussian province of Westphalia, situated in  $51^{\circ} 43' n.$  lat., and  $8^{\circ} 46' e.$  long., in a pleasant and fruitful district, is built at the source of the Pader, which bursts forth from below the cathedral with sufficient force to drive mills within 20 paces of its point of exit. Pop. (1871) 18,727. P. has narrow, dark, old-fashioned streets, presenting no special attractions, although it has some interesting buildings, as, for instance, the fine old cathedral, completed in 1148, with its two magnificent facades, and containing the silver coffin in which are deposited the remains of St Liborius. It is the seat of a bishop and chapter, and of an administrative court. The manufactures of P., which are not very considerable, include tobacco, starch, hats, and wax-cloths, and there are several breweries, distilleries, and sugar-refineries in the town, which carries on a considerable trade in cattle, corn, and oils. P. is one of the important stations on the Great Westphalia Railway. P., which ranked till 1803 as a free imperial bishopric, owes its foundation to Charlemagne, who nominated the first bishop in 796. Several diets were held during the middle ages at P., which at that period ranked as one of the most flourishing of the Hanseatic Cities, while it was also numbered among the Free Imperial Cities. In 1604, it was forcibly deprived by the prince-bishop, Theodo[r] of Fürstenburg, of many of the special rights and prerogatives which it had enjoyed since its foundation, and compelled to acknowledge the Roman Catholic as the predominant church, in the place of Protestantism, which had been established during the time of Luther. In 1808, P. was attached as an hereditary principality to Prussia, and after being for a time incorporated in the kingdom of Westphalia, was restored to Prussia in 1813, and incorporated in the Westphalian circle of Minden.

PA'DIHAM, a large chapelry and township, in the higher division of the hundred of Blackburn, seated on an eminence springing from the north bank of the Calder, and reached by the Rose Grove station of the Lancashire and Yorkshire Railway, and also by the Leeds and Liverpool Canal. It is about 9 miles north-east of Blackburn. The cotton trade employs a great proportion of the population—(1871) 6675—but coal-mines and extensive quarries also add to industrial activity and the prosperity of P.; which has been greatly improved in appearance recently by several new streets.

PADILLA, Juan de, one of the most popular heroes in Spanish history, was a scion of a Toledoan family, and was appointed by the Emperor Charles V. military commandant of Saragossa. While he was so employed, a formidable rebellion, caused by the excessive taxes which the emperor imposed on the Spaniards, to defray the cost of his various wars in Italy, Germany, and the Low Countries, broke out among the towns (*comunidades*) of Castile, and the rebels, who were known as *communeros*, called upon P. to put himself at their head. The introduction of the religious element into the quarrel tended greatly to strengthen the insurgents, and for an instant P. was the ruler of Spain, and formed a new junta to carry on the government. He was successful in a number of enterprises undertaken against the royalist party; but on 23d April 1521, was completely beaten by the royalists at Villalos. This conflict decided the fate of the rebellion and of P. himself, who was taken prisoner, and next day beheaded.

His wife, Dona María de Pacheco, rallied the wrecks of the rebel army, and for a long time held Toledo against the royalist besieging army, and after its fall, retired to Portugal, where she died soon afterwards. With P. and his wife expired the last remnant of the ancient freedom of Spain. Numerous poems and dramas celebrate their deeds.

PADI'SHAH, in Turkish Padishah (Persian *padi*, protector or throne, *shah*, prince), one of the titles of the Sultan of the Ottoman Empire, and of the Shah of Persia. Formerly, this title was accorded only to the kings of France among European monarchs, the others being called *Kral*, king. It was subsequently allowed to the Emperor of Austria, and still later, by a special article in the treaty of Kotsbuk-Kainardji (10th January 1778), to the autocrat of All the Russias. Padishah was the title assumed by Baber and his successors on the throne of Delhi.

PADRO'N, a very ancient town of Spain, in the province of Coruña, 15 miles south-west of Santiago, on the Bar, a few miles from the coast. P. being the place at which the body of Santiago is said to have landed itself, was formerly an important place of pilgrimage. Pop. 6090.

PA'DUA (Ital. *Padoea*), capital of the province of the same name in Northern Italy, stands on a beautiful plain on the Bacchiglione, 28 miles by railway, west-south-west of Venice. It is surrounded by walls and ditches, and is fortified by bastions. Its houses are lofty, supported for the most part on long rows of arches, generally pointed; and most of its streets, especially in the older quarters, are narrow, dark, dirty, and ill-paved. There are, however, several handsome gates, as those of San Giovanni, Savonarola, and Falconetto; a number of fine squares, of which the Prato della Valle is the largest and the finest, and is surrounded by a stream, and planted with trees; and several magnificent buildings. Of these, the Café Pedrocchi is esteemed the finest edifice of the kind in Italy. Portions of a Roman edifice were discovered while the foundations of this building were being made, and the marbles found now adorn the pavement, &c., of the *salone*. The Palazzo della Municipalità, built 1172-1219, is the most peculiar and most national in the city. It is an immense building, forming one side of the market-place, rests wholly on arches, and is surrounded by a loggia (q. v.). Its east end is covered with shields and armorial bearings, and its roof is said to be the largest unsupported by pillars in the world. Its hall is 267½ feet long, and 59 feet wide, is covered with mystical and metaphorical paintings, and contains a monument of Livy, the Roman historian, and a bust of Belzoni, the traveller, both natives of this city. The other chief edifices are the cathedral, the church of Sant' Antonio, a beautiful building in the Pointed style, with several Byzantine features, and remarkably rich and splendid in its internal decorations; and the churches of San Giorgio and of Santa Giustina; all of them richly decorated with paintings, sculptures, &c. The university of P., the most famous establishment in the city, was celebrated as early as the year 1221. It embraces 61 professors and other teachers, and is attended by about 1000 students. Connected with the university are an anatomical theatre and a botanical garden, both dating from the 16th c., and each the first of its kind in Europe. There is also a museum of natural history, an observatory, a chemical laboratory, and a library of 120,000 volumes and 1500 manu-scripts. There are also numerous palaces, theatres, and hospitals. Pop. (1872) 52,011.

P., the Roman *Patavium*, is one of the most ancient towns of Italy. According to a wide-spread belief of antiquity, alluded to by Virgil, it was founded by the Trojan chief Antenor, but we really know nothing of its history until it became a Roman town. During the first centuries of the empire, it was the most flourishing city in the north of Italy, on account of its great woollen manufactures, and could return to the census more persons wealthy enough to be ranked as *equites* than any other place except Rome. But in 452 Attila utterly razed it to the ground. It was, however, rebuilt by Narset, again destroyed by the Lombards, but once again rose from its ashes, and became a very famous city in the middle ages. It fell into the hands of the Carrara family in 1316, and in 1405 it was conquered by Venice, the fortunes of which it has since shared.

PADU'CAH, a city of Kentucky, U. S., on the south bank of the Ohio River, just below the mouth of the Tennessee River, 322 miles below Louisville. It is the entrepôt of a fertile country, and has a large trade by the rivers, the Louisville, Paducah, and South-western and the Paducah and Memphis Railways. It contains commercial buildings, 4 banks, 8 shipyards, steam saw-mills, extensive manufacturing establishments, and 15 churches. Pop. (1870) 6866.

PADU'LA, a town of South Italy, in the province of Salerno, 52 miles south-east of the town of Salerno, in a mountainous district. Below P. are the ruins of

the once famous and magnificent monastery, *La Certosa di S. Lorenzo*, depoiled by the French during their occupation of Calabria. Pop. (1871) 8556.

PÆ'AN (of doubtful etymology), the name given by the ancient Greeks to a kind of lyric poetry originally connected with the worship of Apollo. The oldest poems, as we learn from Homer, appear to have been either hymns addressed to that deity for the purpose of appeasing his wrath ("Iliad," i. 473), or thanksgiving odes, sung after danger was over and glory won ("Iliad," xxiii. 891). Nevertheless, at a later period, they were addressed to other deities also. Thus, according to Xenophon, the Lacedæmonians sung a paean to Poseidon after an earthquake, and the Greek army in Asia one to Zeus.

PÆDO-BAPTISM. See BAPTISM, INFANT.

PÆ'ONY (*Paeonia*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Ranunculaceæ*; having large flowers, with five persistent, unequal, leafy, and somewhat leathery sepals, 5–10 petals, many stamens, and 2–5 germinous, which are crowned with a fleshy recurved stigma. The leaves are compound, the leaflets often variously and irregularly divided. The fibres of the root are often thickened into tubers. The species are large, herbaceous perennials, or rarely half-shrubby; natives of Europe, Asia, and the north-west of America. None of them are truly indigenous in Britain, although one (*P. corallina*) has found admittance into the English Flora. On account of the beauty of their flowers, some of them are much cultivated in gardens, particularly the COMMON P. (*P. officinalis*); a native of the mountain-woods of the south of Europe, with crimson or blood-red flowers. A variety with double flowers is common.—The WHITE P. (*P. albiflora*), is another favorite species. It is a native of the central parts of Asia. Its flowers are fragrant.—The TREE P., CHINESE P., or MOUTAN (*P. Moutan*), is a half-shrubby plant, a native of China and Japan. In favorable circumstances, it attains a very large size, and a height of twelve feet or more. It has been long cultivated in China and Japan; and is now also a favorite ornamental plant in the south of Europe, and in the south of England and Ireland; but the late spring frosts of most parts of Britain are injurious to it, although it can bear severe frost in winter, when vegetation is at a stand. It flowers in spring. The varieties in cultivation are numerous. It is propagated by cuttings, and also by grafting. Its germinous are surrounded by a cup-shaped laciniated membrane.—The roots of most of the peonies have a dangerous smell when fresh, and those of the Common P. were in high repute among the ancients as an antispasmodic—hence the name Peony, from *Paeon*, a Greek name of Apollo, the god of medicine—but their medicinal properties are now utterly disregarded. The globose, shining black seeds of peonies were formerly, in some countries, strung into necklaces, and hung round the necks of children, as *anodyne necklaces*, to facilitate dentition. The Daurians and Mongolians use the root of *P. albiflora* in their soups, and grind the seeds to mix with their tea.

PÆ'STUM, anciently a Greek city of Lucania, in Southern Italy, in the present province of Salerno, on the *Sinus Postanus*, now the Gulf of Salerno, and not far from Mount Alburnus. It was founded by the Trezzians and the Sybarites, some time between 650 and 610 B.C., and was originally called Poseidonia (of which *Pestum* is believed to be a Latin corruption), in honor of Poseidon (Neptune). It was subdued by the Samnites of Lucania, and slowly declined in prosperity after it fell into the hands of the Romans, who established a colony here about 273 B.C. The Latin poets celebrate the beauty and fragrance of its flowers, and particularly of its roses, which bloomed twice a year. Wild roses, it is said, still grow among its ruins, which retain their ancient property, and flower regularly both in May and November. P. was burned by the Saracens in the 10th c., and there is now only a small village called Pesto, in a marshy, unhealthy, and desolate district; but the ancient greatness of the city is indicated by the ruins of temples and other buildings. These appear to have been first noticed in the early part of the 18th c. by a certain Conniot Gazola, in the service of the king of Naples; they were next described by Antonini, in work on the topography of Lucania (1746), and have since been visited by travellers from all parts of Europe.

PAGA'NI, an uninteresting town of South Italy, province of Salerno. In the church of St. Michele is the tomb of Alfonso de' Liguori, founder of the order of

the Redemptionists, who died here, 1787. The body is preserved in a glass case. Pop. about 12,000.

**PAGANINI.** Nicolo, a famous violinist, son of a commission-broker at Genoa, where he was born in 1784. His musical talent showed itself in his childhood; in his ninth year, he had instructions from Costa at Genoa, and afterwards from Rolla at Parma, and from Ghiretti. In 1804, he began his professional tour in Italy; in 1828, he created a great sensation on appearing for the first time in the principal towns of Germany; and in 1831, his violin-playing created no equal favor in Paris and London. His mastery over the violin has never been equalled, but he was too much addicted to using it in grand fests of musical jollity, such as his celebrated performance on a single string. His execution on the guitar was also very remarkable; for four years he made that instrument his constant study. P. died at Nice in 1840, leaving a large fortune.

**PA'GANISM,** another name for Heathenism or Polytheism. The word is derived from the Latin *paganus*, a designation of the inhabitants of the country (*pagus*), in contradistinction to the inhabitants of towns, the more educated and civilised inhabitants of towns having been the first generally to embrace Christianity, whilst the old polytheism lingered more in remote rural districts.

**PAGE** (derivation variously assigned to Gr. *pais*, a boy, and Lat. *pagus*, a village), a youth employed in the service of a royal or noble personage. The practice of employing youths of noble birth in personal attendance on the sovereign, existed in early times among the Persians, and was revived in the middle ages under feudal and chivalric usages. The young noblemen passed in courts and castles through the degree of page, preparatory to being admitted to the further degrees of esquire and knight. The practice of educating the higher nobility as pages at court, began to decline after the 15th c., till pages became what they are now, mere relics of feudal usages. Four pages of honor, who are personal attendants of the sovereign, form part of the state of the British court. They receive a salary of £200 a year each, and on attaining a suitable age, receive from her Majesty a commission in the Foot Guards.

**PAGET,** Family of. This noble family, though said to be of Norman extraction, do not trace their descent further back than the reign of Henry VII., in whose time, one William P. held the office of one of the sergeants-at-mace of the city of London. His son William, who was educated at St Paul's School, and at Cambridge, was introduced into public life by Stephen Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, early in the reign of Henry VIII., who sent him abroad to obtain the opinions of foreign doctors as to his contemplated divorce from Catharine of Aragon. From this time forth his rise was rapid, and he was constantly employed in diplomatic missions until the death of the King, who appointed him one of his executors. He now adhered to the party of the Protector Somerset, and was raised to the peerage in 1552, as Lord Paget of Beaudesert. He shared in the power, and also in the fall, of the Protector, and was heavily fined by the Star Chamber, who also deprived him of the insignia of the Order of the Garter. His disgrace, however, was not of long continuance, and a change taking place in the counsels of his opponents, he soon obtained his pardon. On the accession of Queen Mary, he was sworn a member of the privy council, and obtained several large grants of lands. He retired from public life on the accession of Elizabeth, who regarded him with much favor, though he was a strict Roman Catholic. The representative of the family adhered to the cause of Mary Queen of Scots, and suffered, in consequence, the confiscation of his property. The fifth Lord P. so far departed from the traditional policy of the family as to accept from the parliament the lord-lieutenancy of Buckinghamshire; but he returned to his allegiance shortly afterwards, and held the command of a regiment under the royal standard at the battle of Edgehill. His grandson was advanced to the earldom of Uxbridge, but this title becoming extinct, the representation of the family devolved on a female, who carried the barony of Paget by marriage into the line of Bayly. The son of this marriage, however, having assumed the name of Paget, obtained a renewal of the earldom of Uxbridge, and the second earl, for his gallantry at Waterloo, was advanced to the marquise of Angle-

sey. Of late years, the P. family have usually held three or four seats in every parliament, and they have constantly supported the liberal party.

**PA'GING-MACHINE.** Several machines have been made for paging books and numbering bank-notes, cheques, railway-tickets, and other similar papers. The great object of these machines is to prevent the chance of error or fraud by making it impossible that a page, cheque, &c., can be abstracted or lost without detection. Messrs. Waterlow and Sons of London perfected an ingenious machine, by which pages of books, such as ledgers and other commercial books, and bank-notes, &c., are numbered in regular succession. The numbers are engraved on metal rows, usually of steel or brass. A series of these rows are so arranged, that when the machine is worked, the numbers must be impressed on the paper in regular succession from 1 to 99,999; and it is impossible to produce a duplicate number until the whole series has been printed. The instrument is made to supply ink to the types, so that it may be locked in such a manner as to admit of being worked without the chance of its being tampered with.

An extremely ingenious modification of this machine has been perfected by M. Auguste Trouillet of Paris, under the name of "Numérateur Mécanique," which is not only more simple, but admits of wider application; for it not only pages books and numbers notes, tick-ticks, &c., but can also be used for numbering bales and other packages of merchandise. The instrument has six rows, on each of which is a set of engraved numbers, so arranged that their revolutions produce in regular succession the required numbers, by the action of a lever which moves horizontally, and supplies the type with ink as it moves backwards and forwards.

**PA'GO**, an island belonging to the Austrian crownland of Dalmatia, separated from Croatia by the Moriacca Canal, a channel from two to three miles in width. It is long and narrow, runs parallel to the Croatian coast, and has an area of 108 square miles. Pop. 5150, who are most industrious, and support themselves by vine-culture, the manufacture of salt and fishing.

**PAGO'DA** (according to some a corruption of the Sanscrit word *bhágavata*, from *bhagavat*, sacred; but according to others, a corruption of *put-gada*, from the Persian *put*, idol, and *gada*, house) is the name of certain Hindu temples, which are amongst the most remarkable monuments of Hindu architecture. Though the word itself designates but the temple where the deity—especially S'iva, and his consort Durga or Parvati—was worshipped, a pagoda is in reality an aggregate of various monuments, which, in their totality, constitute the holy place sacred to the god. Sanctuaries, porches, colonnades, gateways, walls, tanks, &c., are generally combined for this purpose, according to a plan, which is more or less uniform. Several series of walls form an enclosure; between them are alcays, habitations for the priests, &c., and the interior is occupied by the temple itself, with buildings for the pilgrims, tanks, porticos, and open colonnades. The walls have, at their openings, *gopuras*, or large pyramidal gateways, higher than themselves, and so constructed that the gopura of the outer wall is always higher than that of the succeeding inner wall, the pagoda itself being smaller than the smallest gopura. The extent of the enclosing walls is generally considerable; in most instances, they consist of hewn stones of colossal dimensions, placed upon one another without mortar or cement, but with such admirable accuracy, that their joints are scarcely visible. The gateways are pyramidal buildings of the most elaborate workmanship; they consist of several, sometimes as many as fifteen stories. The pagodas themselves, too, are of a pyramidal shape, various layers of stones having been piled upon one another in successive recession; in some pagodas, however, the pyramidal form begins only with the higher stories, the broad basis extending to about a third of the height of the whole building. The sides of the different terraces are vertical; but the transition from one to the other is effected by a vault surmounted by a series of small cupolas, which hide the vault itself. A single cupola, hewn out of the stone, and surmounted by a globe, generally crowns the whole structure; but sometimes the latter also ends in fantastical spires of a fanlike shape or concave roofs. The pagodas are covered all over with the richest ornamentation. The pilasters and columns, which take a prominent rank in the ornamental portion of these temples, shew the greatest variety of forms; some pagodas are also overlaid with strips of copper, having the appearance

of gold. The most celebrated pagodas on the mainland of India are those of Mathura, Trichinopoli, Chalambrou, Kofijevaram, Jaggernaut, and Deogur, near Ellora.—That of Mathura consists of four stories, and is about 63 feet high; its base comprises about 40 square feet. Its first story is made of hewn stone, copper, and covered with gilt; the others of brick. A great number of figures, especially representing deities, tigers, and elephants, cover the building.—The pagoda of Tanjore is the most beautiful monument of this kind in the south of India; its height is 200 feet, and the width of its basis is equal to two-thirds of its height.—The pagoda of Trichinopoli is erected on a hill, elevated about 800 feet over the plain; it differs in style from other pagodas dedicated to Brahminical worship, and exhibits great similarity with the Buddhistic monuments of Tibet.—The great pagoda of Chalambrou, in Tanjore, is one of the most celebrated and one of the most sacred of India. It is dedicated to S'iva and Pârvati, and filled with representations belonging to the mythical history of these gods. The buildings of which this pagoda is composed cover an oblong square, 860 feet long, and 210 feet wide.—At Kâñjevaram, there are two pagodas—the one dedicated to S'iva, and the other to Pârvati.—The pagodas of Jaggernaut, on the north end of the coast of Coromandel, are three; they are erected likewise in honor of S'iva, and are surrounded by a wall of black stones—whence they are called by Europeans the Black Pagodas—measuring 1122 feet in length, 698 feet in width, and 24 feet in height. The height of the principal of these three pagodas is said to be 344 feet; according to some, however, it does not exceed 120—125 feet.—The pagoda of Deogur, near Ellora, consists also of three pagodas, sacred to S'iva; they have no sculptures, however, except a trident, the weapon of S'iva, which is visible on the top of one of these temples.—The monuments of Mavilipura, on the coast of Coromandel, are generally called the Seven Pagodas; but as these monuments—which are rather a whole city, than merely temples—are buildings cut out of the living rock, they belong more properly to the rock-cut monuments of India, than to the special class of Indian architecture comprised under the term pagoda.

The term pagoda is, in a loose way, also applied to those Chinese buildings of a tower-form, which consists of several stories, each story containing a single room, and being surrounded by a gallery covered with a protruding roof. These buildings, however, differ materially from the Hindu pagodas, not only so far as their style and exterior appearance are concerned, but inasmuch as they are buildings intended for other than religious purposes. The Chinese call them *T'a*, and they are generally erected in commemoration of a celebrated personage, or some remarkable event; and for this reason, too, on some elevated spot, where they may be conspicuous, and add to the charms of the scenery. Some of these buildings have a height of 100 feet; the finest known specimen of them is the famous Porcelain Tower of Nanking (q. v.). The application of the name pagoda to a Chinese temple should be discountenanced, for, as a rule, a Chinese temple is an insignificant building, seldom more than two stories high, and built of wood; the exceptions are rare, and where they occur, as at Peking, such temples, however magnificent, have no architectural affinity with a Hindu pagoda.

#### PAGU'RUS AND PAGU'RIDAË. See HERMIT CRAB.

PAHLANPU'R, a town of India, capital of the state of the same name, 260 miles east-south-east of Hyderabad. It is a walled town, is the seat of extensive trade and of several manufactures. Pop. estimated at 80,000, many of whom are artificers and shop-keepers. The state of which P. is capital lies between lat.  $23^{\circ} 57'$ — $24^{\circ} 41'$  n. and long.  $71^{\circ} 51'$ — $72^{\circ} 45'$  e. One-seventh of the population are Moslem, and the remainder Hindus. The state, whose revenue, 1870—1871, was £37,593, pays an annual tribute of £5000 to the Guicowar, and £600 per annum for the maintenance of a British political agent. The exact area of the state is not known; the state, however, contains 800 villages; pop. 216,000. The products are wheat, rice, sugar-cane and cotton. In the north and west, the soil yields only one crop annually; but in the south and east, three crops are obtained in the year.

PAILA is, according to the Purânâs (q. v.), one of the disciples of Vyâsa (q. v.), the reputed arranger of the Vedas (q. v.); he was taught by the latter the R'igvâda, and, on his part, communicated this knowledge to Basukali and Indrapramati. Th-

tradition, therefore, implies that P. was one of the earliest compilers of the Rig-veda.

PAIN is an undefinable sensation, of the nature of which all persons are conscious. It resides exclusively in the nervous system, but may originate from various sources. Irritation, or excessive excitement of the nervous system, may produce it; it frequently precedes and accompanies inflammation; while it sometimes occurs in, and seems to be favored by, a state of positive depression, as is seen in the intense pain which is often experienced in a limb benumbed with cold, in the pain which not infrequently accompanies palsy, and in the well-known fact, that neuralgia is a common result of general debility. Hence, pain must on no account be regarded as a certain indication of inflammation, although it rarely happens that pain is not felt at some period or other in inflammatory diseases. Moreover, the pain that belongs to inflammation, differs very much, according to the organ or tissue affected; the pain, for example, in inflammation of the lungs, differs altogether in character from that which occurs in inflammation of the bowels, and both these pains from that occurring in inflammation of the kidneys.

Pain diff'res not only in its character, which may be dull, sharp, aching, tearing, gnawing, stabbing, &c., but in its mode of occurrence; for example, it may be flying or persistent, intermittent, remittent, or continued. It is not always that the pain is felt in the spot where the cause of it exists. Thus, inflammation of the liver or diaphragm may cause pain in the right shoulder, the irritation caused by stone in the bladder produces pain at the outlet of the urinary passage; disease of the hip-joint occasions pain in the knee, disease of the heart is often accompanied with pain in the left arm, and irritation of the stomach often gives rise to headache. Pain is differently felt by persons of different constitutions and temperaments, some persons being little sensitive to painful impressions of any kind, while others suffer greatly from slight causes. There even seem to be national differences in this respect; and before the introduction of chloroform, it was a matter of common observation that Irishmen were always more troublesome subjects for surgical operations than either Englishmen or Scotchmen; and the negro is probably less sensitive to pain than any of the white races.

Although in most cases we are to regard pain merely as a symptom to be removed only by means which remove the lesion which occasions it, there are cases in which, although it is only a symptom, it constitutes a chief element of disease, and one against which remedies must be specially directed. As examples of these cases, may be mentioned neuralgia, gastralgia, colic, dysmenorrhœa, and perforation of the intestines; and in a less degree, the stitch of pleurisy, which, if not relieved, impedes the respiration, and the pain of tenesmus, which often causes such efforts to empty the lower bowel, as seriously to disturb the functions of the intestine, and to exhaust the strength.

For the methods of relieving pain, the reader is referred to the articles on the different diseases in which it specially occurs (as COLIC, NEURALGIA, PLEURISY, &c.), and to those on CHLOROFORM, ETHER, INDIAN HEMP, MORPHIA, NARCOTICS, OPIUM, &c.

PAINÉ, Thomas, an author famous for his connection with the American and French revolutions, and for his advocacy of infidel opinions, was born 29th January 1737, at Thetford, in the county of Norfolk in England. He was trained to the business of his father, who was a staymaker, but afterwards obtained a situation in the Customs, and the management of a tobacco-manufactory. His income, however, was small, and he fell into debt, and was dismissed in 1774, upon which he went to America, was favorably received by a bookseller in Philadelphia, and in 1776 published a pamphlet entitled "Common Sense," written in a popular style, in which he maintained the cause of the colonies against the mother-country. The success and influence of this publication were extraordinary, and it won him the friendship of Washington, Franklin, and other distinguished American leaders. He was rewarded by Congress with the appointment of Secretary to the Committee of Foreign Affairs, visited France in the summer of 1787, where he made the acquaintance of Buffon, Malcherbes, La Rochefoucauld, and other eminent men; and in the autumn following, went to England, where, in 1791, he published "The Rights of Man," the most famous of all the replies to Burke's "Reflections upon the French Revolution." The work has gone

through innumerable editions, and has been translated into almost all the languages of Europe. His defence of the principles of the French Revolution against the magnificent assault of Burke and the outcry of the English aristocracy is vigorous, and by no means unsuccessful. But the value or at least the popularity of the work has been injured by its advocacy of extreme liberal opinions. His assault on the British constitution exposed him to a government prosecution, and he fled to France, where he was admitted to citizenship; and in 1792, the department of Pas-de-Calais elected him a deputy to the National Convention, where he voted with the Girondists. At the trial of Louis XVI., says Madame de Staél, "Thomas Paine alone proposed what would have done honor to France if it had been accepted—the offer to the king of an asylum in America;" by which he offended the Mountain party; and in 1793, Robespierre caused him to be ejected from the Convention, on the ground of his being a foreigner, and thrown into prison. During his imprisonment, he wrote "The Age of Reason," against Atheism, and against Christianity, and in favor of Deism. After an imprisonment of fourteen months, he was released, on the intercession of the American government, and restored to his seat in the Convention. He was chosen by Napoleon to introduce a popular form of government into Britain, after he should have invaded and conquered the island. But as Napoleon did not carry out his design, P. was deprived of an opportunity of playing the part of legislator for his conquered countrymen. He then retired into private life, and occupied himself with the study of finance. In 1802, he returned to the United States, and died there 8th June 1809. The most complete edition of his works is that by J. P. Mendum (Boston, 1856); the most noted of his numerous biographers is William Cobbett (1796).

**PAINS AND PENALTIES.** When a person has committed some crime of peculiar enormity, and for which no adequate punishment is provided by the ordinary law, the mode of proceeding is by introducing a bill of pains and penalties, the object of which, therefore, is to inflict a punishment of an extraordinary and anomalous kind. These bills are now seldom resorted to, and the last instance of an attempt to revive such a form of punishment was by the ministers of George IV. against Queen Caroline, an attempt which was signally defeated. When a bill of this kind is resolved upon, it is introduced, and passes through all the stages like any other bill in parliament, except that the party proceeded against is allowed to defend himself or herself by counsel and witnesses. The proceeding is substantially an indictment, though in form a bill.

**PAINTER**, in naval matters, is the rope by which a boat is fastened to a ship or pier.

**PAINTERS' CREAM**, a composition used by artists to cover oil-paintings in progress, when they leave off their work: it prevents drying, and the consequent shewing of lines where new work is begun. It consists of six parts of fine nut oil, and one part of gum-mastic. The mastic is dissolved in the oil, and then is added a quarter part of acetate, or sugar of lead, finely triturated with a few drops of the oil. When well incorporated with the dissolved mastic, water must be added, and thoroughly mixed, until the whole has the consistency of cream. It is applied with a soft brush, and can easily be removed with water and a sponge.

**PAINTING.** the art of representing objects to the eye on a flat surface by means of lines and color, with a view to convey ideas and awaken emotions. See ART. As one of the fine arts, painting occupies a prominent place; some claim for it the first place, as combining the chief elements—namely, form, light and shade, and color. As compared, however, with music and poetry, it lacks the important element of movement, the representation being confined, in a great measure, to one aspect and one instant of time. In its ruder and more elementary forms, in which the primary design was to communicate ideas, painting is perhaps the oldest of the arts, older, at all events, than writing (see ALPHABET, HIEROGLYPHOS); and, as a vehicle of knowledge, it possesses this advantage over writing—that no *description*, however minute, can convey so accurate and distinct an idea of an object as a pictorial representation, much less make so vivid an impression. Besides this, it is not limited, as writing is, by differences of language, but speaks alike to all nations and all ages.

The great antiquity of painting is proved by remains discovered in Egypt, and by reference to it in ancient writings. It has been ascertained that as early as the 19th c.

B.C., the walls and temples of Thebes were decorated by painting and sculpture. Ezekiel, who prophesied about 593 years B.C., refers to paintings in Jerusalem after the manner of the Babylonians and Chaldeans. Though no specimens have come down to us, it is evident that paintings of the highest excellence were executed in Greece. This is proved by what is recorded of them, for the subjects of many of those mentioned required the putting forth in a high degree of all the qualities requisite for the production of the greatest historical works, such as form, grouping, expression, foreshortening. From the immense sums given for paintings, the care with which they were preserved in temples and other public buildings, and from the fact of the high state of sculpture at contemporary periods, as proved by well-known works now extant, it may be deduced that painting, which, like sculpture, is based on design or drawing, must have occupied an equally high position. Even the imperfect specimens of painting discovered in Pompeii, where the style and influence of Greek art may be traced to some extent, lead to conclusions highly favorable to the high position of painting in classic times. The chief schools of painting in Greece were those of Sicyon, Corinth, Athens, and Rhodes. The first great artist of whose works there is any authentic description, and from details of which an idea may be formed of his attainments, is Polygnotus of Thasos (flor. 420 B.C.), who painted, among other works, those in the Pœcile, a celebrated portico at Athens, and the Lesche, or public hall at Delphi.

The works of Apollodorus of Athens (flor. 408 B.C.) are described and highly praised by Pliny. Zenix, the pupil of Apollodorus, Eupomitus, Androcides, Parrhasius (q. v.), the Ephesian, and Timanthes of Sicyon, prosecuted painting with distinguished success, and by them it was carried down to the time of Philip the father of Alexander. Of the same period was Pamphilus, celebrated not only for his works, but as the master of the artist universally acknowledged as the greatest of the ancient painters, Apelles (q. v.), who was born probably at Colophon, and flourished in the latter half of the 4th c. B.C. He was highly esteemed by Alexander the Great, and executed many important works for that monarch. Protogenes of Rhodes was a contemporary, and may be styled the rival of Apelles, who greatly admired his works. His picture of Ialysus the hunter and the nymph Rhodos was preserved for many years in the Temple of Peace at Rome. Art in Greece had now reached its highest point; its course afterwards was downwards.

In Italy, art was followed at a very early period by the Etruscans, and according to Pliny, painting, as well as sculpture, was successfully practised in Ardea and Lanuvium, cities of Latium, perhaps more ancient than Rome. The finest specimens of Etruscan art, however—as the paintings on tombs, and the remains of armor and tinctile ware ornamented with figures, evince unmistakably the influence of, or rather are identical with, Greek art. According to Pliny, it was introduced from Corinth about 650 B.C. No great national school of painting ever flourished in Rome, for though the names of Romans who were painters are cited, the principal works of art that adorned the temples and palaces of Rome were obtained from Greece, and it is probable that many of the paintings executed there were by Greek artists. When the seat of empire was transferred to the East, such art as then remained was carried with it, and in a new phase was afterwards recognised as Byzantine art—a conventional style, in which certain typical forms were adopted and continually repeated. This mode has been preserved, and is practised in church-painting in Russia at this present time.

Much discussion has arisen in modern times as to the supposed technical modes or processes of painting employed by the ancients. It seems established that painting in fresco was much practised; but many of the most valuable pictures we read of were removable, and there are accounts of some carried from Greece to Rome. "The Greeks preferred movable pictures, which could be taken away in case of fire" ("Wilkinson on Egyptian and Greek Paintings"), and Pliny says Apelles never painted on walls; besides fresco paintings on walls, therefore, there can be no doubt that the ancients painted on boards; indeed, the name *Tabula* or *Tabula picta* proves this, and it seems to be now generally acknowledged that these were executed in *tempora*—that is, with size, and probably fixed or protected by some kind of varnish, in the preparation of which oil was used; or in encaustic, a process in which wax was employed to fix and give brilliancy and depth to the colors, heat being applied in working with it.

Painting was revived in Europe in the 18th c.; previous to that period, Byzantine artists chiefly were employed. On the conquest of Constantinople by the Latins in 1204, the Byzantine school was broken up, and many Greek artists were transplanted to Italy, where art was now destined to flourish, so the works of the Italians who profited by their instructions, were necessarily, at the commencement, composed in the Byzantine style. The first Italian whose name is associated with the revival of Italian art is Guido of Siena; a work by him, a large Madonna, inscribed with his name and the date 1221, is still preserved in that city. The next is Giunta da Pisa (1236). But Giovanni Cimabue (q. v.), (1240—1300), is commonly styled the founder of the Italian school. Several works of considerable importance are ascribed to him; and though he followed the Byzantine arrangement, he ventured occasionally out of the path, introduced the study of nature in his drawing, and imparted greater degree of softness to his painting than the Byzantine artists. The influence of Byzantine art was not confined to Italy; it operated in Germany, Bohemia and France; but there also art began to assume a national character early in the 13th c., and paintings are still preserved at Cologne, dated 1224. The Italian school of painting, or that style in which so many of the highest qualities of art have been so successfully carried out, received its chief impetus from Giotto (q. v.), the son of Bondone, born in 1276 at Vespignano, near Florence, where he died in 1336. It is said that he was originally a shepherd-boy, and being discovered by Cimabue drawing a sheep on a slate, was instructed by him in painting. His style is distinguished from that of earlier painters by the introduction of natural incidents and impressions, by greater richness and variety of composition, by the dramatic interest of his groups, and by total disregard of the typical forms and conventional style of his predecessors. His influence was not confined to Florence, but extended over the whole of Italy; and works by this artist may be traced from Padua to Naples. Giotto followed Pope Clement V. to Avignon, and is said to have executed many important pictures there, and in other cities in France. The most celebrated of his frescoes now extant are those at Assisi; some noted works by him in that class also remain at Padua, Florence, and Naples. Most of the small easel-pictures ascribed to him are of doubtful authenticity; but some preserved in the gallery at Florence are acknowledged to be genuine. His high powers as a sculptor and architect are also exemplified by works in that city. Giotto had numerous scholars and imitators, and several of these have left works which shew that while they profited by his instruction or example, they were also gifted with original talent. Among these may be noticed Taddeo Gaddi, the favorite pupil of Giotto (born 1300, living in 1362); Simone Memmi (1284—1344); and Andrea Orcagna (1329—1389), one of the artists employed in the decoration of the celebrated Campo Santo at Pisa. Painting in Italy continued to be impressed with the feeling and style of Giotto for upwards of a hundred years; but early in the fifteenth century, the frescoes executed by Masaccio (1401—1433) in the Brancacci Chapel in the Carmelite Church at Florence, clearly prove that it had entered on a new phase, and had come forth strengthened by an important element in which it formerly was deficient, viz., correct delineation of form, guided by the study of nature. These celebrated frescoes, twelve in number, were at one time all ascribed to Masaccio; but it seems now to be acknowledged by judges of art that two of these are by Masolino da Panicale (1378—1415), the master of Masaccio; and three or probably four, and small portion of one, by Filippino Lippi (1460—1505). The frescoes by Masaccio, however, are superior to those by Masolino and Lippi, and, indeed, for many of the highest qualities in art, have, as compositions, only been surpassed by Raphael in his celebrated cartoons. In about a century from Masaccio's time, painting in Italy attained its highest development; but before referring to those artists who are acknowledged as having carried painting to the highest elevation it has attained since the period of the middle ages, it is right to note the names of some of the painters who aided in raising it to that position. The works of Fra Giovanni da Fiesole (1387—1455) are highly valued and esteemed by many critics as the purest in point of style and feeling, and so the best fitted for devotional purposes. Confining his efforts to simple and graceful action, and sweet and tender expression, he adhered to the traditional types, and ventured on none of the bold innovations which were introduced in his time, and carried so far by Masaccio. His example, as regards feeling and expression, influenced many succeeding artists, particularly Pietro

Pernigino, the master of Raphael (1446—1524), and Francesco Francia of Bologna (1430 or 1453—1517), by both of whom these qualities, united to greatly improved technical power, were brought to high excellence. Giovanni Bellini, the founder of the early Venetian school (1422—1512), has left many admirable works; he had numerous scholars, among them Titian, and Giorgione. Domenico Corradi or Ghirlandajo, under whom Michael Angelo studied, successfully followed out that direction given to art by Masaccio, which involved individuality of character and expression in the figures. Andrea Mantegna, of the school of Padua (1430—1506), along with strong expression, gave an impetus to form, modelled in Greek or classic art. Luca Signorelli of Cortona (about 1440—1521), succeeded exemplified powerful action and bold foreshortening, particularly in his frescoes at Orvieto, which, with his other works, are supposed to have strongly influenced the style of Michael Angelo. Antonello da Messina (1447—1496) is said to have been a pupil of Jan Van Eyck, who imparted to him his secret in the preparation and use of oil-colors, the knowledge of which he spread among the Venetians. The above statement, however, as to the exact period at which oil painting was first introduced, is one attended with much doubt. Painting with colors mixed in oil is mentioned by Italian writers before the period of Van Eyck; painting in tempora, or size, was continued in Italy, particularly in the Florentine and Roman schools, to the time of Raphael; and the transition from the one method to the other has been so gradual, that many judges of art have expressed inability to determine whether the pictures of Pernigino, Francia, and Raphael are in oil or tempora, or in both. The practice of painting on canvas, in place of wooden boards or panels, was introduced and carried on for a considerable time in Venice before it was adopted in other parts of Italy, and canvas is the material best suited for pictures in oil-colors when they are not of small dimensions; so, on the whole, the conclusion seems to be, that though oil-painting was not unknown in Florence and the south of Italy, painting in tempora was longer practised there than in Venice. At the time when the painters above referred to flourished, there were many able artists in Germany, whose works are deservedly very highly prized. Among these, Jan Van Eyck (q. v.), (about 1390—1441), deserves special notice. To him is generally given the credit of being the first painter who used oil in place of size in his colors. His works are remarkable for brilliant and transparent coloring and high finish. He had numerous scholars; among these, Justus of Ghent (flor. 1451), Hugo Vander Goes (died 1480)—supposed to be the painter of the celebrated wings of an altar-piece, now at Holyrood Palace, containing portraits of James III and his queen—Roger of Bruges (1465—1418), Hans Hemling or Meunig (died 1480), the best scholar of the Van Eyck school; Quintin Matsys (1450—1529), Jan Van Mabuse (1470—1532), Albert Dürer (q. v.), (1471—1528), Lucas Van Leyden (q. v.), (1494—1533). The career of the two last-named extended to the best period of art, and for many high qualities their works strongly compete with those of the best of the Italians; while portraits by Hans Holbein (q. v.), (1497—1543), and Antonio More (1512—1558) rank with those of any school or period. The leading qualities in German art are invention, individuality of character, clearness of coloring, and high finish; but they are inferior to the Italians in embodying beauty; their representation of the mind is angular in form and deficient in the elegance and grace attained by the painters of Italy; and in their draperies they do not attain the simplicity and grandeur so remarkable in the works of their southern competitors.

Anything like an account of the artists by whom painting was carried to its highest pitch, of sufficient comprehensiveness to exhibit their peculiar æsthetic qualities, cannot be attempted in so short a notice as this; but that deficiency is in some degree supplied by, and reference is made to, the biographical notices of distinguished painters given in this work under their names. Keeping this reference in view, therefore, the next step is to note the relative positions generally assigned to the most distinguished painters of that period, with reference to the estimation in which their works are now held. Leonardo da Vinci (q. v.), (1452—1519), Michael Angelo Bonarotro (1474—1563), and Raphael or Raffaello Sanzio of Urbino (1483—1520), are universally acknowledged as the three greatest among the Italian artists; but two other names may be added as worthy to be put in an equally high place—those of Titian (q. v.), (1477—1576), and Antonio Allegri, surnamed Correggio (q. v.),

(1494—1534). These five painters exhibit in their works, some of them the whole, others the greater portion of the various elements—which in the earlier periods of art had existed apart, and composed distinct styles—united, and more highly developed; while each of them has taken up one of these elements, and carried it not only further than his predecessors had done, but further than it was by his contemporaries, or by any subsequent artist. Thus we see in Leonardo's celebrated picture of the "Last Supper" that though he has adopted the traditional style of composition handed down from Giotto's time, and carried out the religious feeling and dignified expression aimed at by the older masters, the whole is developed and elevated by the manner in which it is worked out—namely, by a mind and hand possessing mastery over all the elements that are combined in the production of the highest works of art. Michael Angelo was a proficient in all the qualities that constitute a painter, but he carried several of them—viz., grandeur of design, anatomical knowledge, and power of drawing—far beyond all other artists of his own or of later times. Titian and Correggio, again, with great power over every art-element, have each carried one quality further than all other artists—the former, color; the latter, light and shade. Raphael is generally allowed the first place among painters for, though each of the four artists just referred to carried one, or perhaps two, of the qualities of painting further than he did, he excelled them in every other element but the one for which each was particularly distinguished, and in several of the highest qualities of art he attained to greater excellence than any other artist; the expression of dignity of movement by broad masses and grand lines aimed at in the works of Mantegna, is successfully realized in the cartoons at Hampton Court; and the pictures in which Perugino and Francia so earnestly and successfully embodied female beauty, maternal affection, and infant purity, are as much inferior to pictures of similar subjects by Raphael as they are above those executed during the decadence of Italian art. Besides the five leading masters just referred to, there were many other Italian artists of great talent, who may be ranged in three classes: 1, the contemporaries of those artists; 2, those influenced by their style; 3, their scholars. Among their contemporaries, the works of Fra Bartolommeo (1469—1517) and Andrèa Mantegna, called Andrea Mantegna (1483—1530), both Florentines, deservedly rank very high. Giorgio Barbarelli, called Giorgione (1478—1511), was, under Bellini, a fellow-pupil of, and is generally styled the rival of Titian; and his works, which are of great excellence, prove that he was worthy of that name. In class 2, Correggio himself may rank as being influenced by Leonardo's style, but the great prominence of his other qualities makes his style original and independent. On Bernardino Luini (about 1480, living in 1530), Leonardo's influence is direct; and as he was an able painter, his pictures are very valuable for embodying many of those qualities in art which Leonardo had so much improved. Sebastiano del Piombo, a Venetian (1485—1517), studied under Giovanni Bellini and Giorgione; and after settling in Rome, became intimate with Michael Angelo, who employed him to paint some of his designs, with a view of benefiting by his admirable coloring. His pictures are greatly esteemed, as uniting rich color to grandeur of design. Class 3. All the five leading artists above referred to had pupils or scholars, particularly such of them as, like Raphael, were much engaged in extensive works in fresco, in the execution of which assistants are generally employed. A complete list of these, however, would occupy too much space here. Among the scholars of Michael Angelo, Domenico da Volterra (1509—1566) was the best; and among Raphael's scholars, the first place is generally accorded to Giulio Pippi or Romano (q. v.), (1492—1546). After the first quarter of the 16th c. painting in Italy, except in the Venetian school, shewed symptoms of rapid decline; that school, however, continued its vitality longer than any other in Italy, having flourished with all the life of originality during the whole 16th century. This is attested by the productions of many able Venetian painters; but among those, the works of Jacopo Robusti, or Tintoretto (q. v.), (1512—594), and Paolo Veronese (q. v.), (1528—1588), are by far the most important. The pictures of the former exhibit great vigor in composition, and masterfulness of color—the former quality evincing the influence of Michael Angelo; the latter, that of Titian. Veronese ranks before even Tintoretto; his compositions are animated and full, and as a colorist he is a powerful rival to Titian, not aiming at the rich glow of that master's tints, but excelling every artist in producing the brilliancy and sparkling effect of mid-daylight on figures gorgeously attired, and seen against

backgrounds enriched with landscape and architecture. The other great schools of Italy, however, as already said, had less vitality than the Venetian, and shewed symptoms of decay at the end of the first quarter of the 16th century. Raphael left numerous scholars and assistants; many of these, after his death in 1520, quitted Rome. The pillage of that city by the French under Bourbon in 1527 had also the effect of dispersing them, and this naturally led to the style of Raphael, so far as they could acquire it, being transplanted into other parts of Italy; but Raphael's style was founded on his own peculiar feeling for the beautiful, and on his own peculiar grace; and all that his scholars had acquired or could convey was a mere imitation of his external forms, without the spirit and pure feeling of which these forms are the expression. The imitation of Michael Angelo became the great object with the Florentines; but his scholars and imitators being unable to comprehend his powerful spirit, and not possessing his technical powers and theoretical knowledge, their pictures are merely exaggerated compositions of academic figures. Nor were Correggio's scholars more successful in following his walk, for they exaggerated the peculiarities of his style, which in their hands became affected and insipid. Leonardo's scholars repeated his distinguishing qualities, modified by their own individual peculiarities, and avoided that academic ostentation displayed by the followers of the masters just named. Their reputation therefore stands higher.

The German painters who succeeded Dürer, Van Leyden, and the other celebrated artists of their period, before referred to, endeavored to improve their national style by the study of Italian art, at first attempting to combine the two styles, and afterwards, to the close of the 16th c., devoting themselves exclusively to the study or imitation of the Italian painters. The works of these artists, the worst productions of any school, form a connecting link between those of the famous old German masters and the vigorous, varied, and attractive works of the painters of the Netherlands in the 17th century.

Towards the end of the 16th, and during the first half of the 17th c., a revival of art in Italy was attempted. This was sought for in two ways by two classes of artists; the larger body were known by the name of Eclectics, from their having endeavored to select and unite the best qualities of each of the great masters, combined with the study of nature; the other class were distinguished by the name of Naturalisti, and they aimed at forming an independent style, distinct from that of the earlier masters, based on the indiscriminate imitation of common life, treated in a bold and lively manner. In their development, both classes exercised an influence on each other, particularly the Naturalisti on the Eclectics. Eclectic schools arose in various parts of Italy, but the most celebrated was that at Bologna, founded by Lodovico Carracci (q. v.), (1556—1619), assisted by his two nephews, Agostino Carracci (1585—1602), and Annibale Carracci (1560—1609), the most eminent of the three. Many painters of mark were reared in this school; among those, Domenico Zampieri, called Domenichino (q. v.), (1581—1641), and Guido Reni (q. v.), (1575—1642), were by far the most eminent. The art of the Eclectics has been greatly overrated. Till recently, the leaders of that school were always placed on an equality with the best masters of the early part of the 16th c., and far above any of the painters of the 15th century. These notions have recently undergone a complete change; it is now acknowledged that the attempt of the Eclectics to combine the excellencies of various great masters, involves misapprehension with regard to the conception and practice of art, for the greatness of the earlier masters was brought out in their individual and peculiar qualities, the uniting of which implies a contradiction. Michael Angelo Amerighi da Caravaggio (q. v.), (1569—1609) was the founder of the Naturalisti school; he resided principally at Rome, but at a later period went to Naples, Malta, and Sicily. The Naturalisti were in their greatest strength at Naples, where they perseveringly opposed the followers of the Carracci, their leader being Giuseppe Ribera (q. v.), a Spaniard, hence called Spagnoletto (1593—1656). With much of the force of Caravaggio, he united more delicacy and greater vivacity of color. The historical or Scriptural subjects of Salvator Rosa (q. v.), (1615—1673) are in the style of the school of the Naturalisti; but on account of his *genre* pieces and landscapes, Salvator is entitled to occupy the place of the originator of a style noted for certain qualities of poetic feeling. The influence of the school of the Naturalisti had more important results than that of the Eclectics, for it affected to some extent the leading masters of the Spanish school. At Rome, contem-

poraneously with Domenichino, Guido, and other leading masters of the schools of the Eclectics and Naturalists, the three following artists elevated landscape-painting to a high position—Nicholas Poussin (q. v.), a Frenchman (1594—1665); Claude Gelée, also a native of France (1600—1682), called Claude Lorraine (q. v.); and Gaspar Duhet, named Gaspar Poussin (q. v.), born in Rome, but the son of a Frenchman (1618—1678). Among the great masters who occasionally practised landscape-painting as a distinct branch of art, the earliest were Titian and Giorgione; the Carracci (particularly Annibale) carried out their style with considerable success; the landscapes of Domenichino are esteemed, and other scholars of the Carracci turned their attention in that direction. The reputation of N. Poussin is principally based on his figure-pictures, the subjects of which were mythological and Scriptural. Into these pictures, he endeavored, with considerable success, to infuse the classical style; but his compositions were generally arranged with a large space of landscape background, which was in many cases not the least important portion of the picture; and these, and the pictures he painted falling strictly under the class of landscapes, are distinguished for largeness of style and poetic feeling. Claude and Gaspar directed all their efforts to landscape, and attained to high eminence in that department of art.

The earlier specimens of painting in Spain resemble in style the works of the old German painters, who seem to have disposed of many of their pictures in that country, while Spanish art of the 16th c. was modelled on that of Italy, Titian and Raphæl being the masters studied; but when works of the Spanish school are spoken of, those executed in the 17th c. are always understood to be referred to, as it was then that Spanish art became entirely national in feeling and style, and that is the period in which the best works of the school were produced. The two most distinguished Spanish painters are Don Diego Velasquez (q. v.), (1599—1660), and Bartholomé Esteban Murillo (q. v.), (1618—1682). The portraits of the former are characterised by truthful and dignified expression, great breadth and vigorous handling, and rank with the best works of that class of any school; while the Scripture subjects of the latter, which are noted for tender expression, rich color, and powerful light and shade, may be classed with similar works by Rubens and Van Dyck. Spugnoletto, a Spanish painter, has already been referred to as a leading artist of the school of the Naturalists at Naples. Alonso Cano (1601—1667), Francisco Zurbaran (1598—1662), and Claudio Coello (born between 1630 and 1640—1693), have a high reputation. No name of a Spanish painter of eminence occurs after the close of the 17th century.

Very soon after the period when the Eclectic and Naturalistic schools arose in Italy, a revival of art also occurred in the Netherlands. This was very different in its effects from the revival in Italy, the only results from which were academical imitation of the older masters, and coarse naturalism, either separately or combined in varied proportions; while the works of the artists of the Netherlands executed about the same period, though they do not exhibit the high qualities found in the compositions of the Italian masters of the best period, possess many new and attractive features—freedom, originality of treatment, attention to the peculiar character of individual life, and the daily intercourse of men with each other in all its variety, and the study of nature, brought out with truth and delicacy of execution. Two important schools of art were established by this movement—the Flemish and the Dutch. The Flemish school flourished in Brabant, where the Roman Catholic faith—then making strenuous efforts to oppose the Reformed religion—still retained and actively employed art in its service. The Dutch school flourished in Protestant and republican Holland, where the artist, having to trust to private encouragement, painted, for the most part, familiar subjects from everyday life; and in place of altar-pieces for churches, and large historical and allegorical pictures for palaces, produced the subjects then in demand—portraits, genre pictures, or works in which life and manners are depicted in various phases—landscapes with and without figures, sea-pieces, battle-pieces, compositions representing hunting, animals, game, &c. The catalogue of the names of the able artists of these two schools is long; in the Flemish school, those who stand highest are Peter Paul Rubens (q. v.), (1577—1640), Anthony Van Dyck (q. v.), (1599—1641), David Teniers (q. v.) the Younger (1610—1690), F. Snyders (1579—1657). The following are the most eminent in the long list of artists of the

Dutch school: Rembrandt (q. v.), (1609—1659). Vanderhaest (1613—1670), Albert Cuyp (q. v.), (1605—1691), Terburgh (1608—1631), A. V. Ostade (1610—1685), J. Ruysdael (q. v.), (1630 or 1636—1681), Hobbema (1629—1670), P. Potter (1625—1654), K. du Jardin (1635—1678), Jan Steen (q. v.), (1636—1689), G. Metzu (1615—1688), F. Mieris (1635—1681), W. Van de Velde (1633—1707), A. Van der Neer (1618—1684), P. Wouwerman (q. v.), (1620—1688).

Painting has been practised for a very long period in France; but there, as in Spain and in Britain, the marked preference shewn in early times by the sovereigns of the country for the works of foreign artists, their undervaluing native talent, and their directing it into a channel supplied from a foreign source, had the effect of neutralising it as the exponent of national feeling. Francis I. is acknowledged to have been a patron of art; he had a desire to possess fine works, and he liberally rewarded able artists, but his patronage was almost entirely confined to foreigners. Louis XIV. did what he could to place French art above that of every other nation; but he had no knowledge of it himself; he did not comprehend its nature and true intention, and imagined that pictures if painted by Frenchmen must necessarily be national. Nevertheless, his influence was, on the whole, highly beneficial to French national art. He always shewed himself desirous to employ native rather than foreign talent, and he encouraged and enlarged the Academy of Fine Arts, which had been founded at the commencement of his reign, under the direction of Lebrun. Although in many respects the principles and the regulations of the Academy tended rather to the perpetuation of debased Italian, than to the development of genuine French art; yet the bringing together of a body of influential French artists, was the measure most likely to foster the feeling of nationality and to lead to the foundation of a national school of art. In the 16th c., Francois Clouet was distinguished as a portrait-painter; and Jean Cousin as a painter, sculptor, and architect. In the 17th c., among many names, those chiefly deserving notice are Simon Vouet, the brothers Le Nain, N. Poussin, Claude Lorrain, Mignard, S. Bourdon, Le Sueur, J. Courtois (called Borgognone), and Coysevox. Among these, the works of the brothers Le Nain alone possess national feeling and character, and they are held in very considerable estimation; those of the others were executed under the influence of foreign art; and excepting Claude's splendid landscapes, Poussin's learned compositions, and some of Borgognone's battle-pieces, hold a low position. The works of Anthony Watteau (1684—1721) are truly national, excellent in execution, and very highly valued. This artist may be classed as at the head of the school of the 18th c.—the period in which art in France became really national. Not only did most of the painters of his school—which lasted till the end of the century, when classic art ruled for a time—form their style upon the works of Watteau, but his influence also affected the British school, which arose soon after that of France was developed. Lancret (1690—1742) was the most successful imitator of Watteau; Pater (1696—1736) followed in the same course; Chardin (1699—1779), though influenced by him, had an original style of his own, and his works now stand high. The pictures of Boucher (1704—1770) exhibit the defects of the French school of the 18th c., unredeemed by the delicacy and grace, and high technical execution and truth of Watteau, Charlin, and Grenze (1725—1805), the last of whom sustained the character of French national art, and carried it into the 19th c., when it was re-established, after the classic school of David, founded at the Revolution, and patronised under the empire of the first Napoleon, had in its turn been laid aside. David (q. v.), (1748—1825), the leader of this school, carried his admiration of classic art to the length of substituting the study of statues, the works by which the art of the ancients is chiefly known, for that of nature. He had numerous able pupils, several of whom, tired with this constant repetition of conventional form, recurred to nature, extended their range of subjects, and infused new vigor into the French school. Among many distinguished artists that have maintained the fame of the French School during the present century the following names may be mentioned: Géricault, Prud'hon, Leopold Robert, Delaroche (q. v.), Horace Vernet (q. v.), Ary Scheffer (q. v.), Eugène Delacroix (q. v.), and Ingres (q. v.). A number of artists, chiefly pupils of the above, now sustain the high position of French art in every department; while in that of landscape, illustrative of French scenery, a branch of art never much studied in past times, great progress has been made, and the rise of this flourishing branch of French art is acknow-

ledged by the French themselves to be due to the works of the English painter Constable, exhibited in Paris in 1824.

The English school was the latest national school that arose in Europe, for although the modern schools of Germany and Belgium are of still later date, having arisen in the present century, still they can scarcely be classed as new schools, but rather as revivals of former national schools. In England, as in France, foreign artists chiefly were in early times employed by the court and the nobles. Henry VIII. competed with Francis I. for the services of the greatest of the Italian artists, and permanently secured those of Hans Holbein, one of the most distinguished of those of Germany. Charles I. liberally patronised Rubens and Van Dyck; and if he had reigned longer, would in all probability, like Louis XIV., have founded a national school. But referring to the separate notices in this work of the foreign artists under their names respectively who were employed in this country and to the article MINIATURE PAINTING for notice of several eminent native artists in that branch of art, it is only necessary here to touch on the subject of painting in this country from the time it acquired a truly national character. At the beginning of the 18th c. art in Britain was at the lowest ebb; the career of Sir Godfrey Kneller (q. v.), (1646—1726 or 1728), the last of the foreigners, was drawing to a close; Sir James Thornhill (1675—1734), an Englishman, followed out the decorative kind of art on which Verrio, La Guerre, and others were so much employed; but after his death, that debauched style finally went down. The time had now arrived for native artists, if there were any entitled to the name, to assert their independence; and accordingly, in 1734—1735, as many as from thirty to forty artists combined together in London, and instituted an academy for studying the human figure. About the same time, a similar movement was going on in Edinburgh; the contract or indenture for establishing a school of art, dated 18th October 1729, and signed by seventeen artists, besides amateurs, is in the possession of the Royal Scottish Academy. The effort above referred to, of artists combining to found a Life Academy, was mainly due to William Hogarth (1697—1764), who, on this account, and from his first having developed, in a very high degree of excellence in his works, the leading characteristics of the English school, is justly entitled to be considered its founder. This combination led to these important results—it shewed the artists their strength, and enabled them, after a probation of thirty-four years, to found the Royal Academy, an institution managed by artists, and intended to support and encourage a national school of art. The means by which the Royal Academy proposed to attain its purpose were the following: 1, by founding a school where artists may learn their profession; and 2, by instituting an exhibition where, independently of private patronage and support, artists may bring their works directly before the public. Hogarth died four years before the Royal Academy was organised; but he powerfully contributed to its establishment by his exertions in bringing the artists together in 1734, by supporting the modern exhibitions at Spring Gardens, and by ridiculing by his pencil and pen the passion of the cognoscenti of the day for crying up as superior to the modern the doubtful specimens of old art which were largely imported and disposed of at great prices in numerous salerooms established for the purpose in London. As regards technical execution, and indeed in style generally, the English artists were at first indebted to the French school, which, in the commencement of the 18th c., was in great vigor. Hogarth himself, in these respects, looked closely at the works of Watteau, engravings from which were well known in this country in his time; indeed, Watteau's pictures were so greatly admired here that he came over and spent the year 1720 painting in London. But Hogarth, though alive to the qualities in art produced by others, ranks among painters as one of the most original, for he greatly extended the dramatic element in painting, and imparted an originality and vigor to it never before attained; and his example has led to that element being one of the leading features of the English school, as is exemplified in the works of Wilkie (q. v.), Leslie (q. v.), Stuart, Newton, Bonington, and others; and those of many distinguished artists of the present day. In the department of portrait-painting, many of the works of the British school rank with those of Titian, Van Dyck, and Velasquez, such, for instance, as Reynolds's portraits of Nelly O'Brien and Lady Hamilton, Gainsborough's Mrs. Graham and Mrs. Siddons, and some of Raeburn's heads, &c. While in that of landscape, the position

of the English school is acknowledged to be very high, its influence now strongly affecting the French school—this is proved by the works of R. Wilson, Gainsborough (q. v.), and Turner (q. v.), the last of whom, for wide range of subject, and rendering of atmospheric effect, stands alone; Constable, whose powerful grasp of nature has excited the emulation of the French artists; Calcott (q. v.), Collins (q. v.), Nasmyth, J. Thomson, Muller, and others; and their successors, the artists of the day, who ably represent the English school. Animal-painting has also been elevated to a high position. And an important department, that of painting in water-colors, originated in England, and has there attained far higher excellence than in any other country.

Painting is cultivated with success and receives much encouragement in America, but there the features that mark a national school have not yet had time for development. From the close connection between Britain and America, the art of the latter country was naturally influenced by and became assimilated to that of the former. America may, however, justly take credit for having contributed in no small degree to strengthen the British school of art; as several very able members of the Royal Academy were Americans. Benjamin West (1738–1820) was one of the original members, and elected President of the Royal Academy in 1806. J. S. Copley (1737–1815), elected R.A. in 1799; his "Death of Chatham," and "Defense of St. Heliers, Jersey, against the French, and Death of Major Pieron at the moment of Victory," are excellent works, and as such were conserved in the National Gallery, London. C. R. Leslie (1791–1859) was born in London of American parents; but in 1799, went to Philadelphia, where he was educated. Returning to London in 1811, he entered the schools of the Royal Academy; was elected academician in 1826, and professor of painting in 1848. G. S. Newton (1794–1835)—he was admitted a student of the Royal Academy in 1821, and elected academician in 1832. Washington Allston (1793–1843) was elected an associate in 1818; but afterwards returned to America, where he died. With the exception of the last named, the feeling evinced in the works of all these artists, influenced by study and continued residence, was essentially English; indeed few have equalled Leslie and Newton in their power of embodying the various incidents made national by English poets; and in none of their works can anything be set down as contributing in any degree to the foundation of a national American school. There is every reason to think, however, that such a school is being gradually evolved, and will soon be developed. Already something like originality of a national kind is exhibited in landscape painting, in which some American artists are endeavoring to embody scenes embracing a vast extent of country, or of extraordinary magnitude—such as those met with in the Andes, at Niagara, or exhibited by floating icebergs; and American literature, having now assumed imposing proportions, and great historical events being now in rapid progress, illustrations of American poetry and pictures of stirring national events will be called forth; and able American artists will doubtless be found to embody them and create a school truly national.

A general survey of painting at the present time exhibits the following aspect and arrangement: 1. A school in Germany, which arose during the present century, ostensibly a revival of the old national, but truly modelled on the early Italian school, the religious element being prominent. Its principal works are mural, of large dimensions, and mostly executed in fresco, or on a kind of fresco lately invented, called silica or water-glass painting, from a vehicle of that kind being used. Invention, composition, grouping, and powerful and correct drawing, characterise the modern German works; but being of necessity executed from cartoons, they are deficient in that amount of individual expression, and natural color and effect, that can only be attained by a direct and continued reference to the object represented. 2. A Belgian school, which arose in the present century, and is also a revival of the earlier national schools. Some of the Belgian artists lean to the manner of the very early Flemish school, others to that of which Rubens was the head. The greater portion of the Belgian works are easel-pictures, and many of them rank high for individual expression, color, and technical execution. 3. A French school, exhibiting in active operation the various styles that have at different periods prevailed in that country, sometimes modified or adapted to the taste and feeling of the times. The works of the French school of the eighteenth century were utterly condemned by French artists at the close of that and commencement of the present

century. They would tolerate nothing but what they called classic art. *L'Ecole classique*, as it was styled, was in its turn supplanted by *l'Ecole romantique*. Now, however, all styles are tolerated, even those of foreign schools—for instance, the English school of landscape—and there can be no doubt that, by the extensive range of subject, invention, drawing, and other high qualities the French artists display in their works, they have now raised that school to a very high position. 4. A British school, which has been in existence as a national school nearly as long as that of France, undisturbed by the convulsions that affected it. Vitality in art is maintained by close reference to nature, and this has all along been the leading characteristic of the English school; while the tendency of the artists at present is, taking advantage of the aid of science, which has lately discovered photography, to study nature with still greater earnestness and care. The high claims of the British school, long denied abroad, are now fully admitted. Formerly, foreigners never classed a British school among those of Europe, but now this is invariably done. One of the most popular writers on art in France, Théophile Gautier, in his work, "*Les Beaux-Arts en Europe*," divides the art of the world into four strongly defined zones—viz., Great Britain, Belgium, Germany, and France—Britain being distinguished by "individuality," a potent element in art; Belgium, by "skill;" Germany, by "ideality;" and France, by "eclecticism," or a selection and combination of the qualities of all other schools.

Regarding technical modes or processes of painting, reference is made to the separate notices under **FRESCO**, **ENCAUSTIC**, **MINIATURE PAINTING**. The period when the method of mixing up colors with oil was introduced, and the artists to whom the invention is attributed, have been already alluded to. It is necessary, however, to enter on some details touching the mechanical processes in oil-painting, the branch of the art that occupies the most prominent position; and the practice of cleaning and restoring pictures.

The implements used by a painter in oil are charcoal, chalk, or lead pencils, for drawing the outline; hair-pencils or brushes of various sizes, made of hog's bristles or finer hair, such as sable; a knife or spatula to mix the colors, and a palette or small table of thin wood, to be held in the left hand, on which the colors and tints are placed and mixed; an easel or stand for supporting the picture is also required, and a light rod for steadyng or resting the hand on. Large pictures are always executed on canvas, stretched tightly on a frame, and primed or coated with paint. Small pictures are often painted on boards or panels, generally of hard wood, such as oak or mahogany, and similarly primed or prepared; but canvas, even for small works, seems at present to be generally preferred. Panels are apt to twist, or warp, or split, and in the event of the surface of a picture chipping or breaking off from the ground, the damage can be more easily remedied, and its progress stopped, when the picture is on canvas, by re-lining. The color of the ground of the canvas or panel has been the subject of much diversity of opinion among artists in different countries and at various periods; and it is certainly a matter of great importance, as it affects the general color of the work, or makes it necessary for the artist to adopt a peculiar style of working. The color of the ground used by the early masters was white, or nearly pure white. This arose from tempora or size being the medium first used in painting, and a pure white ground prepared with size was necessary for that kind of work. This practice, except as regards the Venetian school, continued till the decline of Italian art. Dull red was the universal color adopted in the eclectic, Naturalisti, and late Italian schools, and this is one of the causes of the works of these schools being characterised by blackness and heaviness; at the same time, it is certain that red grounds were also used by many of the best Venetian painters, in whose works these defects are never found, probably from having used an impasto or body of color sufficiently powerful to bear out on the ground. A dark ground affords a facility for working expeditiously, and that, probably, was the principal cause for its being adopted. The Dutch and Flemish painters generally used light grounds; some of them light-brown, nearly the color of oak. Van Dyck occasionally used gray, and sometimes, when he painted in Italy, dull red grounds. In the British school, light grounds are preferred. Some artists use smooth canvas, others prefer it rough, and avail themselves of the texture to increase the richness of the surface of their work. All these varieties in the materials are called for in consequence of the numerous styles or modes adopted by painters in oil

colors. Every artist has his peculiar way of working, and in bringing out the color or effect, or special quality in his picture, by which the feeling or idea of the subject he conceives is expressed. No two artists—imitators and copiers are not referred to—produce their tints by mixing colors in the same proportions, nor, indeed, by using the same colors; and it is difficult to lay down general rules for the execution of works, seeing that depends very much on individual feeling and appreciation. The design or drawing is first outlined on the canvas, if it is light, with charcoal, or with white chalk when it is dark, and these lines are easily dusted off or rubbed out when corrections are made. It is then put in with black chalk or a lead pencil. Not many years ago it was the practice of painters, particularly landscape-painters—Nasmyth, for instance—to rub in the design with some brown color, such as a tint composed of burned sienna and black; but this practice is not much adopted now. Some artists make but a slight outline, and paint—or, as it is called technically rub—in the subject in a bold, rough manner, afterwards gradually finishing it up; others draw the design very carefully, and work the picture up in portions, finishing or nearly finishing one portion before commencing another. In arranging the colors, or as it is called, setting the palette, many artists use a great variety of colors, others produce rich tones with few colors; some mix up tints in various gradations, others place the colors on the palette, commencing at the outer edge with white, followed by yellows and burned sienna (a reddish brown), then reds, including laks, such as pink, madder, next blue, and lastly black, and merely mix up the tint on the centre of the palette with their brush, as they proceed. In laying the colors on the canvas, the painter with his brush mixes or dilutes them with what is called a vehicle or medium. Here, again, the practice of artists is very varied; and this is a matter of importance, as the tone and quality of the picture, as regards texture or surface, and transparency, is much affected by the medium employed, and the manner of using it. The durability of the work also depends very much on the medium and the artist's management of it. A medium composed of mastic varnish and drying or boiled linseed oil, named magilp, is that most generally used. This mixture congealates or forms a jelly, and has the advantage, when placed on the palette, of not running off it, or mixing with the colors when the palette is not held level. Some painters prefer using raw linseed oil mixed with a dryer, such as litharge, or dry ing oil mixed with turpentine, or copal varnish and turpentine, or copal varnish and oil, with mastic varnish added, to make it congealate. Other ingredients are often mixed with the medium, to give a thick consistency to the paint, such as fat or thickened nut oil, paste, &c.; and various preparations sold by artists' colourmen are much used; for instance, Roberson's medium, and Siccatif de Harlem, a preparation imported from Paris. The mode of using the medium is of great consequence; some apply it very sparingly, others, particularly those who prefer magilp, or a medium that congealates, employ it lavishly. By the first method, firmness and decision of touch may be exhibited, by the latter, richness and brilliancy of tone; the excess tends to produce, in the one case, a hard and dry surface, and the want of the protection that varnish mixed with the color gives against atmospheric action; the other induces a surface having a horny appearance, and a tendency to darken, or crack, or open up.

Arresting the decay of pictures, and repairing, or, as it is styled, restoring them, after they have suffered from age or bad usage are matters which engage much attention. There can be no doubt that many paintings of vast importance have been saved by the care and skill of those who have earnestly devoted themselves to that kind of work; but picture-cleaning is now a trade followed in numerous instances by ignorant pretenders and quacks, who hold out that they possess some means by which they can freshen a picture, and restore it to the state it was in when originally executed. Generally speaking, the great extent to which this business is carried on is owing to the credulity of those who dabble in collecting old pictures, one great incentive to which being the hope of picking up, or discovering, some picture of great value concealed under the dirt and discoloration acquired in a long course of years; but, nevertheless, there can be no doubt that many proprietors of works of art who collect from far higher motives, are remarkably prone to call in the picture-cleaner when his services are anything but necessary or beneficial. The late Sir Edwin Landseer, R.A., when examined by the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed to inquire into allegations of damage by cleaning, sustained by the pictures

in the National Gallery of London (Report and Evidence ordered to be printed, 1858), stated in the following terms, his idea of this rage for picture-cleaning, or rather picture-destroying: "The first thing, whenever a picture is sold, I think, is, that it goes to a picture-restorer, or a picture-liner, or a picture-cleaner, no matter what its condition is. It is exactly the same thing as when you buy a horse; your groom says he will be all right when he has a dose of physic through him, whether he wants it or not." The mania for picture-cleaning is not confined to this country; it is extensively carried on with even more ruinous consequences abroad, particularly in Italy, where there is a large traffic in old, and few commissions for modern works, and where in many of the public galleries one or more picture-cleaners, for whom work must be found, are attached as permanent officers.

The process of picture cleaning, or the removal of the old varnishes or other incrustations by which painting may be obscured, is effected either by mechanical or chemical means. The first method is accomplished when the varnish on the surface is mastic, by rubbing with the fingers the surface of varnish when in a dry state, by which action it is brought off in a fine white powder; or by scraping or erasing the surface with sharp steel instruments when the surface of the picture is tolerably smooth. The first of these processes is the best that can be employed; but when the surface is rough or unequal, the prominent portions are apt to be over-rubbed; erasing or scraping is often practised in Italy, but rarely in this country. The chemical means consist in the application of solvents, chiefly alkali, or alcohol, to dissolve the old varnish. The danger here is, that the action of these solvents is not always stopped with sufficient promptness and dexterity, and part of the surface of the picture is taken off; consequently it is by this latter process that most destruction is caused. For the various methods employed in picture-cleaning, the Report and Minutes of Evidence, already referred to, may be consulted, and the "Guide Théorique et Pratique de l'Amateur de Tableaux, par Théodore Lejeune" (Paris, 1864), in which are stated all the most approved methods of cleaning and restoring pictures.

Works on painting and painters: Vasari (Florence, 1568); Borghini (Florence, 1581); Rodolphi (Venice, 1648); Zanetti (Venice, 1771); Lanzi (1792). Bohm's edition of Roscoe's translation; Von Rumohr (Berlin, 1827); Kugler's "Hand-book of Painting, Italian Schools of Painting," edited by Eastlake (1855); "German, Flemish, and Dutch Schools," by the same, edited by Sir Edmund Head, Bart. (1846); "Hand-book to Spanish Schools and French Schools" (1848); "Hand-book for Young Painters," by C. R. Leslie, R. A. (1855); Ruskin's "Modern Painters" (1843-1860).

**PAINTING (House).** is one of the useful arts, combining much that is artistic with much that is absolutely necessary. The primary object of painting houses, or parts of them, either internally or externally, is to preserve them from decay—to cover the parts liable to suffer from exposure with a durable composition. That now used is made of ground whitelead mixed with linseed oil. This produces white paint, which forms the basis of all others. The various colors given to it are produced by the grinding of pigments (or *tainters*) along with the white lead. The commonest of these are ochres (yellow and red earth), lampblack, Venetian red,umber, Prussian blue, chrome, vermillion, &c. Substances called driers are also mixed with the paint, such as spirits of turpentine, boiled oil, linseed oil, and sugar of lead ground in oil. Paint may be laid on any material—stone, wood, iron and plaster being the most usual in buildings. It has the effect of preserving these by filling up the pores in them, and forming a coating on which the moisture of the atmosphere does not act. The paint is laid on in several coats or layers, each being allowed to dry before the next is applied. The usual number of coats for new wood or plaster varies from three to six. Five coats form a good and lasting protection from the weather. Plain painting is generally finished with a coat prepared with a mixture of oil of turpentine, which takes off the gloss from the paint, and leaves the surface quite mat or dead. This is called *flattening*. A very common form of decoration in all ages has been to imitate the veins or colors of marbles, and the *grains* or marks of growth of various woods. In modern times, these arts form a separate branch of house-painting, some men being *grainers*, others *marblers*, &c. The mode in which these imitations are produced is by forming a *grounding* of several coats of plain paint—usually four—and applying the coloring coat over this. In

marbling, the coloring matter is marked and veined with *feathers* in place of brushes; and in graining, steel combs are used. When the surface is dry, it is protected with one or more coats of copal varnish.

Besides painting, the decorator uses paper-hangings for adorning the walls of houses. These are applied to the walls with paste. Size-coloring is also used; the coloring matter in this case being mix'd with strong Size (q. v.) in place of oil; but this has the disadvantage of being easily acted on by moisture. It is often used for the ceilings of common rooms, and for the walls of kitchens and servants' apartments, being much cheaper than oil-paint. In ancient times, in Greece and Rome, wax was used for mixing the colors with; but although there are many very fine specimens of Roman paintings still preserved on the walls of the houses of Pompeii, the mode in which these decorations were applied is not now known.

PAINTS, Painters' Colors, or Pigments. These names are applied to the prepared or unprepared compositions by which wood, stone, and other materials are coated with a preservative surface of oil, mixed with an earthly matter, to give it color and consistency; also to the materials used by artists to produce the colored surfaces of their pictures. The art of painting, in its primitive state, consisted merely in applying such natural, mineral, and vegetable colors as were spontaneously yielded, without any vehicle to render them permanent; consequently, they had to be renewed as often as they were rubbed or washed off from the surfaces to which they were applied. The paints now in use are nearly all mixed with a liquid vehicle, and are applied in the liquid state. The mixing materials are varied according to the requirements of the work. Thus, for some kinds of decorative work, and for water-color drawings, gum, glue, size, or other adhesive materials dissolved in water, are employed; whilst for the painting of buildings, &c., and for oil-paintings, oils of various kinds are used for mixing and thinning the colors. Thus, for painted work exposed to the weather, it is found that linseed oil boiled with the sulphates of lead (litharge) or zinc, or with acetate of lead (sugar of lead), is the best. The preparation of boiled oil is one requiring particular care, as it is desirable to have it bright and clear. Hence the proportions of the metallic salts are much varied by different manufacturers, and by some various other ingredients are added. The time of boiling, and the method of filtering, are also much varied. For indoor work, plain linseed oil and oil (spirit) of turpentine are used; if a *glossy surface* is wished, the linseed oil must be in excess; if a *dull* or *flattened surface*, then the quantity of turpentine, or *turps*, as it is often technically called, must be increased; and it is usual to add a small quantity of ground litharge and sugar of lead, which are prepared for this purpose, and sold under the name of *Driers*. For artists' colors, very fine linseed or nut oil is used, unboiled, and in small quantity, and turpentine is employed to dilute them. Paints for very rough purposes, such as ship-work, stone walls, &c., are often mixed with whale oil boiled with white vitriol (acetate of zinc), litharge, and vinegar, and they are diluted with common linseed oil and turpentine.

Most of the paints used for ordinary purposes are composed first of the coloring matter, then of a quantity of white-lead, with which and the oil they are worked into a paste of the shade required, and afterwards thinned down with oil and turpentine when used. The white-lead which thus forms the basis of most paints, and by itself a color, is a carbonate and oxide of the metal, produced by exposing pieces of lead to the action of the steam of acetic acid in beds of fermenting tan. It is the principal white paint used, but is liable to discoloration from the gases contained in impure atmospheres. Other white pigments are prepared from the oxide of zinc, and the carbonate and sulphate of barytes. Pale yellow is made with chromate of strontian, orange-yellow with sulphuret of cadmium, whilst several varieties of this color are produced by chromate of lead, sulphuret of arsenic, or king's yellow, and various native earths in which silica and alumina are combined with oxide of iron. Amongst these are Yellow Ochre, Oxford, Ronian, Stone, Orange, Indian, and American Ochres. Reds are either purely mineral, or they are *lates*, i. e., organic colors precipitated on alumina bases. Of the latter, there are madder-lates, prepared from madder-roots, and carmine-lates, prepared from cochineal; of the former, vermillion (bisulphuret of mercury), Indian red (a native oxide of iron), Venetian red (also an oxide of iron), red lead (red oxide of lead or minium). A very beautiful red is used by artists called palladium red; it is formed of ammonio-per-

**chloride of palladium.** *Blues* consist of the artificial ultramarine, and for artists' purposes, of the real ultramarine, also the silicate of cobalt, and for water-colors, indigo and Prussian blue. *Greens* are either produced by mixtures of yellows and blues, or they are made directly from the phosphates, carbonates, acetates, and arsenites of copper, also from the sesquioxide of chromium and from *terre verte*, a native mineral, consisting of iron, silica, potassa, and magnesia. The last two are the best for artists. *Browns* are numerous, and various in their composition. Decomposed peat, burned madder, burned Prussian blue, burned *terre verte*, asphalt, manganese brown, catechu, umber (which is an oxide of iron with manganese), and mummy, or the asphalt mixed with other matters taken from Egyptian mummies, and amongst the best known and most used. *Blacks* are made of Lamp-black and Bone-black (q. v.), peroxide of manganese, and blue-black, which is made of the charcoal of burned vine twigs.

In all cases, the coloring materials of paints require to be very finely ground, and as many are very poisonous, great care is required in their preparation, and several forms of mill have been invented for the purpose. The principle upon which all are made is to secure the operator from the poisonous dust and exhalations, and to reduce the coloring material, if ground dry, to an impalpable powder, or if mixed with the oil, to a perfectly smooth paste.

**PAISIELLO**, Giovanni, an eminent musician, son of a veterinary surgeon at Taranto, was born in 1741, and received his musical education in the Conservatorio St Onofrio at Naples. Of his earlier operas produced at Naples, the most celebrated was "Dal Finto al Vero," composed in 1777. Some of his best works, particularly "*Il Barbiere de Seviglia*," were written during an eight years' residence at St Petersburg. At Vienna, he composed twelve symphonies for a large orchestra, and the *opera buffa*, "*Il re Teodoro*." Between 1788 and 1799, he produced a number of operas for the Neapolitan theatre, and was appointed by Ferdinand IV. his *maestro di capella*. In consequence of having accepted under the revolutionary government the office of national director of music, he was suspended from his functions for two years after the restoration of royalty, but eventually restored to them. In 1802, he went to Paris to direct the music of the consular chapel; but the indifferent reception, shortly after given to his opera of "*Proserpine*," led him to return to Naples, where he died in 1816. His compositions are characterised by sweetness and gracefulness of melody, and simplicity of structure. Besides no fewer than ninety operas, P. composed masses, requiems, cantatas, an oratorio, instrumental quartets, harpsichord sonatas, concertos, and a highly-praised funeral march in honor of General Hoché.

**PAISLEY**, a municipal and parliamentary burgh, and an important manufacturing town of Scotland, in the county of Renfrew, on both banks of the White Cart, three miles above its junction with the Clyde, and seven miles west-south-west of Glasgow by railway. The progress of the town has been much hindered by the fact that it was bankrupt for nearly thirty years. A bill was passed in 1872, by which a settlement was effected, and the town property restored to the corporation. Since then, extensive improvements have been made. An abundant supply of water is brought from the Gleniffer Hills, and more recently from Rowbank.

By far the most interesting edifice is the abbey. It was founded by Walter, the High Steward of Scotland, about 1163, for a prior and 13 monks of the Cluniac order of reformed Benedictines, and was dedicated to St James, St Mirren, and St Menburga. It was the burying-place of the Stewarts before the accession of that family to the throne, and was occasionally used by them afterwards as a place of sepulture. It was raised to the rank of an abbey in 1245. What remains of the building is the nave, of six bays, chiefly in the First Pointed style. In 1862 a thorough restoration of the Abbey (at a cost of £4000) was made, the happiest feature of which was the removal of the unsightly galleries. The eastern gable window represents the Ascension. It is of Munich Manufacture. Another window has been inserted by the St Andrew's Society of Glasgow, in memory of Sir William Wallace, who, if he was born at Ellerslie, was a native of the Abbey parish. Extensive improvements in the surroundings of the abbey are in progress.

Among the other edifices, the principal are the County Buildings, a quadrangular pile in the castellated style; the Neilson Educational Institution, a noble bequeath built in the form of a Greek cross, and surmounted by a flue dome; the Infirmary

the School of Design; and the Grammar School. This last institution was founded by King James VI., and the present building was completed in June 1864. In 1870 a Free Public Library and Museum was presented to the town, and is maintained by the community under the Free Libraries Act; and by a similar act of liberality, its amenity was increased by a pleasure-ground named the Fountain Gardens. In 1873 a native of Paisley bequeathed £20,000 for the erection of a town hall. P. possesses a trust for the education of boys born in the burgh and Abbey parish, the revenue of which amounts to £600, and is spent on educational bursaries.

In the beginning of the last century, the principal manufactures were coarse linens and chequered cloths. About the middle of that century, the weaving of linen and of silk gauze became the staple manufactures. In 1784 silk gauze was manufactured to the value of £350,000, and employed 5000 looms. Shawls, which need to be a principal and are still an important article of manufacture, began to be made here in the beginning of the present century. Within recent years the annual value of the shawl trade of P. was estimated at about £1,000,000 sterling, but it has now greatly declined. Cotton thread is manufactured on a most extensive scale; indeed P. may be considered the seat of the thread manufacture for the home and American markets. Different varieties of tartan cloths, handkerchiefs, carpets, &c. are made; soap, starch, and corn flour are largely manufactured; dyeing is carried on by several firms on an extensive scale; and power-loom factories, print-works, machine shops, bleach-fields, ship-building yards, &c. are in operation in the town and vicinity. At the St James' Day Fair, horse-races, originated by act of the burgh in 1608, are held. Pop. (1871) 45,257.

PAKS, a market-town of Hungary, in the county of Tolna, 60 miles south-southeast of Perth, on the Danube. The river is here very winding, and the eastern bank a desert and useless morass. The town is frequently subject to inundations. Pop. (1869) 9434.

PALACE, this title is applied, with few exceptions, in this country to houses occupied by royal personages only. In Italy the name is given to all fine dwellings.

PALACKY, Frantisek, a Bohemian philologist, critic, and historian, was born 14th June 1798 at Hodslavitz, in Moravia, and studied at Presburg and Vienna, confining his attention chiefly to philological and historical investigations. In 1831 he was appointed by the states of Bohemia historiographer to that country, and was intrusted with the compilation of a general history of Bohemia. In furtherance of this work, he ransacked all the libraries and archives in Bohemia, and made long visits to Germany and Italy in search of materials. He took part in the political agitation of 1848, and was the leader of the Slav or national party as opposed to the German at the Diet of Kremsier, after the dissolution of which he returned to his literary labours. His great and justly celebrated work, "History of Bohemia" (in German and Bohemian, Prague, 1836–1867, 5 vols.), was received with enthusiasm by the whole Bohemian nation. Besides an early treatise on aesthetics, P. published many volumes of documents pertaining to Bohemian history, and a series of monographs on the same subject; a work on the most ancient monuments of the Czech tongue; an account of a literary tour to Italy in 1837; and in 1872 his "Political Testament" "Father P." as he was fondly called by his Czech fellow-countrymen, was beloved by them as the first to give access to the real history of Bohemia; and though himself a Protestant, was regarded by Catholics with perfect confidence. Throughout life a zealous contender for the crown rights of Bohemia, he persistently but vainly opposed the reconstruction of Austria on a German-Hungarian basis, and when in 1861 he was elected into the Austrian House of Lords, he declined to attend. He died in May 1876.

PA'LADIN, a term originally derived from the Counts Palatine, or of the Palace (see PALATINE), who were the highest dignitaries in the Byzantine court, and thence used generally for a lord or chieftain, and by the Italian romantic poets for a knight-errant.

PALÆA'STER (Gr. ancient star-fish), a genus of star-fish peculiar to the Silurian period, which in general appearance resemble the living brittle stars, but when more minutely examined, present so many anomalies, that they cannot be referred to any existing family. Five or six species have been described.

**PALÆOGRAPHY** (Gr. *palaios*, old, and *graphē*, writing), the science of ancient writings. It comprehends not merely the art of reading them, but such a critical knowledge of all their circumstances as will serve to determine their age, if they happen to be undated, and their genuineness, in the absence of any formal authentication. For these purposes, the palæographer needs to be acquainted with the various substances, such as bark, leaves, skin, paper, &c., which have been used for writing; with the various manners of writing which have prevailed, and the changes which they have undergone; with the various forms of authenticating writings, such as seals, signatures, superscriptions, subscriptions, attestations, &c., which have been employ'd at different times; with the various phases through which the grammar, vocabulary, and orthography of the language of the writing with which he is dealing, has passed; and with more or less, as the case may be, of the history, laws, institutions, literature, and art of the age and country to which the writing professes to belong.

Palæography may be said to have been founded by the learned French Benedictine, Jean Mabillon, whose "De Re Diplomatica," first published in 1681 in 1 vol. fol., reprinted in 1709, and again in 1789, in 2 vols. fol., is still, perhaps, the most masterly work on the subject. Along with the "Nouveau Traité de Diplomatique" (Par. 1760—1765, 6 vols. 4to) of the Benedictines of St Maur, and the "Éléments de Paléographie" (Par. 1888, 2 vols. 4to) by M. Natalis de Wailly, it is the great authority for French palæography. English palæography is perhaps less favorably represented in Astle's "Origin and Progress of Writing" (Lond. 1808), than Scottish palæography in Anderson's and Ruddiman's "Diplomata Scotica" (Edin. 1789). Muratori treats of Italian palæography in the third volume of his great work, the "Antiquitates Italicae Medii Aevi," and among later works on the same subject may be mentioned the "Diplomatica Pontificia" (Rome, 1841) of Marino Marini. The palæography of Greece is illustrated in the "Palæographia Graeca" (Par. 1708) of Montfaucon. Spanish palæography may be studied in the "Biblioteca de la Polygraphia Espanola" (Mad. 1758) of Don C. Rodriguez. Of works on German palæography, it may be enough to name Eckard's "Introductio in Renu Diplomaticam" (Den. 1742), Henmann's "Commentarii de Re Diplomatica" (Norimb. 1745), Walther's "Lexicon Diplomaticum" (Gott. 1745), and Kopp's "Palæographia Critica" (Mannh. 1817). Hebrew palæography has been elaborated by Gesenius in his "Geschichte der Hebräischen Sprache und Schrift," and other works. The great work on palæography generally—one of the most sumptuous works of its class ever published—is the "Palæographie Universelle" (Par. 1839—1845, in 5 vols. fol.) of M. J. B. Silvestre.

See BLACK LETTER, CONTRACTIONS, PALIMPSEST, PAPYRI.

**PALÆOLOGUS**, the name of an illustrious Byzantine family, which first appears in history about the 11th c., and attained to imperial dignity in the person of MICHAEL VIII. in 1260. This emperor successfully undertook many expeditions to Greece and the Archipelago, and used his utmost endeavors to heal the schism between the Roman and Greek Churches, though with exceedingly little success. His successor on the throne was his son ANDRONICUS II. (1282—1329), under whose reign the Turks commenced in earnest a series of assaults on the Byzantine dominions. Andronicus attempted to oppose them with a force composed of mercenaries, but his success was very doubtful, as these troops, with perfect impartiality, attacked both his enemies and his subjects. To pay them he was compelled to levy such imposts as went far to destroy Byzantine commerce. He associated his son, MICHAEL IX. with himself in the government, and was dethroned by his grand-son, ANDRONICUS III. (1328—1341), an able warrior and wise ruler, who repeatedly defeated the Bulgarians, Tartars of the Golden Horde, and the Servians, and diminished the oppressive imposts of the previous reign. He was, however, unsuccessful against the Catalans in Greece, and the Turks during his reign ravaged Thrace as far as the Balkan. He was greatly esteemed by his subjects, and well merited the title of "Father of his Country," which they bestowed upon him. His son, JOHN VI. (1355—1391), a weak and voluptuous prince, attempted in vain, both by force and bribery to stop the progress of the Turks; at last the pope, moved by his urgent entreaties, which were backed by a promise to submit the Greek Church to his (the pope's) supremacy, urged the Hungarians and Servians to arm in defence of the Greek emperor, but the result was only an additional triumph to Sultan Amur-

rath. The imbecile emperor was several times deposed, and on his final reinstatement by the sultan, acknowledged himself as his vassal for the capital and a small tract along the Propontis and Black Sea. Indeed, so degraded had the Byzantines become, that they obeyed the Sultan Bajazet's summons to aid him in reducing Philadelphion, the last Greek stronghold in Asia Minor. His son, ANDRONICUS IV. (1355—1373), who had been associated with him in the government, died in exile. MANUEL II. (1391—1425) pursued the same tactics as his father John VI., and with the same result. The allied army of the Hungarians, Germans, and French, which he had summoned to his aid against the Turks, was totally routed at Nicopolis by Bajazet, and Constantinople itself closely besieged. The invasion of Asia Minor by Timur, however, compelled the sultan to withdraw his whole force, and his subsequent defeat and capture at Angora in 1402, and the contests among his sons for the supremacy, gave the Greek empire a breathing space. Having aided Mohammed I. in his contests with his brothers, Manuel was, by the grateful sultan, presented with some districts in Greece, Thessalonica, and on the Euxine. JOHN VII. (1425—1449), on being pressed by the Turks, again held out to the pope the old bait of the union of the Greek and Western Churches under his sway, and even presented himself at the council of Florence, where, in July 1439, the union of the churches was agreed to. But on his return to Constantinople, the opposition of the Greek ecclesiastics to the union, supported by the people, rendered the agreement of Florence a dead letter. The pope, however, saw that it was for his interest to fulfil his part of the agreement, and accordingly stirred up Vladislas of Hungary to attack the Turks (see JAGELLONS), but this act only hastened the downfall of the Palaeologi. John's brother, CONSTANTINE XIII. (1449—1453), a heroic scion of a degenerate race, accepted the crown after much hesitation, knowing his total inability to withstand the Turks, and even then took the precaution of obtaining the sultan's consent before he exercised the imperial authority; but some rebellions in Carmania which now occurred, baffling Sultan Mohammed II.'s efforts to quell them, the emperor was willingly persuaded by his rash advisers that the time had now arrived for rendering himself independent of the Turks. The attempt, however, only brought swifter destruction on the wretched remnant of the Byzantine empire, for Mohammed invested the capital by sea and land, and after a siege, which lasted from 6th April to 29th May 1453. Constantinople was taken by storm, and the last of the Palaeologi fell fighting bravely in the breach. A branch of this family ruled Montferrat in Italy from 1306, but became extinct in 1533. The Palaeologi were connected by marriage with the ruling families of Hungary, Servia, and the last of the family married Ivan, Czar of Russia—a fact which the Czars of Russia have persisted till lately in bringing forward as a claim in favor of their pretensions to the possession of European Turkey. It is said that direct descendants of the Palaeologi exist to the present day in France. (For further information, see the separate articles on some of the emperors, and BYZANTINE EMPIRE.)

PALAEONYSCUS (Gr. ancient sea-fish), a genus of ganoid fish, with a fusiform body, covered with rhomboid scales, a heterocercal tail, and moderately-sized fins, each furnished with an anterior spine. The single dorsal fin is opposite to the interval between the anal and ventral fins. Twenty-eight species have been described from the Carboniferous and Permian measures.

PALÆONTOLOGY (Gr. science of fossil animals) is that division of Geology (q. v.) whose province it is to inquire into the evidence of organic life on the globe during the different bygone geological periods, whether this evidence arises from the actual remains of the different plants and animals, or from recognisable records of their existence, such as footprints, Coprolites (q. v.), &c.

The metamorphic action which has so remarkably altered the oldest sedimentary rocks, is sufficient to have obliterated all traces of organic remains contained in them. Fossils are consequently extremely rare in these older palæozoic strata, and indeed it is only after long search, and within a recent time, that undoubted remains have been found in the Laurentian rocks. We were unable to record their existence in the article LAURENTIAN SYSTEM; but in the article LIMESTONE, we referred to the existence of beds of limestone as requiring the presence of animal life for their production. It is true that in 1852 an organic form resembling a coral was found in the limestone of the Ottawa, but much doubt was always entertained regarding

this solitary discovery. In 1863, however, there was detected an organism in the serpentine limestone of Grenville, of true Laurentian age, which Dr Dawson describes as that of a Foraminifer, growing in large sessile patches after the manner of *Carpentaria*, but of much greater dimensions, and presenting minute points, which reveal a structure resembling that of other foraminiferal forms, as, for example, *Calcarina* and *Nummulina*. Large portions of the limestone appear to be made up of these organisms, mixed with other fragments, which suggest comparisons with crinoids and other calcareous fossils, but which have not yet been distinctly determined. Some of the limestones are more or less colored by carbonaceous matter, exhibiting evidences of organic structure, probably vegetable. In this single Foraminifer, and the supposed coral, we have all that is positively known of the earliest inhabitants of our globe, with which we are yet acquainted. That these are but the smallest fraction of the fauna of the period in which they lived, is evident from the undetermined fragments associated with them, as well as from the extensive deposits of limestone of the same age. And that contemporaneous with them, there existed equally numerous representatives of the vegetable kingdom, cannot be doubted, when it is remembered that the animal can obtain its food only through the vegetable, and not directly from inorganic materials. Besides, their remains apparently exist in the limestone at Grenville, a rock which, from its very nature, rarely contains vegetable fossils.

The Cambrian rocks, though of immense thickness, have hitherto yielded indications of only a very few animals, but these have a special interest, as they are the oldest fossil remains yet detected in Britain. They consist of an impression which Salter considers to be portion of a trilobite, named by him *Palaeopyge*, of the burrows and tracks of sea-worms, and of two species of radiated zoophytes called *Oldhamia*—animals which in this case also can be nothing more than the most fragmentary representations of the fauna of the period. No indications of vegetable life have yet been noticed in the Cambrian rocks, for we cannot consider the superficial markings on some of these strata as having anything to do with fuci.

Undoubted representations of the four invertebrate sub-kingdoms early make their appearance in the Silurian strata, and the occurrence before the close of the period of several fish, adds to them the remaining sub-kingdom—the vertebrata. If we except the siliceous frustules of Diatomaceæ which are said to have been detected in these rocks, no satisfactory traces of plants have yet been observed, although extensive layers of anthracitic shales are common. Of the lower forms of the animal kingdom, some sponge-like bodies have been found, and corals are remarkably abundant, chiefly belonging to the order *Rugosa*, a palæozoic type, the members of which have horizontal tabule, and vertical plates or septa, either four in number, or a multiple of four. Graptolites, another family of zoophytes, flourished in the dark mud of the Silurian seas, and did not survive the period. All the great divisions of the Mollusca are represented by numerous genera, several of which are not very different from some living forms. A few true star-fishes have left their records on the rocks, but the most striking feature in the Echinodermata of the period is the Cystidium, or armless sea-lilies, which, like the Graptolites, did not pass beyond the Silurian seas. Tubes, tracks, and burrows of annelids have been observed; and numerous Crustacea, belonging, with the exception of one or two shrimp-like species, to the characteristic palæozoic Trilobite, of which the number of individuals is as remarkable as the variety of species and genera. It is only in the upper portion of the group (the Ludlow beds) that the fish remains have been found. These have been referred to six different genera, and are chiefly loricate ganoids, of which *Cephalaspis* is the best known.

The rocks of the Old Red Sandstone period supply the earliest satisfactory remains of plants. The Ferns, Siliquarie, Lycopodites, and Calamites, so abundant in the Coal Measures, make their appearance among the newer of these beds, and even fragments of dicotyledonous wood have been observed. The various sections of the invertebrates are well represented, but the remarkable characteristic in the animal life of the period is the abundance of strange forms of heterocercal-tailed fish, whose buckler-shields, hard scales, or bony spines occur in the greatest abundance in some beds. The reptiles and reptile tracks in the Red Sandstone of Moray, originally referred here, are now universally considered as belonging to the New Red measures.

The striking feature in the rocks of the Carboniferous period is the great abundance of plants, the remains of which occur throughout the whole series, the coal-beds being composed entirely of them, the shales being largely charged with them, the sandstones containing a few, and even the limestones not being entirely without them. These plants were specially fitted for preservation, the bulk of them being vascular cryptogams, a class which Lindley and Hutton have shewn by experiment to be capable of long preservation under water. They are chiefly ferns; some are supposed to have been arborescent lycopods, while others (*Sigillaria*, *Calamites*, and *Asterophylites*) are so different from anything now known, that their position cannot be definitely determined, though it is most probably among the higher cryptogams. Several genera of conifers have been established from fossilised fragments of wood; and some singular impressions, which look like the flowering stems of dicotyledonous plants, have been found. The limestones are chiefly composed of crinoids, corals, and brachiopodous shells. The corals attain a great size, and the crinoids are extremely abundant, their remains making sometimes beds of limestone 1000 feet thick, and hundreds of square miles in extent. Many new genera of shells make their appearance. The trilobites, which were so abundant in the earlier rocks, are reduced to one or two genera, and finally disappear with this period. Fish with polished bony scales are found; and others, like the Port Jackson shark, with pavements of flat teeth over their mouth and gullet, fitting them to crush and grind the shell-protected animals on which they fed. Strange fish-like reptiles existed in the seas, and air-breathing species have been found on the continent and in America. The wing-cases, and parts of the bodies of insects, have also been found.

The Permian period is remarkable for the paucity of its organic remains, but this may arise from our comparative ignorance of its strata. The plants and animals are on the whole similar to those found in the Carboniferous measures, and a great proportion of them belong to the same genera. Many ancient forms do not pass this period, as the *Sigillaria* among plants, and the *Producta* among animals.

The red sandstones of the Triassic period are remarkably destitute of organic remains—the iron, which has given to them this color, seems to have been fatal to animal life. In beds, however, on the continent, in which the iron is absent, fossils abound. These fossils present a singular contrast to those met with in the older rocks. The Palaeozoic forms had been gradually dying out, and the few that were still found in the Permian strata do not survive that period, while in their place there appear in the Trias many genera which approach more nearly to the living forms. Between the organisms of the Permian and Triassic periods there exist a more striking difference than is to be found between those of any previous periods. Looking at this life-character, the rocks from the Permian downwards have been grouped together under the title Palaeozoic; while from the Trias upwards the whole of the strata have received the name of Neozoic.

The extensive genera of Ammonites and Belemnites make their first appearance in the Trias. Several new forms of Cestraciont fish occur, and the reptiles increase in number and variety; among them is the huge benthonian *Labyrinthodon*, and the singular fresh-water tortoise, *Dicynodon*. The bird-tracks on the sandstones of Connecticut are by some referred to this age. Small teeth of mammals, believed to be those of an insectivorous animal, like the Myrmecobius of Australia, have been found in the Keuper beds of Germany and Somerset.

In the Oolitic series we have an abundance of organic remains, in striking contrast to the scanty traces in the Permian and Triassic periods. Many new genera of ferns take the place of the Palaeozoic forms, and a considerable variety of Conifers make their appearance, some of which have close affinities with living species, one, indeed, being referred to a still existing genus. The same approximation to living types is to be found in the animal kingdom. Several of the foraminifers are referred to living genera. Among the corals, the representatives of two living families make their appearance. No new genera are found among the Brachiopoda; but the Conchifera and Gasteropoda shew a great addition of new genera, some of which are still represented by living species, while not many new genera were added to the Cephalopoda, though they were individually very abundant. In some places the Lias shale consists of extensive pavements of Belemnites and Ammonites. The Crinoids give place to the increasing variety of sea-urchins and star-fishes. Num-

bers of insects have been found. The Cetaceans continue to be represented in the Oolitic seas, but with them are associated several true sharks and rays; and the homocercal-tailed fish become numerous. Labyrinthodont reptiles abound; the huge Megalosaurus and its companions occupied the land; while the seas were tenanted with the remarkable Ichthyosaur and Plesiosaur, and the air with the immense bat-like Pterodactyle. Seven genera of Mammalia have been found, all believed to be small carnivorous or insectivorous marsupials, except the *Stereognathus*, which Owen considers to have been a placental mammal, probably hoofed and herbivorous.

In the Cretaceous beds, which are chiefly deep-sea deposits, the remains of plants and land animals are comparatively rare. The Wealden beds, however, which had a fresh-water origin, contain the remains of several small marsupials, some huge carnivorous and herbivorous reptiles, a few fresh-water shells, and some fragments of drift-wood. The true chalk is remarkably abundant in the remains of foraminifers—indeed, in some places, it is composed almost entirely of the shells of these minute creatures. Of the mollusca, the Brachiopoda are in some beds very abundant; the Conchifera introduce several new forms, the most striking of which is the genus *Hippurites*, which with its allies did not survive this period; the cephalopodous genera which appeared in the Oolite, continue to abound in the chalk, many new forms being introduced; while others disappear with the period, like the Belemnites and Ammonites. Sea-urchins become still more numerous. In some beds the remains of fish are abundant, and while cartilaginous species still exist, the bony fishes become more numerous; and among them the family to which the salmon and cod belong makes its appearance. Reptiles are common in the Wealden, and the flying Pterodactyles attained a greater size, and were probably more numerous than in the former period. The remains of a single bird has been obtained from the greensand, but with this exception, birds as well as mammals have left no traces that have yet been found in the Cretaceous beds, though doubtless they existed.

In the Tertiary strata, the genera are either those still living, or forms very closely allied to them, which can be separated only by the careful examination of the accurate scientific observer. The plants of the Eocene beds are represented by dicotyledonous leaves, and palm and other fruits. Foraminifers are remarkably abundant, whole mountain masses being formed of the large genus *Nunnularia*. Brachiopoda are rare, but Conchifera, Gasteropoda, and Cephalopoda increase in number; the new forms being generically almost identical with those now living. The principal living orders of fish, reptiles, and birds are represented in the Eocene strata. A considerable variety of pachydermatous mammals, suited apparently to live on marshy grounds and the borders of lakes, have been found in France and England, and associated with them are some carnivorous animals, whose remains are, however, much rarer. An opossum has been found at Colchester. The fragments belonging to the supposed monkey are portions of a small pachyderm, *Hyracotherium* (q. v.).

Little need be said of the invertebrates of the Miocene period, beyond remarking their growing identity in genera with the living forms. Among the mammals, the Quadrumana make their first appearance. The true elephant and the allied mastodon are represented by several species; a huge carnivorous whale has been discovered, and several Carnivora and deer, with a huge edentate animal, have been described. Owen thus speaks of these animals: "Our knowledge of the progression of Mammalian life during the Miocene period, teaches us that one or two of the generic forms most frequent in the older Tertiary strata still lingered on the earth, but that the rest of the Eocene Mammalia had been superseded by new forms, some of which present characters intermediate between those of Eocene and those of Pliocene genera."

In passing upwards through the Tertiary strata, the organic remains become more and more identical with living forms, so that when we reach the Pliocene and Pleistocene periods, the great proportion of the invertebrates are the same species which are found occupying the present seas. Among the higher orders of animals, the life of a species is much shorter than in the lower, and consequently, though the vertebrata approach so nearly to existing forms as for the most part to be placed in the same genera, yet the species differ from any of the living representatives of the different genera.

The Suffolk "Crags," which are the only British representatives of the Pli-

period, contain the relics of a marine testacea, that differs little from the present tenants of the European seas, between 60 and 70 per cent. being the same species. The ear-bones of one or more species of Cetacea have been found, and at Antwerp, the remains of a dolphin have been discovered in beds of this age.

The various local deposits which together form the Pleistocene strata, the latest of the geological periods, contain a great variety of organic remains. In the submarine forests, and in beds of peat, the stumps of trees are associated with the remains of underwood and herbaceous plants of species still living. Nearly all the mollusca and other marine invertebrates still survive. It is among the vertebrates that the most remarkable forms appear—forms which in the main differ little from the existing race of animals except in their enormous size. Elephants and rhinoceroses, fitted for a cold climate by their covering of long coarse hair and wool, roamed over the northern regions of both the Old and the New World, and were associated with animals belonging to genera which still exist in the same region, as bears, deer, wolves, foxes, badgers, otters, wolverines, weasels, and beavers, besides others whose representatives are now found further south, as the hippopotamus, tapir, and hyena. Contemporary with these, there lived in South America a group of animals which were types in everything but in size of the peculiar existing fauna of that continent. Among these were gigantic sloth-like animals, fitted to root up and push down the trees, instead of climbing to strip them of their foliage, like the sloth. The armadillo was represented by the huge Glyptodon, whose body was protected by a strong tessellated coat of mail. The species of fossil tapirs and peccaries are more numerous than their living representatives. The lamas were preceded by the large Macranchenia, and the opossums and platyrhine monkeys were also prefigured by related species. Besides these, there have been found the remains of two mastodons and a horse, none of which are represented by any indigenous living animal in South America. The peculiar group of animals confined to Australia were prefigured by huge marsupials, some having close analogies to the living kangaroos and wombats, while others were related to the carnivorous native tiger. The gigantic wingless birds of New Zealand correspond in type with the anomalous apteryx, now existing only on these islands.

Associated with the remains of elephants, mastodons, cave-bears, and cave-hyenas, there have been found, in England and France, numerous specimens of flint implements, which are undoubtedly the result of human workmanship, and shew at least that man was contemporaneous with these extinct animals. If more certain evidence were needed of this, it has been obtained in the discovery of flint implements, bone implements fashioned and carved by means of the flint knives, the horns of a reindeer, two kinds of extinct deer, Bos primigenius, and other animals, associated with numerous bones of man, included in the breccia of the cave of Bruniquel in France. Owen considers the evidence of the contemporaneity of the various remains as conclusive. The several human skulls which have been obtained shew, according to the same authority, no characters whatever indicative of an inferior or transitional type. There are no certain data to give probability to the guesses which have been made as to the number of years which have elapsed since these deposits in which the relics of man occur were formed. The whole inquiry, moreover, is so recent, and the accumulation of facts is almost every day going on, that it would be premature to speak dogmatically on the subject.

PALÆOPYGE (Gr. ancient rump), a genus of fossil Crustacea, founded on a single impression from the surface of a bed in the Longmynd, of Cambrian age. Salter believes it to be the cephalic shield of a trilobite, but it may be only an accidental marking. If it be the impression of an organism, it is so distorted and imperfect that little can be made of it; its peculiar interest arises from its being associated with the earliest forms of life that have been observed on the globe.

PALÆOSAURUS (Gr. ancient lizard), a genus of fossil saurian reptiles peculiar to the Permian period. The remains of two species occur in the dolomitic conglomerate at Redland, near Bristol. The teeth were more or less compressed, and were furnished with serrated cutting margins. The vertebrae were biconcave, and had a remarkable depression in the centre of each vertebra, into which the spinal canal was sunk. The leg-bones shew that the Palaeosaurus were fitted for moving on the

d. Owen thus exhibits their affinities: "In their thecodont type of dentition,

biconcave vertebrae, double-jointed ribs, and proportionate size of the bones of the extremities, they are allied to the Teleosaurus, but with these they combine a Dinosaurian femur, a lacertian form of tooth, and a crocodilian structure of pectoral and probably pelvic arch."

**PALÆOTHE'RUM** (Gr. ancient wild beast), a genus of pachydermatous mammalia whose remains occur in the Eocene beds of England and the continent. At least ten species have been described, ranging in size from that of a sheep to that of a horse. The upper Eocene gypseous quarries of Montmartre supplied the first scanty materials, which Cuvier, by a series of careful and instructive inductions, built up into an animal, whose fidelity to nature was afterwards verified by the discovery of a complete series of fossils. In general appearance the *Palæotherium* resembled the modern tapir, and especially in having the snout terminating in a short proboscis. It had three toes on each foot, each terminated by a hoof.—The formula of the teeth is the same as that of the *Hyracotherium*, viz.,

$$\begin{array}{cccc} 8-3 & 1-1 & 4-4 & 8-3 \\ \text{I. } \overline{\phantom{1}} & \text{C. } \overline{\phantom{1}} & \text{P. M. } \overline{\phantom{1}} & \text{M. } \overline{\phantom{1}} - 44; \\ 8-3 & 1-1 & 4-4 & 8-3 \end{array}$$

but the structure of the molars approaches nearer to the molars of the rhinoceros. It is supposed that animals of this genus dwelt on the margins of lakes and rivers, and that their habits were similar to those of the tapir.

**PALÆOZO'IC** (Gr. ancient life), the name given to the lowest division of the fossiliferous rocks, because they contain the earliest forms of life. They were formerly, and are still generally, known as the Primary rocks. The strata included under these titles are the Laurentian, Cambrian, Silurian, Old Red Sandstone, Carboniferous, and Permian systems. Phillips, for the sake of uniformity, introduced Mesozoic as equivalent to Secondary, and Neozoic to Tertiary rocks.

**PALÆ'STRA**, a building for gymnastic sports.

**PALAFIX Y MELZI**, Don José de, Duke of Saragossa, a Spanish patriot, was born in 1780 of a distinguished Aragonese family, and received an excellent education. He accompanied Ferdinand VII. to Bayonne, and on seeing him made a prisoner there, fled to Saragossa, where he exerted himself to prevent the invasion of Aragon by the French. His defence of Saragossa (q. v.), 27th July 1808—21st February 1809, which only yielded to the French after a second investment, is one of the most brilliant and heroic incidents in modern history, and has conferred lasting glory on P. and the whole city. The ancient fame of the Spaniards for obstinate valor in the defence of walled cities was rivaled, if not surpassed, and Saragossa could proudly claim to vie with Numantia. P., sick and exhausted, was taken prisoner and conveyed by the ungenerous French to the dungeons of Vincennes, where he was treated with great hardship. Released in 1813, he returned to Spain, and was appointed in the following year captain-general of Aragon. P. was no great politician, but he loved liberty and hated anarchy, and on more than one occasion he supported the former and crushed the latter. After being created Duke of Saragossa, and Grandee of Spain of the first class in 1836, he kept himself apart from politics. He died at Madrid 16th February 1847.

**PALAIS ROYAL**, a heterogeneous mass of buildings on the eastern side of the Rue Richelieu in Paris, composed of a palace, theatres, public gardens, bazaars, shops, cafés, and restaurants. The old palace was built between 1624 and 1636 on the site of the Hôtel Rambouillet by Cardinal Richelieu, who at his death bequeathed it to Louis XIII. Henrietta of France, widow of Charles I., and Anne of Austria, the queen mother, afterwards lived in it for a time with her young son, Louis XIV. It subsequently became the town residence of the Orleans branch of the Bourbons, and during the minority of Louis XV. it acquired a scandalous notoriety as the scene of the wild orgies in which the regent, Duke of Orleans, and his dissolute partisans were wont to indulge; while in the time of his son, Philippe Egalité, it became the focus of revolutionary intrigue, and the rendezvous for political demagogues of every shade of opinion. This prince, partly to repair his impoverished fortune, and partly to persuade the sans-culottes of Paris of the sincerity of his professed sympathy with their striving for equality, converted part

gardens into a place of public resort, and the pavilions of the great court into bazaars, which were divided into shops and stalls. On the downfall of Egalité, the P. R. was taken possession of by the republican government, and used for the sittings of the tribunes during the Reign of Terror. On the restoration of the Bourbons, it reverted to the Orleans family, and was occupied by Louis Philippe till his election to the throne of France in 1830, when it was incorporated in the general domains of the state, and ceased to be an appanage of the House of Orleans. The palace was sacked by the mob during the Revolution of 1848, when many of its best paintings and most precious works of art were destroyed. After having been temporarily appropriated to various public purposes, it was thoroughly repaired and magnificently furnished, and given by the late emperor, in 1855, to his uncle Jerome Bonaparte, whose son Prince Napoleon resided there until 1871. The main entrance, with its elegant façade, is in the Rue St Honoré; and on passing through the first court, the second or Cour Royale is reached, to the left of which stands the Théâtre Français, while immediately facing it is the celebrated Galerie Vitrée, or Glass Gallery, which contains on the ground floor some of the most brilliant shops of Paris, while the upper stories are chiefly occupied by cafés and restaurants. The garden, which is surrounded by this and other galleries, measures 700 feet by 300. The Red Republicans set fire to the palace in March 1871 (see PARIS), when all the apartments occupied by Prince Napoleon were destroyed. The firemen and those who aided them, while forming in line to pass buckets of water, were fired upon by the insurgents; but kept to their work, and succeeded in checking the flames before they spread to the galleries and shops, which may almost be said to have remained intact. In the autumn of 1873 that part of the palace injured by the insurgents was restored. The garden, with its avenues and parterres, fountains and grass plots, still constitutes one of the liveliest and most frequented spots in the whole city; and although much of their glory has faded, its cafés still maintain, in great measure, the world-wide reputation they long ago acquired.

PALANQUI'N, or Palki, the vehicle commonly used in Hindustan by travellers, is a wooden box, about 8 feet long, 4 feet wide, and 4 feet high, with wooden shutters which can be opened or shut at pleasure, and constructed like Venetian blinds for the purpose of admitting fresh air, while at the same time they exclude the scorching rays of the sun, and the heavy showers of rain so common in that country. The furniture of the interior consists of a cocoa mattress, well stuffed and covered with morocco leather, on which the traveller reclines; two small bolsters are placed under his head, and one under his thighs, to render his position as comfortable as possible. At the upper end is a shelf and drawer, and at the sides are nettings of larger dimensions than the ordinary pockets in carriages, for containing those articles which may be necessary to the traveller during his journey. At each end of the palanquin, on the outside, two iron rings are fixed, and the hammals, or palanquin-bearers, of whom there are four, two at each end, support the palanquin by a pole passing through these rings. Travelling in this mode is continued both by day and night. (See DAWK.) The palanquin is also used at the present day in Brazil, with the prominent exception of Rio Janeiro.

Similar modes of travelling have been at various times in use in Western Europe, but only for short distances. The Roman "litter," the French "chaise à porteurs," and the "sedan-chair" were the forms of vehicle most in use, and the two latter were in general use in towns till they were superseded by hackney coaches. The Roman "litter" was one of the criteria of its owner's wealth, the rich man generally exhibiting the prosperous condition of his affairs by the multitude of the bearers and other attendants accompanying him.

PALAP'TERYX. (Gr. ancient apteryx), a genus of fossil birds whose remains are found in the river-silt deposits of New Zealand, associated with the gigantic *Dinornis*, and which, like it, resembled in the form of the sternum, and the structure of the pelvis and legs, the living wingless apteryx. Two species have been described.

PA'LATE, The, forms the roof of the mouth, and consists of two portions, the hard palate in front and the soft palate behind. The framework of the *hard palate* is formed by the palate process of the superior maxillary bone, and by the horizontal process of the palatine bone, and is bounded in front and at the sides by the alveolar arches and gums, and posteriorly it is continuous with the soft palate. It is cov-

ered by a dense structure formed by the periosteum and mucous membrane of the mouth, which are closely adherent. Along the middle line is a linear ridge or raphe, on either side of which the mucous membrane is thick, pale, and corrugated, while behind it is thin, of a darker tint, and smooth. This membrane is covered with scaly epithelium, and is furnished with numerous follicles (the palatal glands). The *soft palate* is a movable fold of mucous membrane enclosing muscular fibres, and suspended from the posterior border of the hard palate so as to form an incomplete septum between the mouth and the pharynx; its sides being bounded with the pharynx, while its lower border is free. When occupying its usual position (that is to say, when the muscular fibres contained in it are relaxed), its anterior surface is concave; and when its muscles are called into action, as in swallowing a morsel of food, it is raised and made tense, and the food is thus prevented from passing into the posterior nares, and is at the same time directed obliquely backwards and downwards into the pharynx.

Hanging from the middle of its lower border is a small conical pendulous process, the *wulpa*; and passing outwards from the uvula on each side are two curved folds of mucous membrane containing muscular fibres, and called the *arches or pillars of the soft palate*. The *anterior pillar* is continued downwards to the side of the base of the tongue, and is formed by the projection of the palato-glossus muscle. The *posterior pillar* is larger than the anterior, and runs downwards and backwards to the side of the pharynx. The anterior and posterior pillars are closely united above, but are separated below by an angular interval, in which the *tonsil* of either side is lodged. The tonsils (*amygdalæ*) are glandular organs of a rounded form, which vary considerably in size in different individuals. They are composed of an assemblage of mucous follicles, which secrete a thick grayish matter, and open on the surface of the gland by numerous (12 to 15) orifices.

The space left between the arches of the palate on the two sides is called the *isthmus of the fauces*. It is bounded above by the free margin of the palate, below by the tongue, and on each side by the pillars of the soft palate and tonsils.

As the upper lip may be fissured through imperfect development (in which case it presents the condition known as hare-lip), so also may there be more or less decided fissure of the palate. In the slightest form of this affection, the uvula merely is fissured, while in extreme cases the cleft extends through both the soft and hard palate as far forward as the lips, and is then often combined with hare-lip. When the fissure is considerable, it materially interferes with the acts of sucking and swallowing, and the infant runs a great risk of being starved; and if the child grows up, its articulation is painfully indistinct. When the fissure is confined to the soft palate, repeated cauterisation of the angle of the fissure has been found sufficient to effect a cure by means of the contraction that follows each burn. As a general rule, however, the child is allowed to reach the age of puberty when the operation of *staphyloplasty* (or closure of the soft parts) is performed—an operation always difficult, and not always successful. For the method of performing it, the reader is referred to the "Practical Surgery" of Mr Fergusson, who has introduced several most important modifications into the old operation.

Acute inflammation of the tonsils, popularly known as *QUINSY*, is treated of in a separate article.

Chronic enlargement of the tonsils is very frequent in scrofulous children, and is not rare in scrofulous persons of more advanced age, and may give rise to very considerable inconvenience and distress. It may occasion difficulty in swallowing, confused and inarticulate speech, deafness in various degrees from closure of the eustachian tubes (now often termed *throat deafness*), and noisy and laborious respiration, especially during sleep; and it may even cause death by suffocation, induced by the entanglement of viscid mucus between the enlarged glands. Iodide of iron (especially in the form of Blanchard's Pills) and cod-liver oil are the medicines upon whose action most reliance should be placed in these cases, while a strong solution of nitrate of silver (a scruple of the salt to an ounce of distilled water), or some preparation of iodine, should be applied once a day to the affected parts. If these measures fail, the tonsils must be more or less removed by the surgeon, either by the knife or scissors, or by a small *guillotine* specially invented for the purpose.

Enlargement or relaxation of the uvula is not uncommon, and gives rise to a constant tickling cough, and to expectoration, by the irritation of the larynx which it

occasions. If it will not yield to astringent or stimulating gargles, or to the stronger local applications directed for enlarged tonsils, its extremity must be seized with the forceps, and it must be divided through the middle with a pair of long scissors.

**PALATINATE**, a name applied to two German states, which were united previously to the year 1620. They were distinguished as the Upper and Lower Palatinate. The Upper or Bavarian P., now forming a circle of the kingdom of Bavaria, was a duchy, and was bounded by Baireuth, Bohemia, Neuburg, Bavaria, and the district of Nürnberg. Area, 2730 square miles; pop. (1807) 258,800. Amberg was the chief city, and the seat of government. The Lower P., or the Palatinate on the Rhine, embraced an area of from 3045 to 3150 square miles; and consisted of the electoral P., the principality of Simmern, the ducy of Zweibrücken, the half of the county of Sponheim, and the principalities of Beldenz and Lautern. For the area and population of the modern provinces of the Upper and Lower P., see article **BAVARIA**.

The counts of the electoral or Rhenish P. were established in the hereditary possession of the territory of that name, and of the lands attached to it, as early as the 11th century. After the death of Herman III., the Emperor Friedrich I. assigned the P. to Conrad of Swabia. After Conrad's death, his son-in-law, Duke Henry of Brunswick, came in 1196 into the possession of these lands, but he, having been outlawed in 1215 by Friedrich II., was succeeded by his son, Otto III., Duke of Bavaria. Ludwig II., or the Strong, succeeded the preceding in the P. in 1253, and was in turn succeeded in 1294 by Rudolf I., who, however, was banished by his brother, the Emperor Ludwig, because he had taken part with Friedrich of Austria. The country was ruled by his three sons. Ruprecht III., who died in 1410, was a German emperor. Of his four sons, Ludwig III. received the electoral or Rhenish P.; Johann, the Upper P.; Stephan, Zweibrücken; and Otto, Mosbach. The second and fourth lines soon died out, as well as also that of Ludwig III., which came to a close in 1559, upon which the possessions of that prince, together with the electorate, passed to Friedrich III. of the Simmern line. He was succeeded by Ludwig IV. in 1576, by Friedrich IV. in 1593, and by Friedrich V. in 1610, who, after he accepted the Bohemian crown, was driven from his possessions by the emperor in 1619, and his office of elector was transferred to Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria. Karl Ludwig, son of Friedrich V., received the Lower P. at the peace of Westphalia, and in his favor a new or eighth electorship was created. With his son Karl, the Simmern line terminated in 1655, upon which the P. fell into the hands of Philipp Wilhelm, count palatine of Neuburg.

The House of Neuburg was descended from Ludwig the Black, count palatine in Zweibrücken, second son of Stephan, count palatine in Simmern. Wolfgang, a descendant of Ludwig's, was the founder of all the other lines of counts palatine. Of his three sons, Johann founded the line of Neu-Zweibrücken, Karl the Birkenfeld line, Philipp Ludwig the Neenburg line. Philipp Ludwig had three sons, Wolfgang Wilhelm, August, and Johann Friedrich. The first founded the Neenburg line, the second the Sulzbach line, the third died childless. The son of Wolfgang Wilhelm died in 1690. His son, Johann Wilhelm, became heir to the Beldenz line in 1694. He was succeeded by his brother, Karl Philipp, who in turn was succeeded in 1742 by Karl Theodor, from the Sulzbach line, who united the Bavarian territories with the Palatinate. Duke Maximilian of Zweibrücken next succeeded in 1799, who at the peace of Luneville (1801) was compelled to cede a portion of the Rhenish P. to France, a part to Baden, a part to Hesse-Darmstadt, and a part to Nassau. Treaties of Paris of 1814, and 1815 re-assigned the Palatinate lands beyond the Rhine to Germany, Bavaria receiving the largest share, and the remainder being divided between Hesse-Darmstadt and Prussia.

**PALATINE** (from Lat. *palatum*, a palace). A *comes palatinus*, or Count Palatine, was, under the Merovingian kings of France, a high judicial officer, who had supreme authority in all causes that came under the immediate cognizance of the sovereign. After the time of Charlemagne, a similar title was given to any powerful feudal lord, to whom a province, generally near the frontier, was made over with *jura regalia*, or judicial powers, similar to what the counts palatine had received in the palace, and the district so governed was called a *palatinatus* or *county palatine*. There were three counties palatine in England—Lancaster, Chester, and Durham—

which were, no doubt, made separate regalities on account of their respective proximity to the frontier of Wales and to that turbulent Northumbrian province which could neither be accounted a portion of England nor of Scotland. In virtue of their royal rights, the counts palatine had their courts of law, appointed their judges and law officers, and could pardon treasons, murders, and felonies; all writs and judicial process proceeded in their names, and the king's writs were of no avail within the bounds of the palatinate. Lancaster seems to have been made a county palatine by Edward III. Henry, first Duke, and John, second Duke of Lancaster, were both invested by him with the dignity of count palatine. Henry VI. was hereditarily Duke and Count Palatine of Lancaster, and on his attainder, soon after Edward IV.'s accession, the duchy and county were forfeited to the crown, and confirmed on Edward IV.—afterwards on Henry VII. and his heirs for ever. The Queen is now Duchess and Countess Palatine of Lancaster. There is still a chancellor of the duchy and county palatine, whose duties are few and unimportant, but the administration of justice has gradually been assimilated to that of the rest of England. See LANCASTER. Chester is supposed to have become a county palatine when made over with regal jurisdiction by William the Conqueror to Hugues d'Avranches. In the reign of Henry III. it was annexed to the crown by letters patent, and since that time the earldom palatine of Chester has been vested in the eldest son of the sovereign, or in the crown, whenever there is no Prince of Wales. Durham seems to have first become a palatinate when William the Conqueror constituted Bishop Walcher Bishop and Duke of Durham, with power (according to William of Malmesbury) to restrain the rebellious people with the sword, and reform their morals with his eloquence. The Palatinate jurisdiction continued united with the bishopric till 1836, when it was separated by act of parliament, and vested in William IV. and his successors as a franchise distinct from the crown, together with all forfeitures, infeues, and *jura regalia*. It has since been more completely incorporated with the crown. Pembroke was at one time a county palatine, but ceased to be so in Henry VIII.'s time. The Archbishop of York also exercised the powers of a palatine in the county of Hexham in Northumberland, of which he was deprived in the reign of Elizabeth. In very early times there were a number of similar privileges in Scotland, the most important of which was that of the Earl's Palatine of Strathearn. In Germany, the *Pfalzgraf*, or count palatine, exercised a jurisdiction much more extensive than the simple *Graf* or count. A considerable district in Germany was long under the jurisdiction of a count palatine, who was one of the electors of the empire. See PALATINATE.

**PALATINE HILL.** (*Mons palatinus*), the central hill of the famous seven on which ancient Rome was built, and, according to tradition, the seat of the earliest Roman settlements. In point of historical interest, it ranks next to the Capitol and the Forum. Its summit is about 160 feet above the sea. The form of the hill is irregularly quadrangular. Its north-western slope, towards the Capitoline Hill and the Tiber, was called *Germa'us* or *Cernavus*. The origin of the name is uncertain, although several derivations are given connecting it with legendary stories. Romulus is said to have founded the city upon this hill, and on Germa'us grew the sacred fig-tree (near to the Lupercal) under which he and his brother, Remus, were found sucking the she-wolf. Upon the P. H. were the temple of Jupiter *Sutor*, the temple of Cybele, the sacred square enclosure called *Roma Quadrata*, and other sacred places and edifices, besides many of the finest houses in Rome. Augustus and Tiberius had their residences here, whence Tacitus termed it *ipsa imperii arx* (the very citadel of government); and at last Nero included it entirely within the precincts of his *aurea domus*, which Vespasian subsequently restricted to the hill. From the time of Alexander Severus it ceased to be the residence of the emperors, but the name *palace* (*palatium*), derived from it, was given to the abodes of sovereigns and great princes, and has been adopted into modern languages. Recent excavations have brought to light numerous remains of the palatial and other structures with which the P. H. was once covered; and these are now among the most interesting sights of the eternal city.

**PALAWA'N**, or Paragoa, one of the Philippine Islands (q. v.).

**PALE.** In Heraldry, one of the figures known as ordinaries, consisting of a perpendicular band in the middle of the shield, of which it is said to occupy one-third.

Several charges of any kind are said to be "in pale" when they stand over each other perpendicularly, as do the three lions of England. A shield divided through the middle by a perpendicular line is said to be "parted per pale." The Pallet is the diminutive of the pale, and is most generally not borne singly. When the field is divided into any number of parts by perpendicular lines, it is called "paly of" so many pieces. Paly of six argent and gules, the arms of the family of Ruthven. When divided by lines perpendicular and bendways crossing, it is called paly bendy. An Endorse is a further diminutive of the pallet, and a pale placed between two endorses is said to be endorsed.

**PALAY** (*Cryptostegia graniflora*), a climbing plant of the natural order *Asclepiadaceæ* (q. v.), common in many parts of India, particularly on the eastern coast of Hindustan. It yields a very fine strong white fibre, resembling flax, and which can be spun into the finest yarn. The fibre is obtained from the stalk; the milky juice contains caoutchouc. P. is one of the most interesting plants which have recently been recommended to notice in India.

**PALE**, in Irish history (see **IRELAND, HISTORY**), means that portion of the kingdom over which the English rule and English law was acknowledged. There is so much vagueness in the meaning of the term, that a few words of explanation appear necessary. The vagueness arises from the great fluctuations which the English authority underwent in Ireland at various periods, and from the consequent fluctuation of the actual territorial limits of the Pale. The designation dates from the reign of John, who distributed the portion of Ireland then nominally subject to England into twelve counties palatine, Dublin, Meath, Kildare, Louth, Carlow, Kilkenny, Wexford, Waterford, Cork, Kerry, Tipperary, and Limerick. To this entire district, in a general way, was afterwards given the designation of the Pale. But as it may be said that the term is commonly applied by the writers of each age to the actual English territory of the period, and as this varied very much, care must be taken to allude to the age of which the name Pale is used. Thus, very soon after the important date of the Statute of Kilkenny, at the close of the reign of Edward III., the English law extended only to the four counties of Dublin, Carlow, Meath, and Louth. In the reign of Henry VI., the limits were still further restricted. In a general way, however, the Pale may be considered as comprising the counties of Dublin, Meath, Carlow, Kilkenny, and Louth. This, although not quite exact, will be sufficient for most purposes.

**PALA'ZZOLO ACRI'DE**, a town of Sicily, in the province of Syracuse, 29 miles south-south-west of Catania, is situated on the brow of a hill, just where it overhangs a deep valley. Near P. are the remains of the ancient *Acre*, founded by a colony from Syracuse, on the site of a Phœnician settlement, 664 B.C. The most curious remains are to be found in some low cliffs beneath the town to the south, where is a series of arched niches, containing figures carved in high relief in the rock. The style of art appears to be archaic Greek, with somewhat of an Egyptian character. Pop. 9034.

**PA'LEA** (Lat. chaff), a term employed in Botany to designate the bracts of the *florets* in *Grasses* (q. v.), called *corolla* by the older botanists; also to designate the small bracts or scales which are attached to the receptacle of the head of flowers in many of the *Compositæ* (q. v.). Any part of a plant covered with chaffy scales is described as *paleaceous*.

**PALEMBA'NG**, formerly an independent kingdom on the east coast of Sumatra, now a Netherlands residency, is bounded on the n. by Djambi, n. w. by Bengooven, s. by the Lampung districts, and s. e. by the Strait of Banca. has an area of 61,900 square miles; and a population amounting, in 1878, to 577,085 souls. Much of the land is low-lying swamp, covered with a wilderness of impenetrable bush; but in the south it rises into mountains, of which Oeloe Moesi (Ulu Musi) is 6180 feet. Gold-dust, iron-ore, sulphur with arsenic, lignite, and common coal are found; also clays suited for making coarse pottery, &c. Springs of pure oil occur near the coal-fields of Bali Boekit (Bukit), and of mineral water in various places. Rice, cotton, sugar, pepper, tobacco, and, in the interior, coco-nuts, are grown; the forests producing gutta-percha, gum-elastic, rattans, wax, benzoin, satin-wood, &c. The rivers abound with fish; and the elephant, rhinoceros, tiger, panther, and leopard.

roam the woods, as well as the deer, wild swine, and goats, with many varieties of the monkey.

In the dry season the thermometer ranges from 80° to 92° F., and in the rainy season 76° to 80°. The climate is not unhealthy, except in the neighborhood of the swamps. The natives are descended from Javanees, who in the 16th c., or earlier, settled in P., and ruled over the whole land. The race, however, has become mixed with other Malays, and the language has lost its purity. In the north-west interior is a tribe called the Koehoes (Kubus), of whose origin nothing is known, but who are probably the remainder of the aborigines. They do not follow agriculture, go about almost naked, and live chiefly by fishing and hunting. No idea of a Supreme Being seems to be possessed by them, though they believe in existence after death.

PALEMBANG, the capital of the kingdom and residency, is 52 miles from the Seungsang (Sun-ang), or principal mouth of the river Moerd (Musi). In 2° 59' s. lat., and 104° 44' e. long. The city is built on both banks of the Moerl, and other streams which fall into it, and is five miles in length by half a mile in breadth. The river is upwards of 1000 feet broad, and from 40 to 50 feet in depth, so that the largest vessels can sail up to the harbor. The native houses are raised on posts, and neatly constructed of planks or bamboos; the Chinese, Arabians, and Europeans, chiefly living in floating houses called rakits, of which there are upwards of 500, and holding communication with one another and with the natives by boats. The fort is built on the left bank of the river, and behind it are an institution for the blind and a splendid mosque. There is a school, where 80 European children are educated, a government elementary school for natives, and several good Chinese schools. Many of the natives can read and write, and in 1856 a native printing-press was erected by Kienus, Mohamed Asbel.

P. is visited annually by upwards of 30,000 boats of various sizes, bringing produce from the interior, consisting chiefly of rice, benzoin, gamboge, gutta-percha, raw cotton, rattans, tobacco, pepper, wax, dragon's blood, resin; and gold-dust from the boundaries of the kingdom of Djambi, now included in the Residency. These are obtained chiefly in exchange for salt, cotton manufactures, earthenware, iron and copper wares, and provisions. The foreign trade is large, and chiefly carried on with Java, Bencoolen, Singapore, China, and Siam. The colonial report of the Dutch government, published in 1875, gives the exports from P. for 1874, at £297,-625, and the imports at £278,698. The natives of P. are good ivory carvers, gold and silver smiths, jewellers, cutlers, jupanners, painters, boat-builders, bookbinders, &c., and expert at all the ordinary handicrafts. The women, in addition to cotton fabrics, spinning, and dyeing, weave silk stuffs, en broder'd with gold. Pop. 44,000, of whom 100 are Europeans, 30,000 Chinese, and 2000 Arabians.

PALENQUE (the ancient *Pallantia*), a city of Spain, in Old Castile, capital of the modern province of the same name, stands in a treeless, but well-watered and fruitful plain, on the Carrion, 80 miles north-east of Valladolid. It is a bishop's see, and is surrounded by old walls, 86 feet high and 9 feet thick, around which are pleasant promenades. The cathedral, a light and elegant Gothic edifice, was built 1321-1504. The first university founded in Castile was built here in the 10th c., but was removed to Salamanca in 1239. Nearly one-third of the population is employed in the manufacture of blankets and coarse woollen cloths. The position of the town on the Carrion, and on the Castilian Canal, is favorable to the development of commerce. The vine is cultivated, and there is a good trade in wool. Pop. 13,000.

PALENQUE, Ruins of, are on the Rio Chacamas, a branch of the river Usmapanta, in the state of Chiapas, Mexico, 8 miles south-east of the village of Santo Domingo de Palenque, lat. 17° 30' n., long. 92° 25' w. The ruins extend over a large area, covered with a dense tropical forest, and are of difficult exploration. They consist of vast artificial terraces, or terraced truncated pyramids, of cut stone, surmounted by edifices of peculiar and solid architecture, also of cut stone, covered with figures in relief, or figures and hieroglyphics in stucco, with remains of brilliant colors. Most of the buildings are of one story, but a few are two, three, and some may have been four stories. The principal structure, known as the Palace, is 228 feet long, 180 feet deep, and 25 feet high, standing on a terraced truncated pyramid of corresponding dimensions. It was faced with cut stone, cemented with mortar of lime and sand, and the front covered with stucco and painted. A corridor runs

around the building, opening into four interior courts, which open into many smaller rooms. On slabs of stone are carved numerous colossal figures, and the remains of statues more resemble Grecian than Egyptian or Hindu art. Other spacious and elaborately ornamented buildings appear to have been temples of religion. These ruins were in the same condition when Cortez conquered Mexico, as now, overgrown with a forest, and their site forgotten. They were only discovered in 1750. Three explorations were made by the Spanish government, but they were little known until visited by Messrs J. L. Stephens and F. Catherwood, and their account published with plans and drawings. See Stephens's "Incidents of Travel in Central America," &c., and Catherwood's "Views of Ancient Monuments of Central America," &c. There are in Mexico dim traditions of the existence, at a remote period, of the capital of a theocratic state, the centre of a long since extinguished civilisation, of which the only traces are these wonderful ruins and unexplained hieroglyphics.

PALE'RCMO, an archiepiscopal city, important seaport, and the capital of the island of Sicily; capital also of the province of the same name, and along with Naples, Rome, Milan, and Turin, one of the five most populous cities in the kingdom of Italy, is situated on the north east of the island, 135 miles by water west of Messina. Lat.  $38^{\circ} 6'$  n., long.  $18^{\circ} 20'$  e. It stands in a highly-cultivated and fertile plain called *La Conca d'Oro* (The Golden Shell), commands a beautiful view of the Gulf of Palermo on which it stands, and is backed towards the interior by ridges of mountains. In shape the town is an oblong parallelogram, the direction of its length being from south-west to north-east. It is divided into four quadrangular parts by two great streets, the beautiful *Via Vittorio Emanuele*, formerly the *Via Toledo* or *Cassava*, and the *Strada Nuova* or *Magqueda*, which cross each other at right angles in the middle of the city. It is upwards of four miles in circumference, is surrounded by walls pierced with 12 gates and flanked with bastions, and is defended by several batteries. The houses are balconied, flat roofed, and have glass doors instead of windows. The streets, besides the two main thoroughfares already mentioned, are generally well laid out, and there are several fine promenades, of which the famous *Marina*, extending along the shore, on the line of the ancient fortifications, and bordered by the palaces of the nobles, is the most magnificent. P. contains 60 parish churches; 8 abbeys; 71 monasteries and convents, to which belong from 20,000 to 30,000 monks and nuns; and, besides these, 19 oratories. Under the churches is counted the cathedral—the church of St Rosalie. At the intersection of the two principal streets there is a large octagonal space or *Piazza*, lined with palaces, and adorned with statues and marble fountains. The royal palace is a huge pile of buildings, with a splendid chapel, built in 1129, and contains many pillars of rare workmanship and rich mosaics with Arabic inscriptions. The cathedral is a fine edifice, originally Gothic, but to which incongruous Greek additions have been made, is adorned with marble columns and statues, and contains monuments of the Emperor Frederick II. and of King Roger, the founder of the Norman monarchy in Sicily. Among the principal public institutions of P. are the university, an academy of arts and sciences, a medical academy, an institution for arts and antiquities, a beautiful and extensive public garden, public libraries, theatres, &c. P. is an archbishop's see, the residence of the governor of the island, and the seat of the supreme courts. Manufactures of silks, cottons, oil-cloth, leather, gloves, &c., are carried on. The harbor is formed by a mole, 1300 feet in length, on which there is a light-house and battery. Vessels of 700,000 tons enter and clear the port annually, and the imports amount in value to near £1,000,000, and the exports to about the same sum. Pop. (1871) of P. with suburbs, 186,406; of commune, 219,838.

The environs of P. are interesting as well as picturesque, and embrace many pleasant villas and noble mansions. North-west of the city is Mount Pellegrino, the Ercite of the ancients, an abrupt rocky mass, in which there is a grotto or cave, in which Santa Rosalia, a young Norman princess, lived a life of religious retirement. In P., Santa Rosalia is esteemed more highly than even Santa Maria; the festival in her honor lasts from the 9th to the 13th July, and is the most important festival held on the island. During its celebration the city is illuminated, the streets are gay and brilliant, and there is an immense influx of strangers from the vicinity. But the chief feature of the festival is the procession to the cave. An immense silver im-

age of the saint is borne thither on a wagon, 70 feet long, 30 feet broad, and 80 feet high. Its form resembles that of a Roman galley, with seats for a choir. The wagon is drawn by 56 mules, covered with the gayest trappings, and driven by 28 postillions.

P., the ancient *Panormus*, was originally a Phœnician colony, but had become a dependency of Carthage before the name occurs in history. With the exception of a short time about 276 B.C., when it fell into the hands of the Greeks, it continued to be the head-quarters of the Carthaginian power in Sicily, until it was taken by the Romans during the First Punic War (254 B.C.), when it became one of the principal naval stations of the Romans. The name Panormus is derived from the excellent anchorage (Gr. *hormos*), in the bay; but the Phœnician name found on coins is *Machanath*, meaning "a camp." The Vandals, and afterwards the Arabs, made it the capital of the island, and after the Norman Conquest it continued to be the seat of the king of Sicily. It still remained the royal residence under the Aragonese kings; but the court was removed after Sicily became united to the then kingdom of Naples. See SICILY.

PA'LESTINE (*Palaestina, Philistia*), or the Holy Land, a country of South-Western Asia, comprising the southern portion of Syria, and bounded on the w. by the Mediterranean, e. by the valley of the Jordan, n. by the mountain ranges of the Lebanon and the glen of the Litan (Leontes), and s. by the desert of Sinai; lat.  $31^{\circ} 15'$ — $33^{\circ} 20'$  n., long.  $34^{\circ} 30'$ — $35^{\circ} 30'$  e. Within these narrow limits, not more than 145 miles in length by 45 in average breadth—an area less than that of the principality of Wales—is comprised the "Land of Israel" or "Canaan," the arena of the greatest events in the world's history. The principal physical features of P. are, (1) a central plateau or table-land, with a mean height of 1600 feet, covered with an agglomeration of hills, which extend from the roots of the Lebanon to the southern extremity of the country; (2) the Jordan valley and its lakes; and (3) the maritime plain, and the plains of Esdrælon and Jericho. On the east, the descent from the central plateau is steep and rugged, from Lake Huleh to the Dead Sea. On the west, it is more gentle, but still well marked, towards the plains of Philistia and Sharon. The ascertained altitudes on this plateau, proceeding from south to north, are Hebron, 3029; Jersusalem, 2610; Mount of Olives, 2724; Mount Gerizim, 2700; Mount Tabor, 1900; Safed, 2775 feet above the sea. Nearly on the parallel of the Sea of Galilee, the range of Carmel extends from the central plateau north-west to the Mediterranean, where it terminates abruptly in a promontory surmounted by a convent. It rises from 600 feet in the west, to 1600 feet in the east, and is composed of a soft white limestone, with many caverns. Beyond the boundary of P. on the north, but visible from the greater part of the country, Mount Hermon rises to 9381 feet, and is always snow-clad. From the formation of the central plateau, the drainage is nearly always east and west to the Jordan and the Mediterranean. The streams of the plateau are insignificant, and generally dry in summer.

The geological formation of the country consists of jurassic and cretaceous limestone, often covered with chalk, and rich in flints, with occasional interruptions of tertiary, basaltic, and trappean deposits. The upper strata consist of limestone of a white or pale-brown color, containing few fossils, but abounding in caverns, which form one of the peculiarities of the country. The general features of the landscape exhibit soft rounded hills, separated by narrow glens or valleys of denudation; the strata are occasionally level, but more frequently violently contorted, as seen on the route from Jerusalem to Jericho, where the fissures are often 1000 feet deep, and only 30 or 40 feet wide. Ironstone occurs in small quantities; rock-salt, asphaltum, and sulphur abound near the Dead Sea, where, as also near the Sea of Galilee, there are many hot springs. Volcanic agency is evident in the obturated lava of former ages, and in frequent earthquakes of modern times. The vast crevasse through which the Jordan flows, and which cleaves the land from north to south, is one of the most remarkable fissures on the surface of the globe; it is from 5 to 12 miles wide, and of the extraordinary depth of 2630 feet at the bottom of the Dead Sea. Through this the river descends at the rate of 11 feet in a mile, with a course so tortuous that it travels 132 miles in a direct distance of 64, between the Sea of Galilee and the Dead Sea. It is the only perennial river of P., except the Kishon, which is permanent only in its lower course, and the Litau on its northern border.

See JORDAN. The only lakes of P. are in the valley of the Jordan. See Gennesaret, Sea of, and Dead Sea.

The plain of Philistia extends from the coast to the first rising ground of Judah, about 16 miles in average width; the soil is a rich brown loam, almost without a stone. It is in many parts perfectly level; in others undulating, with mounds or hillocks. The towns of Gaza and Ashdod, near the sea, are surrounded by groves of olives, sycamores and palms. This plain is still, as it always was, a vast corn-field, an ocean of wheat, without a break or fence; its marvellous fertility has produced the same succession of crops, year after year, for forty centuries without artificial aid. The plain of Sharon is about 10 miles wide in the south, narrowing towards the north, till it is terminated by the buttress of Carmel. Its undulating surface is crossed by several streams; the soil is rich, and capable of producing enormous crops; but only a small portion of it near Jaffa is cultivated, and it is rapidly being encroached on by the sea sand, which, between Jaffa and Cesarea, extends to a width of three miles and a height of 800 feet. The famous ancient cities of this region, Cesarea, Diospolis and Antipatris, have vanished. Jaffa (Joppa) alone remains, supported by travellers and pilgrims from the west on the way to Jerusalem. The great plain of Esdralon, or Jezreel, extends across the centre of the country from the Mediterranean to the Jordan, separating the mountain-ranges of Carmel and Samaria from those of Galilee. Its surface is drained by the Kishon, which flows west to the Mediterranean at Haifa. The plain is surrounded by the hills of Gilboa and Mt. Hermon; the isolated Mount Tabor rises on its north-east side. It is extremely fertile in grain where cultivated, and covered with gigantic thistles where neglected. It is richest in the central part, which slopes east to the Jordan—the battle-field where Gideon triumphed, and Saul and Jonathan were overthrown. It is the home of wandering Bedouins, who camp in its fields, and gallop over its green-sward in search of plunder. Many places of deep historical interest are connected with this plain. Shunem, Nain, Endor, Jezreel, Gilbon, Bethshan, Nazareth, and Tabor are all in its vicinity. The plain of Jericho is a vast level expanse, covered with the richest soil, now quite neglected. Around the site of Jericho, "the city of palm-trees," there is not now a single palm; but a recent experiment proved its capability of producing in abundance all the crops for which it was formerly famous. The climate of P. is very varied; January is the coldest and July the hottest month. The mean annual temperature of the year at Jerusalem is 66° Fahr., resembling that of Madeira, the Bermudas, and California. The extreme heat of the summer months is modified by sea-breeze from the north-west. In the plain of Jericho and the Jordan valley it is extremely hot and relaxing. The sirocco, a south-east wind, is oft oppressive in early summer. Snow falls in the uplands in January and February, and thin ice is often found at Jerusalem, where the annual rainfall is 61 inches. Heavy dews fall in summer and the nights are cold. Violent thunderstorms occur in winter. In the south, Judah and part of Benjamin is a dry parched land; the bare limestone rock is covered here and there with a scanty soil, and the vast remains of terraces shew how assiduously it must have been cultivated in ancient times to support the teeming population indicated by the ruins of cities with which every eminence is crowned. To the north of Judea the country is more open, the plains are wider, the soil richer, and the produce more varied, till at Nablus the running streams and exuberant vegetation recall to the traveller the scenery of the Tyrol. Even in its desolation, P. is a land flowing with milk and honey. There is no evidence of its climate having changed or deteriorated, nor any reason to suppose that it would fail to support as great a population as ever it did, provided the same means as formerly were used for its cultivation. It has the same bright sun and unclouded sky, as well as the early and latter rain, which, however, is diminished in quantity owing to the destruction of trees.

The botany of P. is rich and varied, resembling that of Asia Minor. Among its trees are the pine, oak, elder, and hawthorn in the northern and higher districts, and the olive, fig, carob, and sycomore elsewhere. The cultivated fruits are the vine, apple, pear, apricot, quince, plum, orange, lime, banana, almond, and prickly pear. Wheat, barley, peas, potatoes, and European vegetables, cotton, millet, rice, maize, and sugar-cane are among its products. The date now ripens its fruit only in the south and on the sea-board. The brilliant flowers which in spring enamel the surface and tinge the entire landscape, comprise the adonis, ranunculus, mallow,

poppy, pink, anemone, and geranium. In the Jordan valley, 900 or 1000 feet below the sea-level, the vegetation is tropical in its character, resembling that of Arabia; the nubk (*Spina Christi*), the oleander, and the small yellow "apples of Sodom" are conspicuous. The most valuable products of the vegetable kingdom are derived from the vine, fig, olive, and mulberry trees. Wine for home use is made in all the central and southern districts; the best is made at Hebron from the grapes of Eschol. Olive oil is a valuable export.

The wild animals of P. comprise the Syrian bear in Lebanon, the panther, jackal, fox, hyena, wolf, wild boar, gazelle, and fallow-deer; the lion is now unknown. The domestic animals are the Arabian camel, ass, mule; horse, buffalo, ox, and broad-tailed sheep. Among the birds are the eagle, vulture, kite, owl, nightingale, jay, and kingfisher—the latter of brilliant plumage—the cuckoo, heron, stork, crow, partridge and sparrow. Fish swarm in the Sea of Galilee, and bats and lizards abound.

The divisions of P. in Old Testament times were into  $9\frac{1}{2}$  tribes in the west, and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  tribes in the east of the Jordan. In New Testament times, on the west of the Jordan, the provinces of Galilee in the north, Samaria in the middle, and Judæa in the south; on the east of the Jordan, Perea and Decapolis. The boundaries of the tribes and provinces are very uncertain. Its modern divisions have changed with every new race and dynasty of conquerors. Under Turkish rule, P. is comprised in the vilayet of Syria, and contains the two sub-pashalics of Acre and Jerusalem. The present population is very mixed, comprising Syrians, Mohammedans, Maronites, Druses, Christians, Jews, and Turks. The Jews are all foreigners, almost exclusively inhabiting the four holy cities—Jerusalem, Hebron, Tiberius, and Safed; their whole number was, in 1841, estimated at only 10,000. The country is oppressed by Turkish avarice, and overrun by the predatory Arabs. The Palestine exploration has done good work in the identification of Biblical and classical sites, &c. See SYRIA.

**PALESTRINA** (the ancient *Præneste*), an episcopal city of the present kingdom of Italy, in the province and 22 miles east-south-east of the city of Rome, occupies a strong position on the south-west slope of a high hill, an offshoot of the Apennines. Besides several interesting churches, the town contains a castle, once the chief stronghold of the Colonna, to whom the town belonged; and the palace and garden of the Barberini family. The view across the Campagna and toward the Alban Hills is magnificent. Pop. 6000, who manufacture coarse woolen goods.

P. is built almost entirely upon the site and the gigantic substructions of the Temple of Fortune, one of the great edifices of the former city of Præneste. This city was one of the most ancient as well as powerful and important cities of Latium. It covered the hill (2400 feet above sea-level) on the slope of which the modern town stands, and was overlooked by a citadel of great strength. The site of this citadel on the summit of the hill is now occupied by a castle of the middle ages, called *Caste! S. Pietro*; but remains of the ancient walls are still visible. We first hear of Præneste as a member of the Latin League; but in 499 B.C. it quitted the confederacy, and joined the cause of the Romans. In 389 B.C. the Praenestines, having rejoined their ancient allies, opened a war with Rome; but were completely routed on the banks of the Allia by T. Quintius Cincinnatus, and beaten back to their own gates. They took a prominent part in the famous Latin War, 340 B.C. Having given shelter to the younger Marius in the year 82 B.C., this city was besieged by the forces of Sulla, and on its being taken all the inhabitants were put to the sword. A military colony was then established in their place, and soon the city began to flourish anew. Its elevated and healthy situation, at no great distance from the capital, made it a favorite place of resort for the Romans during summer. Augustus frequented it; Horace often found this city a pleasant retreat; and here Hadrian built an extensive villa. The Temple of Fortune is described by Cicero as an edifice of great antiquity as well as splendor, and its oracle was much consulted. The town became the stronghold of the family of Colonna in the middle ages; but was given to the Barberini family by Urban VIII.

**PALESTRINA**, Giovanni Pierlingi da, a distinguished musical composer of the 16th century. He derived his surname from the town of Palestrina, in the Roman States, where he was born in 1524. At the age of sixteen he went to Rome and

studied music under Claude Goudimel, afterwards one of the victims of the St Bartholomew massacre. In 1551 he was made *maestro di capella* of the Julian Chapel, and in 1554 he published a collection of Masses, so highly approved of by Pope Julius III., to whom they were dedicated, that he appointed their author one of the singers of the pontifical chapel. Being a married man, he lost that office on the accession to the pontificate of Paul IV., in whose eyes celibacy was a necessary qualification for its duties. In 1555 he was made choir-master of St Maria Maggiore, and held that position till 1571, when he was restored to his office at St Peter's. In 1563, the council of Trent having undertaken to reform the music of the church, and condemned the profane words and music introduced into masses, some compositions of P. were pointed to as models, and their author was intrusted with the task of remodelling this part of religious worship. He composed three masses on the reformed plan; one of them, known as the Mass of Pope Marcellus (to whose memory it is dedicated), may be considered to have saved music to the church by establishing a type infinitely beyond anything that had preceded it, and, amid all the changes which music has since gone through, continues to attract admiration. During the remaining years of his life, the number and the quality of the works of P. are equally remarkable. His published works consist of 13 books of Masses, 6 books of Motets, 1 book of Lamentations, 1 book of Hymns, 1 book of Offerteries, 1 book of Magnificats, 1 book of Litany, 1 book of Spiritual Madrigals, and 3 books of Madrigals. P. must be considered the first musician who reconciled musical science with musical art, and his works form a most important epoch in the history of music. Equally estimable in private life, and talented as a musician, P. struggled through a life of poverty during eight pontificates; his appointments were meagre, and his publications unremunerative. He died in 1594. A memoir of his life and writings has been written by the Abbé Bafni.

**PALESTRO**, a village of Piedmont, 8 miles south-east of Vercelli, famous as the scene of a battle between the Sardinians and Austrians in May 1859. On the 30th of that month the Piedmontese drove the Austrians from this village, and on the 31st defended it with great bravery against an Austrian attack. The Piedmontese in the battle of the 31st were assisted by 8000 French Zouaves, and on that occasion the Austrians lost 2100 men killed and wounded, 950 prisoners, and 6 pieces of cannon. On June 1st the allies entered Novara.

**PA'LETTE.** See PAINTING.

**PALEY**, Dr William, a celebrated English divine, was born at Peterborough in 1743. His father was a Yorkshireman, and not long after P. was born returned to his native parish of Giggleswick, one of the wildest and most sequestered districts in the West Riding, to become master of the grammar-school there. Young P. was brought up among the shrewd, hard-headed peasantry of Yorkshire; and it is probable that he either naturally possessed, or insensibly acquired their moral and mental characteristics. At all events, he soon became conspicuous in the family for his good sense; and when he left to enter Christ's College, Cambridge, as a sizar, in his sixteenth year, his father said: "He has by far the clearest head I ever met with." At Cambridge, P. led for the first two years a gay, idle, and dissipated life, but thereafter became a sober student, and took his bachelor degree in 1763 with highest honors. He then taught for three years in an academy at Greenwich. In 1765 he obtained the first prize for a prose Latin dissertation—the subject being "A Comparison between the Stoic and Epicurean Philosophy with respect to the Influence of each on the Morals of a People," in which he characteristically argued in favor of the latter. Next year he was elected a Fellow and Tutor of Christ's, and also took the degree of M.A. In 1767 he was ordained a priest. His career as a college tutor, which lasted about ten years, was eminently successful; and it appears to have been during this period that he systematised his principles in moral and political philosophy. In 1776, P. married, and was of course obliged to give up his fellowship, but was compensated by a presentation to the livings of Mosgrove and Appleby in Westmoreland and of Dalston in Cumberland. Four years later he was collated to a prebendal stall in the cathedral church of Carlisle, in 1782 he became archdeacon, and in 1785 chancellor of the diocese. The last of these years witnessed the publication of his "Elements of Moral and Political Philosophy." In this work he propounds his ethical theory, which is commonly called utilitarianism,

but is really a mixture of utility and theology. He begins by renouncing the favorite doctrine of the Moral Sense, against which he adduces a series of strong objections. He then takes up the question of the source of obligation, and resolves it into the will of God, enforced by future punishment, admitting caudily that virtue is prudence directed to the next world. The will of God, in so far as it is not rendered explicit by revelation, is to be interpreted by the tendency of actions to promote human happiness; the benevolence of the Deity being supposed. Objection has frequently been taken to the principles on which P. rests his system, but the lucidity and appropriateness of his illustrations are beyond all praise. If his treatise cannot be regarded as a profoundly philosophical work, it is at any rate one of the clearest and most sensible ever written, even by an Englishman; and if it failed to sound the depths of "moral obligation," it at least brushed off into oblivion the shallow and muddy mysticism that had long enveloped the philosophy of politics. P.'s plain sarcastic view of the "divine right of kings," which he puts on a level with the "divine right of constables," gave extreme offence to George III., but was nevertheless much admired by not a few of his majesty's subjects, and is now held by everybody to be beyond question. In 1790 appeared his most original and valuable work—the "Horæ Paulinae, or the Truth of the Scripture History of St. Paul evinced by a Comparison of the Epistles which bear his Name with the Acts of the Apostles, and with one another." The aim of this admirable work is to prove, by a great variety of "undesigned coincidences," the improbability, if not impossibility, of the usual infidel hypothesis of his time—viz., that the New Testament is a "cunningly-devised fable." It was dedicated to his friend John Law, then Bishop of Killala in Ireland, to whose favor he had been indebted for most of his preferments. P.'s next important work was entitled "A View of the Evidences of Christianity," published in 1794. It is not equal in originality to its predecessor, but the use which the author has made of the labors of such eminent scholars as Lardner and Bishop Douglas is generally reckoned most dexterous and effective. Later and keener criticism is indeed anything but satisfied with P.'s "Evidences;" but in P.'s own day he was held to have achieved a splendid triumph over sceptics, and was handsomely rewarded. The Bishop of London appointed him a prebend of St. Pancras; shortly after he was promoted to the subdeanery of Lincoln (worth £700 per annum); Cambridge conferred on him the degree of D. D.; and the Bishop of Durham the rich rectory of Bishop Wearmouth (worth £1200 per annum), in consequence of which he honorably resigned his livings in the diocese of Carlisle. After 1800 he became subject to a painful disease of the kidneys, but notwithstanding he continued to write, and in 1802 published perhaps the most widely popular of all his works, "Natural Theology, or Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity," which, however, is based, and to a large extent borrowed from the "Religious Philosopher," the work of a Dutch philosopher named Nieuwentyt, an English translation of which appeared in 1718–1719. The plagiarisms are most palpable, but have been accounted for on the supposition that the "Natural Theology" was "made up" from his loose papers and notes written when P. was a college tutor, and that he had forgotten the sources from which he derived them. It is also but fair to state that he has taken nothing which he has not greatly improved; *nihil tetigit quod non ornavit*. A somewhat noted edition of this work, enriched, or at least expanded by annotations and dissertations, is that by Lord Brougham and Sir Charles Bell (1836–1839). P. died May 25, 1805. He had a family of four sons and three daughters. A complete edition of his works was published in 1888 by one of his sons, the Rev. Edmund Paley. The best biography is that by Meadley (1809).

**PALGRAVE.** Sir Francis, a distinguished antiquary and historian, was born in London in July 1788, of Jewish parentage, being the son of Mr. Meyer Cohen, a member of the Stock Exchange. He was educated at home under a Dr. Montucci, and even when a child shewed extraordinary genius. When only eight years old, he made a translation into French of the "Battle of the Frogs and Mice" from the Latin version of Beauclerc, which was printed by his father in 1797. In 1803 he was articled as a clerk to a legal firm, and at the expiration of his articles, continued with the same firm as managing clerk until 1822, when he took chambers in the Temple, and was employed under the Record Commission. He had previously made himself known as a literary antiquarian, by the publication, in 1818, of some Anglo-Norman

Chansons, which he edited with much care. On the occasion of his marriage in 1823, he changed his name of Cohen to P., that being the maiden name of his wife's mother. He was called to the bar in 1827, and had considerable practice for some years in pedigree cases before the House of Lords. In 1831 he published a "History of England," which formed a part of the "Family Library;" and in 1832 appeared his "Rise and Progress of the English Commonwealth;" also "Observations on the Principles, &c., of New Municipal Corporations." In that year he received the honor of knighthood, and was subsequently one of the Municipal Corporation Commissioners. In 1855, the Commissioners issued their Report, which was signed, however, by only sixteen of the members—Sir F. P. being one of the four dissentients. In the same year he published a "Protest" against the Commissioners' Report, in which he called in question several of its statements, views, and arguments. In 1833, on the reconstruction of the Record Service, Sir F. P. was appointed deputy-keeper of Her Majesty's Records, and held that office during the rest of his life. Beside the works already mentioned, Sir F. P. edited for the government the following: "Calendars of the Treasury of the Exchequer," "Parliamentary Writs," "Curia Regis Records," and "Documents Illustrative of the History of Scotland." In his private capacity, he produced the "Merchant and the Friar," an imaginary history of Marco Polo and Friar Bacon; also a "Hand-book for Travellers in Northern Italy," and a "History of England and Normandy." Of this last work a volume appeared in 1851, and a second in 1857; and the third and fourth volumes were published within three years after their author's death. Sir F. P. also wrote numerous articles for the "Edinburgh" and "Quarterly Review," principally of an antiquarian character, but some of them purely literary or artistic. His great merit, in his historic writings, consists in the extensive use made by him of original documents, by aid of which he not only himself very much enlarged our acquaintance with the history and social aspects of the middle ages, but pointed out to others the advantage to be derived from a careful study of the original sources of information now known to abound among our public records. Sir F. P. died at Hampstead, on the 6th of July 1861.

PĀLI (a corruption of the Sanscrit *Prākrit*, q. v.) is the name of the sacred language of the Buddhists. Its origin must be sought for in one or several of the popular dialects of ancient India, which are comprised under the general name of Pākrit, and stand in a similar relation to Sanscrit as the Romance languages. In their earlier period, to Latin. It has been formerly assumed that P. arose from the special Prākrit dialect called Māg dia., or the language spoken in Magadha; but, according to the view expressed by Lassen in his "Indisch-Alternum-kundt," an hypothesis of this kind is not tenable, since the peculiarities of this dialect are not compatible with those of the P. language. The author of this view holds that the Prākrit dialects, called the Sāraṇī and Māg dia., have a closer relation to the P. than any other, and that the origin of the latter must therefore be traced to the country of Western Hindustan, between the Jumna river and the Vin'hya mountain; though he observes, at the same time, that the P. is older than these dialects, and that the latter are therefore more remote from Sanscrit than the former. Whether the oldest works of the Buddhist religion were written in P. may be matter of doubt. It is more probable, on the contrary, that the language in which the founder of the Buddhist religion conveyed his doctrine to the people was not yet that special language, but a mixture of classical and popular Sanscrit, such as it still appears in the Buddhistic Sūtras. At a later period, however, P. became the classical language in which the Buddhists wrote their sacred, metaphysical, and profane works. The most important historical work written in this language is the "Mahāvans'a" (q. v.); other P. works, which have lately become known in Europe, and deserve especial mention, are the "Dhammapada," on the Buddhist doctrine, and five "Jātakas," containing a fairy tale, a comical story, and three fables—both works edited and translated by V. Fausböll (Copen. 1855 and 1861). P. ceased to be a living language of India when Buddhism was rooted out of it; it was carried by the fugitive Buddhists to other countries, especially Ceylon, Burmah, and Siam; but in these countries, too, it had to give way before the native tongue, in which the later Buddhist literature was composed.

PALIMPSEST (Gr. *palimpsestos*, "rubbed a second time"), the name given to

parchment, papyrus, or other writing material, from which, after it had been written upon, the first writing was wholly or in part removed for the purpose of the page being written upon a second time. When the MS. had been written with one species of ink employed by the ancients, which was merely a fatty pigment composed chiefly of lampblack, and only coloring the surface, but not producing a chemical change, there was little difficulty in obliterating the writing. It was accomplished by the use of a sponge, and, if necessary, of a scraper and polishing tool; and, where proper pains were taken, the erasure of the first writing was complete. But when the ink was mineral, its effect reached beyond the surface. In that case a scraping-tool or pumice-stone was indispensable; if these were hastily or insufficiently applied, the erasure was necessarily imperfect; and thus it often happens in ancient MSS. that, from the want of proper care on the part of the copyist in preparing the parchment for re-writing, the original writing may still be read without the slightest difficulty.

The practice of re-preparing used parchment for second use existed among the Romans. The material thus re-prepared was of course reserved for the meaner uses. We meet frequent illustrations in the classical writers, as Plutarch, Cicero ("Ad Familiars," vii. 18), Catullus (xxii. 115), and others, to the palimpsest. In the sense of a blotter or first draft-book, on which the rough outline or first copy of a document was written, preparatory to the accurate transcript which was intended for actual use; and it appears equally certain that in many cases whole books were written upon re-prepared parchment or papyrus, not only among the Greeks and Romans, but also among the ancient Egyptians.

Of palimpsests of the classic period, however, it is hardly necessary to say no specimen has ever been discovered. It is to the necessities of the medieval period that literature owes the unquestionably important advantages which have arisen from the revival of the ancient practice of re-preparing already used material for writing. Under the early emperors, the intercourse with Egypt and the east secured a tolerably cheap and abundant supply of Papyrus (q. v.), which rendered it unnecessary to recur to the expedient of the palimpsest; and this became still more the case in the 5th and 6th centuries, when the tax on papyrus was abolished. But after the separation of east and west, and still more after the Mohammedan conquest of Egypt, the supply of papyrus almost completely ceased; and from the 7th c. in the west, and the 10th or 11th in the east, the palimpsest is found in comparatively frequent use; and its frequency in the 15th c. may be estimated from the fact that some of the earliest books were printed on palimpsest. Some writers have ascribed the prevalence of its use to the indifference, and even to the hostility of the monks and clergy to classical literature, and have attributed to their reckless destruction of classic MSS., in order to provide material for their own service-books and legends, the deficiencies in the remains of ancient learning which scholars have now to deplore. That some part of the loss may have so arisen, it is impossible to doubt, although it is equally certain that we owe to the medieval monks and clergy whatever of ancient literature has been preserved to our day. But the condition in which the existing palimpsests are uniformly found—for the most part mere fragments of the ancient writers whose works they originally contained—goes far in itself to show that the MSS. which were broken up by the medieval copyists, for the purpose of being re-written, were almost always already imperfect, or otherwise damaged; nor is there anything in the condition of any single palimpsest which has reached our day to justify the belief, that when it was taken up for the purpose of re-scription, the original work which it contained was in a state at all approaching to completeness. Fortunately, however, there are many of the relics of ancient learning of which even the mutilated members have an independent value; and this is especially true of Biblical MSS., particularly under the critical aspect, and in a still bolder sense, of all the remains of the ancient historians.

It will easily be understood, therefore, that the chief, if not the sole interest of palimpsest MSS. lies in the ancient writing which they had contained, and that their value to literature mainly depends on the degree of legibility which the ancient writing still retains. It is difficult to make this fully intelligible to the reader without an actual inspection. As very commonly occurs, the original writing is much larger than the modern; the modern lines and letters do not cover those of the old MS., but they follow the same order. In other specimens the new writing

is transverse; in some, the old page is turned upside down. Sometimes, where the old page is divided into columns, the new writing is carried over them all in a single line; sometimes the old page is doubled, so as to form two pages in the new MS. Sometimes it is cut into two, or even three pages. The most perplexing case of all for the decipherer is that in which the new letters are of the same size, and are written upon the same lines with those of the original MS. Examples of this are rare, and even when they occur, the difference between the form of the ancient characters, which are ordinarily incial, and that of the modern, is in itself a great aid to the decipherer. Some variety, also, is found in the language of the palimpsests. In those which are found in the western libraries, the new writing is almost invariably Latin, while the original is sometimes Greek, and sometimes Latin. In the palimpsests discovered in the east, the original is commonly Greek, the new writing being sometimes Greek, sometimes Syriac, sometimes Armenian; and one palimpsest, the material of which is papyrus, is found in which the original was the enchorial Egyptian language, while the modern writing is Greek.

The possibility of turning palimpsest MSS. to account as a means of extending our store of ancient literature, was suggested as far back as the days of Montfaucon; but the idea was not turned to practical account till the latter part of the 18th century. The first palimpsest editor was a German scholar, Dr Paul Bruns, who having discovered that one of the Vatican MSS. was a palimpsest, the effaced matter of which was a fragment of the 91st book of Livy's "Roman History," printed it at Hamburg in 1773. In the field of discovery thus opened by Bruns but little progress was made until the following c., when Dr Barrett of Trinity College, Dublin, published his palimpsest Fragments of St Matthew, and when palimpsest literature at once rose into interest and importance in the hands of the celebrated Angelo Mai (q. v.). A detailed account of Mai's successes will be given hereafter, when we shall enumerate the principal publications in this curious department of letters; and under his own name will be found the history of his personal labors. The great historian Niebuhr about the same time applied himself to the subject, and was followed by Blume, Pertz, Gaupp, and other German scholars, whose labors, however, were for the most part confined to the department of ancient Roman law. More recently, the discoveries of Dr Tischendorf in Biblical literature, and those of Dr Cureton as well in sacred as in profane literature, have contributed still more to add importance to the palimpsest MSS. which have been supposed to exist in the monasteries of the Levant. Herr Mone has had similar success in the department of liturgical literature, and Dr Frederick Augustus Pertz, son of the scholar already mentioned, may be said to have carried to its highest point the interest which attaches to these curious researches, by editing from a *thrice written palimpsest* a very considerable series of fragments of the Roman animalist, Gaius Graianus Lichianus.

It remains to enumerate briefly the most important palimpsest publications which have hitherto appeared, distributed according to the language of the effaced original.

**I. GREEK PALIMPSESTS.**—Among these, the first place of course belongs to the Greek Biblical palimpsests, the earliest of which was (1) "Fragments of the Gospel of St Matthew," in facsimile as well as in *ordinary* type, painted from a palimpsest MS. of Trinity College, Dublin, by the Rev I. Barrett, D.D. (4to, Dublin, 1801). The original writing appears to be of the 6th century. Dr Barrett's transcript of the text has not proved in all respects correct, but the original has since been carefully re-examined, and the ancient writing fully brought out. It is chiefly, however, to a collection of Syriac MSS. brought from the east that we are indebted for the more recent palimpsest restorations of the ancient Biblical readings. In this line the chief discoverer has been Dr Constantine Tischendorf. From his pen we have (2) the celebrated "Codex Ephremi" or "Codex Regius" of the Royal Library at Paris. This MS. had been early observed to be palimpsest, and the original Greek text was collated in part by Wetstein and by Küster. It was still more carefully examined by M. Hase in 1835; and finally, in 1840, by Dr Tischendorf, by whom the New Testament was printed in 1843, and the fragments of the Old in 1845. The modern writing of this palimpsest consisted of the works of St Ephrem the Syrian. (3) "Fragmenta Sacra Palimpsesta" (4to, Leipsic, 1855), containing fragments of the Books of Numbers, Deuteronomy, Joshua, Judges, Kings, Isaiah, together with 48 pages of fragments of the New Testament, the Gospels, the Acts, and the Epistles.

of St Paul to the 'Corinthians and to Titus. The modern writing of these palimpsests was partly Greek, partly Armenian, and Arabic. (4.) "Fragments Evangeli Lucæ et Libri Genesis" (4to, Leipsic, 1857). The fragments of St Luke's Gospel amount to 95 pages. The volume also contains fragments of St John's Gospel and of Ezekiel and the Third Book of Kings. The modern writing is partly Syriac, partly Coptic. Along with these Biblical palimpsests (5) may be classed another, the original of which, however, contains not only some Greek fragments, but also portions of the ancient Gothic version of the Bible by Ulpilias. The MS. from which this is taken is known from its place in the Wolfenbüttel Library as the "Codex Guelpherbytanus." It was first noticed in 1765 by Knittel, by whom a portion of the Gothic version was published in 1762. These fragments were reprinted in 1772, and again in 1803. The modern writing of the MS. consisted of the "Origines" of Isidorus Hispalensis. A large addition to the text of Ulpilias was made in 1817 by Mai and Castiglione, from palimpsests discovered in the Ambrosian Library at Milan; and the whole have since been combined into one edition by Dr Gheleutz, and finally by Dr Massmann (4to, Stuttgart, 1855). We may also mention under the same head some interesting Greek liturgical remains edited by F. I. Mone (Frankfort, 1850), from a palimpsest discovered at Carlisle.

In Greek classical literature, also, we owe something to the labors of palimpsest editors. From one of the Syriac MSS. already referred to, Dr Cureton has edited large fragments of the "Iliad" of Homer, amounting in all to nearly 4000 lines; and although all these, it need hardly be said, were known before, yet the text is of the utmost value as a source of criticism, being certainly of much greater antiquity than the very earliest known MSS. of the "Iliad." A still larger and more original contribution to Greek classical literature was made by Mai in the fifth volume of his "Scriptorum Veterum Nova Collectio" (Rome, 1831—1838). From a very large palimpsest discovered in the Vatican Library he has printed in this volume copious fragments of almost all the Greek writers on Roman history—from the lost books of Polybius no less than 100 4to pages; 130 pages of Diodorus Siculus; 64 of Dionysius of Halicarnassus; 100 of Dion Cassius; together with considerable fragments of Appian, Iamblichus, Dexippus, Eunapius, and others. This is, perhaps, after the "De Republica" of Cicero, the most important accession to the existing store of classic learning which the palimpsests have hitherto supplied.

**II. LATIN PALIMPESTS.**—(1.) The earliest fragment of Latin literature, printed from a palimpsest original, is the portion of the 91st book of "Livy" already referred to, published at Hamburg and also at Rome in 1773. It was re-edited in a more complete form by Niebuhr in 1820. (2.) Of the Latin palimpsests edited by Mai, the earliest were some fragments of lost Orations of Cicero from two different palimpsests in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, in the latter of which, the second writing consisted of the acts of the council of Chalcedon. These Orations were published in two successive volumes in 1814. (3.) Eight Orations of Symmachus (1815). (4.) The Comedies of Plautus, including a fragment of the lost play entitled "Vidularia" (1815). (5.) The works of M. Corn. Fronto, together with the Epistles of Antoninus Pius, Lucius Verus, M. Aurelius, and others (1815). (6.) The celebrated Dialogue of Cicero, "De Republica," from a palimpsest of the Vatican, the modern writing of which is the commentary of St Augustine on the Praevisa. There is none of Mai's publications which presents his critical abilities in so favorable a light as this precious volume, which appeared at Rome in 1821. (7.) Soon after the "De Republica" he published another volume from palimpsest sources, the most important of whose contents were some fragments of ancient Roman law, which prepared the way for the more distinguished success of Niebuhr; who, in a palimpsest of the library of Verona, recognised a portion of (8) the "Institutiones" of Gaius, and procured an accurate transcript for the press, which was printed at Berlin in 1820. The latest considerable Latin publication in this department is (9) "Gai Grani Li-ciniani Annalium quae supersunt" (Berlin, 1857), edited from a palimpsest of the British Museum by the younger Pertz. This palimpsest, as was already stated, is a thrice written codex, the earliest and original contents being the "Annales" of Gaius Granius. The second writing was also in Latin, and the work is a grammatical treatise, of which the chapters "De Verbo" and "De Adverbio" are still legible. The most modern writing is Syriac, written in the cursive character. Gaius Granius is a writer named by Macrobius, of whom nothing else is known.

It will be gathered from the above that the ancient works recovered by means of palimpsests MSS. are all fragmentary, and one is naturally led to rate at a low value the result thereby obtained. But it must be remembered that in some of the departments to which these fragments belong, every scrap, no matter how trifling, has an independent value. So it is, for example, in Biblical remains—a single text may present a valuable reading, the merest fragment may throw light on an important critical question. In history, in like manner, a small fragment may disclose an interesting fact, or supply a significant commentary upon facts otherwise ascertained. And as regards critical uses especially, it must not be forgotten that the obliterated text of the palimpsest MSS., for the most part, far exceeds in antiquity the very oldest known codices which we possess, and is, probably, second only in age to the papyri of Herculaneum.

The method of treating palimpsest MSS., with a view to deciphering their contents, has been fully described by different editors. Mai, after having washed the palimpsest with an infusion of gall, exposed it to the light and air, and, generally speaking, found this sufficient for his purpose. Puyron washed the parchment in water, afterwards in dilute muriatic acid, and finally in prussiate of potash. A mixture, compounded on this principle, is called from its inventor, M. Gioberti, *Tinctura Giobertina*. Sometimes the same treatment does not succeed equally well on both sides of the parchment; the inner surface, from its softer texture, sometimes requiring a more active preparation. When the ink contained animal substances, as milk, or the blood of the cuttle-fish, Dr Mone plunged the parchment in a close vessel filled with oil, which he heated to a temperature of 40° R. In the prefaces of Mai's volumes will be found many amusing and interesting facts illustrating the difficulties which attend this curious branch of literary labor.

**PA'LINDROME** (Gr. *palin*, backwards, and *dromos*, a running), the name given to a kind of verse very common in Latin, the peculiarity of which is that it may be read the same backwards as forwards. A few examples will suffice.

*Si bene tu tu laus taxat sua laudē tenebis.  
Et neat egr̄ amor non Roma rege tacent,  
Roma reges una non anus egr̄ amor.*

A Roman lawyer gets the credit of the following:

*Si nūnumi immunit,*

which Camden translates:

“ Give me my fee, and I warrant you free.”

It is said that in the reign of Queen Elizabeth a certain lady of rank, having been compelled to retire from the court on account of some *fana*, the truth of which she denied, took for her motto :

*Ablata at alba.  
Retired but pure.*

The English language has few palindromes, but one at least is inimitable. It represents our first parent politely introducing himself to Eve in these words:

“ Madam, I'm Adam.”

Compare Henry B. Wheatley's book on “ Anagrams ” (1862).

**PALINGENE'SIA** (Gr. *pa'lin*, again, and *genesis*, birth) is a term that appears to have originated among the Stoicks, who employed it to denote the act of the Demiurgus, or Creator, by which, having absorbed all being into himself, he reproduced it in a new creation. The occurrence of the word in the New Testament (Titus, i. 5, where it is used to denote regeneration) has given it a place in Christian theology, and divines have variously used it to express the resurrection of men, the new birth of the individual soul, and the restoration of the world to that perfect state that it lost by the Fall—“ the new heavens and the new earth wherein dwelleth righteousness.” Savans have also applied the term to designate both the great geological changes which the earth has undergone and the transformations in the insect kingdom, such as of caterpillars into butterflies, &c.

**PA'LINODE**, in the law of Scotland, is a peculiar practice by which, in actions for damages on account of slander or defamation raised in the Commissary Court, and even in the Sheriff Court, the pursuer may conclude not only for damages but for palinode, i. e., a solemn recantation. On a recent case, the question arose whether this ancient practice still existed as part of the law of Scotland, and it was held that it did. In actions, however, in the Court of Session, damages only are given as the remedy.

**PA'LISADE**, a paling of strong timber, used in Fortification. For the mode in which the palisade is employed see FORTIFICATION under the head *Stockade*.

**PALISANDER WOOD**, the continental name for Rosewood (q. v.). By some of the French cabinet-makers the name *bois de Palissandre* is also applied to violet wood and to a kind of striped ebony.

**PALISSY**, Bernard, a French potter, famous for his glass paintings and beautiful figured pottery, was born near Agen, now in the department of Lot et Garonne, France, about 1510, and at an early age was apprenticed to a potter. He devoted himself to chemical researches for the improvement of his art, and made many journeys through France and Germany for the same purpose; at the same time carrying on the business of a land-surveyor. An enamelled cup of "Faience," which he saw by chance, inspired him with the resolution to discover the mode of producing white enamel. Neglecting all other labors, he devoted himself to investigations and experiments for the long period of 16 years. He had by this time exhausted all his resources, and for want of money to buy fuel was reduced to the necessity of burning his household furniture piece by piece; his neighbors laughed at him, his wife overwhelmed him with reproaches, and his starving family surrounded him crying for food; but in spite of all these discouragements he persisted in the search, and was in the end rewarded by success. A few vessels adorned with figures of animals, colored to represent nature, sold for high prices, and enabled him to complete his investigations, after which he became famous; and though a Huguenot, was protected and encouraged by the king and the nobility, who employed him to embellish their mansions with specimens of his art. He was lodged in or near the Tuilleries, and was specially exempted by Queen Catharine from the massacre of St Bartholomew, more from a regard to her own benefit than from kindness. In March 1575 he commenced a course of lectures on natural history and physics, and was the first in France to substitute positive facts and rigorous demonstrations for the fanciful interpretations of philosophers. In the course of these lectures, he gave (1584) the first right notions of the origin of springs, and the formation of stones and fossil shells, and strongly advocated the importance of man as a fertilising agent. These, along with his theories regarding the best means of purifying water, have been fully supported by recent discovery and investigation. In 1588 he was arrested and thrown into the Bastile as a heretic, but died in 1590 before his sentence was pronounced.

P. left a collection of objects of natural history, the first that had been formed in France. His works are at the present day almost beyond price, and his ornaments and arabesques are amongst the most beautiful of the "renaissance." As a sincere, earnest, and courageous man, he was no less eminent than as an artist.

**PALIU'RUS**, a genus of trees and shrubs of the natural order *Rhamnaceæ*, nearly allied to *Zizyphus* (see JUJUBE), but very different in the fruit, which is dry, orbicular, and girded with a broad membranous wing. *P. aculeatus* is often called CHRIST'S THORN, and by the Germans, JEWS' THORN (*Judendorn*), from an imagination that it supplied the crown of thorns with which our Saviour was crowned. It is a deciduous shrub or low tree, with slender, pliant branches and ovate 3-nerved leaves, each of which has two sharp spines at the base, one straight and the other re-curved. It is a native of the countries around the Mediterranean, of India, and many parts of Asia. It is often used for hedges in Italy and other countries; its sharp spines and pliant branches admirably adapting it for this purpose. The fruit has a singular appearance, being flat and thin, attached by the middle to the foot-stalk, the middle being raised like the crown of a hat, whilst the expansion resembles the brim. The seeds are sold by the druggists of the east, and are used medicinally, but their qualities are doubtful. This shrub is not uncommon in shrubberies in England, being very ornamental when in flower, but the fruit does not ripen.

PALK STRAIT, or Palk's Passage, the northern portion of the passage between the south coast of Hindustan and the island of Ceylon. This passage is continued southward by the Gulf of Mannar (q. v.). It is from 40 to 80 miles in width, and is 80 miles in length. It is so shallow—in some places being no more than two fathoms in depth—that it cannot be navigated in safety by large vessels. In P. S. there are several pearl fisheries.

PALL (Lat. *pallium*, also *palla*, a cloak), the name given in English to two very different portions of the vesture employed in the religious use of the Roman and some other churches. One of these is the *funeral pall*, an ample covering of black velvet or other stuff, which is cast over the coffin while being borne to burial. The ends of the pall are held during the funeral procession by the most distinguished among the friends of the deceased, generally selected from among those unconnected by blood. In its second and most strictly liturgical use, the word pall is applied to one of the coverings used at the altar in the celebration of the mass. Primitively, as appears from Optatius and other early writers, the altar was covered with a large linen cloth—called by the Latins *pallium*, and by the Greeks *eileton*—the extremities of which were folded back so as to cover the bread and wine prepared for the celebration of the eucharist. In later times a separate covering was employed for the sacramental chalice, to which latter the name pall is now reserved in the use of the Roman Church. The modern Roman pall is a square piece of linen cloth—sometimes limber, sometimes made stiff by inserting pasteboard—sufficiently large to cover the mouth of the chalice. The upper surface is often of silk embroidered, or of cloth of gold. The surface in contact with the chalice must always be of linen.

PALL, in Heraldry, the upper part of a saltire conjoined to the lower part of a pale. It appears much in the arms of ecclesiastical sees.

PALL-MALL. See MALL.

PALLADIO, Andrea, a famous Italian architect, was born at Vicenza, 20th November 1518. After having studied with the greatest care the writings of Vitruvius, and the monuments of antiquity at Rome, he settled in his native city, and first acquired a reputation by his restoration of the Basilica of Vicenza. Pope Paul III. then invited him to Rome, designating to intrust him with the execution of the works then going on at St. Peter's, but his holiness dying before the arrival of P., the latter had to return home. He was employed for many years in the construction of numerous buildings in Vicenza and the neighborhood, in all of which he displayed the most exquisite taste combined with the most ingenious and imaginative ornamentation. His style, known as the Palladian, is a composite, and is characterised by great splendor of execution and justness of proportion, and it exercised an immense influence on the architecture of Northern Italy. His principal works are the Rotonda Capra, outside Vicenza; the Palazzo Chiericato and the Palazzo Tieie, in the city; the Palazzo Barbaro, at Maser in the Trevisiano, the Teatro Olympico at Vicenza (his last work), the Palazzo at Montagnana for Francesco Pisana; the churches of San Giorgio Maggiore and Il Santissimo Redemptore at Venice, the atrium and cloister at the convent Della Carità, and the faade of San Francesco della Vigna in the same city. P. died at Vicenza, August 6, 1580. He wrote a work on architecture, which is highly prized. The best edition is that published at Vicenza in 4 vols., 1776.

PALLADIUM (symb. Pd, eq. 53—new system, 106—spe. grav. 11.8) is one of the so called noble metals, which in its color and ductility closely resembles platinum. It is not fusible in an ordinary wind-furnace, but melts at a somewhat lower temperature than the last-named metal; and when heated beyond its fusing-point, it volatilises in the form of a green vapor. It undergoes no change in the open air at ordinary temperatures; but at a low red heat, it becomes covered with a purple film, owing to superficial oxidation. It is soluble in nitric and iodic acids, and in aqua regia. It combines readily with gold, which it has the property of rendering brittle and white. (When it forms 20 per cent. of the mass, the alloy is perfectly white.) When alloyed with twice its weight of silver, it forms a ductile compound, which has been employed for the construction of small weights; but for this purpose aluminum is superior. Professor Miller states that it "has been applied in a few cases to

**L**the construction of graduated scales for astronomical instruments, for which, by its whiteness, hardness, and unalterability in the air, it is well adapted ;" its scarcity must, however, prevent its general use for this purpose.

It was discovered in 1808 by Wollaston in the ore of platinum, of which it seldom forms so much as 1 per cent. Another source of this metal is the native alloy which it forms with gold in certain mines in Brazil, and which is termed *ouro poudre*; and it is from this alloy that the metal is chiefly obtained.

Palladium forms with oxygen a protoxide, PdO, which is the base of the salts of the metal; a binoxide,  $\text{Pd}_2\text{O}_3$ ; and according to some chemists, a suboxide,  $\text{Pd}_2\text{O}$ . On exposure to sufficient heat, these compounds give off their oxygen, and yield the metal. The salts of the protoxide are of a brown or red color.

**PALLADIUM**, among the ancient Greeks and Romans, an image of Pallas, who was generally identified with Athene, upon the careful keeping of which in a sanctuary the public welfare was believed to depend. The Palladium of Troy is particularly celebrated. According to the current myth, it was thrown down from heaven by Zeus, and fell on the plain of Troy, where it was picked up by Ilus, the founder of that city, as a favorable omen. In the course of time, the belief spread that the loss of it would be followed by the fall of the city ; it was therefore stolen by Odysseus and Diomedes. Several cities afterwards boasted of possessing it, particularly Argos and Athens. Other accounts, however, affirm that it was not stolen by the Greek chiefs, but carried to Italy by Æneas ; and the Romans said that it was preserved in the temple of Vesta, but so secretly, that even the Pontifex Maximus might not behold it. All images of this name were somewhat coarsely hewn out of wood.

**PALLADIUS**, Rutilius Taurus Æmilianus, a Roman author, who probably lived in the 4th c.a.d., under Valentinian and Theodosius. He wrote a work, "De Re Rustica" (On Agriculture), in 14 books, the last of which is a poem of 85 elegiac couplets. It is, from a literary and grammatical point of view, full of faults; but as it was a complete calendar of Roman agriculture, it was very useful for its time, and was much read and followed during the middle ages. P. has borrowed largely from his predecessors. The best edition is that by J. G. Schneider in his "Scriptores Rei Rusticæ Veteres Latini" (4 vols., Leip. 1794).

**PA'LLAS.** See MINERVA.

**PALLAS**, Peter Simon, an eminent traveller and naturalist, was born, 22d September, 1741, at Berlin, where his father was a physician. He studied medicine, natural history, and other branches of science, at the universities of Berlin, Göttingen, and Leyden, and was employed in classifying many valuable collections of objects of natural history, both in Holland and England. He gained a high reputation by the publication of his "Elenchus Zoophytorum" (Hague, 1768), a work still much valued; "Miscellanea Zoologica" (Hague, 1766), and "Spicilegium Zoologicum" (2 vols., Berlin, 1767—1804). The Empress Catharine invited him, in 1768, to St. Petersburg, where he was well received, and had honors conferred on him, and he was subsequently appointed naturalist to a scientific expedition bound for Siberia, there to observe the transit of Venus. P. spent six years on this journey (1768—1774), exploring in succession the Ural Mountains, the Kirghis Steppes, great part of the Altai range, and the country around Lake Baikal as far as Kiachta, great part of Siberia, and the steppes of the Volga, returning to St. Petersburg in 1774, with an extraordinary treasure of specimens in natural history, which form the nucleus of the Museum of the Academy of St. Petersburg. His travels ("Reisen durch verschiedene Provinzen des Russ. Reichs") were published at St. Petersburg (1771—1776), in three volumes, and were followed by his "Sammlung historischer Nachrichten über die Mongol. Völkerschaften" (2 vols., St. Petersb. 1776—1802), and his "Neme nordische Beiträge zur physikalischen und geographischen Erd- und Völkerbeschreibung, Naturgeschichte und Oekonomie" (6 vols., St. Petersb. 1781—1798). Without positively neglecting any branch of natural history, he now devoted himself more particularly to botany; and his magnificent "Flora Rossica" (St. Petersb. 1784—1788), a work which, however, he was not able to complete, and his "Species Astragorum" (14 parts, Leip. 1800—1804), were among the results of his studies. He published also "Icones Insectorum præcipue Rossiae Sibiræque Peculiarium" (Erlangen, 1781, 1783, and 1806); and contributed to a glossary of all the languages of the Russian empire, which was published at St.

Petersburg. As he wished to live in the Crimea, the Empress Catharine presented him with an estate in the finest part of that peninsula, where he resided generally from 1796. His "Travels in the South of Russia" were published in 1799 (2 vols., Leipzig, with volume of plates). After the death of his wife, he went to Berlin, where he died, 5th September 1811. A large and valuable work of his, on the Fauna of Russia, has not yet been published.

**PALLAVICINO.** Pietro Storza, an Intalian historian, son of the Marquis Alessandro Pallavicino of Parma, was born at Rome, 20th November 1607. Much to the disgust of his father, he took priest's orders, and held several important ecclesiastical appointments during the pontificate of Urban VIII. In 1637, he became a member of the Jesuit Society, and was created a cardinal in 1657 by Pope Alexander VII. He died at Rome, 5th June 1667. P. was a fine scholar, and often presided in the famous Roman academy of the "Umoristi." The best known of all his writings is his "Istoria del Concilio de Trento" (Rome, 1656—1657), intended as a reply to the still more celebrated and liberal, although, by Catholics, deeply suspected, work of Paul Sarpi. Among his other works may be mentioned "Vindicatione Soc. Jes." (Rome, 1649); "Arte della Perfezione Cristiana—I Fasti Sacri" (the unpublished MS. is in the library of Parma); "Ernestina," a tragedy (Rome, 1644); "Gli Avvertimenti Grammaticali" (Rome, 1661); "Trattato dello Stile e del Dialogo" (Rome, 1662); and "Lettere" (Rome, 1668).

**PA'LLI.** a town of Rajputana, in Jodhpore, stands on the right bank of a branch of the Luni River, in lat.  $25^{\circ} 48'$  n., long.  $73^{\circ} 24'$  e. It is an entrepôt for the opium sent from Malwa to Bombay, and is the seat of extensive commerce. It imports European manufactured goods extensively, and is estimated to contain about 50,000 inhabitants.

**PALLIOBRANCHIA'TA.** See BRANCHIOPODA.

**PA'LLIUM,** the name given in the Roman Catholic Church to one of the ecclesiastical ornaments worn by the pope, by patriarchs, and by archbishops. Its use is held by Roman Catholics to descend from a very early period. It is worn by the pope at all times, as a symbol of his reputed universal and abiding jurisdiction. By archbishops it cannot be worn until it has been solemnly asked for and granted by the pope, and even then only during the solemn service of the great church festivals, and on occasions of the ordination of bishops, or of priests, and other similar acts of the archiepiscopal order. The pallium is a narrow annular band of white woollen web, about three inches wide, upon which black crosses are embroidered, which encircles the neck of the archbishop, and from which two narrow bands of the same material depend, one falling over the breast, the other over the back of the wearer. Its material is the subject of much care and ceremonial. It is made wholly or in part from the wool of two lambs, which are blessed annually on the festival, and in the church of St Agnes. During the night of the vigil of the feast of St Peter and St Paul, the *pallia* made of this wool are placed on the altar above the tomb of these apostles, and on the feast of St Peter and St Paul are delivered by the pope to the subdeacon, whose duty it is to keep them in charge. Within three months of his consecration, every new archbishop is obliged to apply to the pope, in person or by proxy, for the pallium; nor is it lawful for him, until he shall have received it, to exercise any act of what is properly archiepiscopal, as contradistinguished from episcopal jurisdiction. Thus, he cannot, for example, call a *provincial* synod. The pallium cannot be transferred from one archbishop to another, but must be received direct from the pope. On the archbishop's death, his pallium is interred with him. Its use is held to symbolise the office of the "good shepherd," bearing the lost sheep on his shoulders, and is connected by some writers with the vesture of the Jewish high-priest in Exod. xxviii. 4. In the mediæval church, the granting of the pallium to archbishops was one of the chief occasions of the tribute which was paid by the national churches to the support of the great central office and dignity of the papacy. In some sees, as, for instance, those of the great prince-bishops of the Rhine, the tribute was as much as 20,000 florins. Roman Catholics, however, maintain that this tribute was not a *payment* for the pallium, but an *offering* to the holy see, made on occasion of the grant of that emblem of jurisdiction.

**PALM,** a measure of length, originally taken from the width of the hand,

measured across the joints of the four fingers. In Greece, it was known as *palaistē*, and was reckoned at 3 inches, or 1-6 of a cubit, which was their standard unit. The Romans adopted two measures of this name—the one was the Greek *palaistē*, and was called *palmus minor*; the other, which was not introduced till later times, was called *palmus major*, or *palma*, and was taken from the length of the hand, being therefore usually estimated at three times the length of the other. At the present day, this measure varies in a most arbitrary manner, being different in each country, and occasionally varying in the same. The English palm, when used at all, which is seldom, is considered to be the fourth part of any English foot, or 8 inches. The following is a list of the most common measures to which the name palm is given :

|  | Value in Eng.<br>inches. |
|--|--------------------------|
| Greek <i>palaistē</i> .....                          | — 8 03875                |
| Roman <i>palmus</i> , or lesser palm .....           | — 2 9124                 |
| “ <i>palma</i> , or greater palm.....                | — 8 7372                 |
| English palm ( $\frac{1}{4}$ of a foot) .....        | — 8 0000                 |
| Hamburg palm ( $\frac{1}{4}$ of a foot).....         | — 8 7683                 |
| Amsterdam “round” palm.....                          | — 4 1200                 |
| “ “ “diameter” palm.....                             | — 11 9687                |
| Belgian palm, } properly the <i>deesimètre</i> ..... | — 8 9371                 |
| Lombard palm, }                                      |                          |
| Spanish palm, or <i>palmo major</i> .....            | — 8 9450                 |
| “ “ “ or <i>palmo minor</i> .....                    | — 2 7817                 |
| Portuguese palm, or <i>palmo de Craveira</i> .....   | — 8 6616                 |

In Germany and the Low Countries, the palm is generally confined to wood-measurement, while in Portugal it used to be the standard of linear measure.

PALM, Johann Philipp, a bookseller of Nuremberg, who has acquired an historic celebrity as a victim of Napoleonic justice in Germany. He was born at Schorndorf in 1766, and succeeded his father-in-law, Stein, as a bookseller in Nuremberg, the old name of the firm being retained. In the spring of 1806, a pamphlet, entitled “Deutschland in seiner tiefsten Erniedrigung” (Germany in its Deepest Humiliation), which contained some bitter truths concerning Napoleon, and concerning the conduct of the French troops in Bavaria, was sent by this firm to a bookseller in Augsburg in the ordinary course of trade, and, as P. to the last moment of his life averred, without any regard, on his part, to its contents. Napoleon’s police traced it to the shop in Nuremberg, and an investigation was ordered, from which nothing resulted. Palm was in Munich, and perhaps escaped imprisonment there because his name was not the same with that of the firm; but supposing all safe, he returned to Nuremberg, and was there taken prisoner, and examined before Marshal Bernadotte, whose adjutant represented his arrestment as the consequence of direct orders from Paris. An extraordinary court-martial, held at Brunau, to which he was removed, condemned him to death, without any advocate being heard in his defence. All intercession on his behalf was in vain. General St Hilaire declared that the orders of the emperor were positive; and the sentence was executed at two o’clock on the same day on which it was pronounced. Subscriptions were raised for the family at St Petersburg, to which the Emperor and Empress of Russia personally contributed; in England, and in several German towns, as Berlin, Leipzig, Dresden, and Hamburg. Some French writers have endeavored to throw the blame of this murder on Marshal Berthier, instead of Napoleon.

#### PALM OIL. See OIL PALM.

PALM SUNDAY (Lat. *Dominica Palmarum*, or *Dom. in Palmis*), the last Sunday of Lent, is so called from the custom of blessing branches of the palm tree, or of other trees substituted in those countries in which palm cannot be procured, and of carrying the blessed branches in procession, in commemoration of the triumphal entry of our Lord into Jerusalem (John xii.). The date of the origin of this custom is uncertain. The first writer in the West who expressly refers to it is Venerable Bede. The usage certainly existed in the 7th century. A special service is found in the Roman missal, and also in the Greek euchilogies, for the blessing of “branches

of palms and olives;" but in many countries, other trees, as in England, the yew or the willow, and in Brittany the box, are blessed instead. A procession is formed, the members of which issue from the church carrying branches in their hands, and singing a hymn suited to the occasion, of very ancient origin. In the Greek Church, the book of the Gospels is borne in front. In some of the Catholic countries of the West, a priest, or occasionally a lay figure, was led at the head, mounted upon an ass, in commemoration of our Lord's entry into the city—a usage which still exists in Spain and in Spanish America. Before their return to the church the doors have been closed, and certain strophes of the hymn are sung alternately by a choir within the church and by the procession without, when, on the sub-deacon's knocking at the door, it is again thrown open, and the procession re-enters. During the singing of the Passion in the solemn mass which ensues, the congregation hold the palm branch in their hands, and at the conclusion of the service it is carried home to their respective houses, where it is preserved during the year. At Rome, the Procession of the Palms, in which the pope is carried, is among the most striking of the picturesque ceremonies of the Holy Week. In England, Palm Sunday anciently was celebrated with much ceremonial; but the blessing and procession of the palms was discontinued in the Church of England, together with the other ceremonies abolished in the reign of Edward VI.

PA'LMA. See CANARIES.

PALMA, the capital of the island of Majorca (q. v.) and of the province of Balears, is situated on the south-west coast of the island, on the Gulf of Palma, which, between Capes Figuera and Blanco, is 18 miles long, and sweeps 12 miles inland. The city is surrounded by orange plantations, and is walled and fortified. The houses, some of which are built of marble, are mostly in the Moorish style of architecture, and a number of the streets are wide and regular. It is the see of a bishop, and contains a Gothic cathedral, simple but beautiful in style, and with a spire which, from the delicate and airy character of its construction, is called the Angel's Tower. Besides other ecclesiastical edifices, the town contains an Exchange—a beautiful and ornate structure in Germano-Gothic—the governor's palace, an academy of medicine and surgery, and a large number of excellent educational institutions, including three *colegios*. In the port, a mole, 500 yards in length, runs out from the bastions facing the south; and on each side of it are ship-building yards, for the construction of the swift lateen vessels so well known in the Mediterranean. The port is small. The first railway in Majorca was opened from P. to Inca in 1875. Wool, silk, and the cordage for the Spanish navy are manufactured. Though one of the chief marts of Europe in the 18th c., P. now carries on but little commerce. Pop. 50,000.

PA'LMA, or Palma di Montechiaro, a town of Sicily, in the province of Girgenti, 14 miles south-east of the town of Girgenti, near the south-west coast. It is entirely a modern town, its foundation dating only from 1637. There is a trade in almonds, dried fruits, soda, wine, and sulphur. Pop. (1871) 18,468.

PA'LMA CHRI'STI. See CASTOR-OIL PLANT.

PALMBBLAD, Vilhelm Fredrick, a Swedish writer of considerable merit, and one of the earliest and most zealous promoters of the literature of his native country, was born in 1788 at Liljestedt, in East Gotland, where his father held a post under the government. While still a student at Upsala, P. purchased, in 1810, the university printing-press, and immediately entered upon the publication of several literary and scientific periodicals, which, being the first of the kind that had ever appeared in the Swedish language, attracted considerable notice, and by their intrinsic merit, contributed materially to the diffusion of general information and the creation of a taste for learning among the general Swedish public. The earliest of these were the "Phosphoros," a mixed literary journal; the "Poetisk Kalender," an annual; and the "Svensk Litteratur Tidning," a literary review, which lasted till 1824. The Swedish writers Återbom and Hammarkjold were associated with P. in the management of these journals, and, like him, directed all their efforts to supplant the pseudo-classical school of literature, in favor of the romantic style, and to counteract the false French taste of that period, which, under Gustavus III., had been universally followed in Swedish literature and art. P. successively occupied the chairs of History and Geography and of Greek Literature in the

university of Upsala ; and at his death in 1852, he left the character of having been one of the most industrious and influential Swedish writers of his day. His principal works are—"Minnesstafla öfver Sveriges Regerenter" (1831); "Lärobok i nyare Historien" (Ups. 1832); "Handbok i physiska och politiska Geographien" (1837); "Lärobok i Geographien" (Orebro, 1847); "Grekisk Formkunskab" (Ups. 1846); and in addition to these purely instructive works, among his various novels we may instance his "Familjen Falkensvård" (Oreb. 1844); "Aurora Kungsmark" (Oreb. 1846), which rank among the best of their class in Swedish literature. P. was the editor of the great Swedish biography, "Nannkunnige Svenska Män" (Stock. 1835—1852); and besides being an active conditor in the direction of the Swedish Literary Society, for which he wrote numerous papers, he was an active contributor to various German works of celebrity, as Ersch and Grüber's "Allgemeine Encyklopädie," the "Conversations-Lexicon," &c.

PA'LME, or Palmi, a royal city of South Italy, in the province of Reggio-Calabria, 20 miles north-north-east of Reggio, on the coast of the Bay of Gioja. The town, by means of its port, carries on an active trade. Pop. 18,500.

PALMELLA'CEÆ. a family group of *Algae*, of the order or sub-order *Conervaceæ*. In organisation, they are among the lowest of plants; they are, however, universally regarded as vegetable, and do not, like the *Diatomaceæ*, occupy a somewhat doubtful position between the animal and vegetable kingdoms. The P. all grow on damp surfaces, but some under the influence of fresh water, and some of salt. Some appear as a mere powdery layer, the granules of which have little adherence to each other, as Red Snow (q. v.); some of them assume the form of a slimy film or gelatinous mass, as Gory Dew (q. v.); and some are more firm and membranous, so as to have something of the character of a frond. The P. bear so great a resemblance to the early stages of plants higher in organisation, that doubts are entertained of their right to a distinct place in the botanical system, particularly as their mode of reproduction is not yet well understood. Conjugation has been observed in some of them. They propagate with great rapidity by gemmation, or something like it, some of them sending forth tubular filaments from their cells, the extremities of which dilate into new cells, after which the connecting tube closes, and ceases to exist; whilst in others the multiplication of cells takes place by division or segmentation (see MONAD), and the young plants exhibit remarkable powers of motion for a short time, like zoospores, being furnished with vibratile cilia, by which their motion is produced. Ere long, however, their motion ceases, and the process of segmentation is ready to begin anew. The motile organs and powers of some of the P. in the earlier part of their existence, have led to their being mistaken for animalculæ.

PALMER (Lat. *palmifer*, a palm-bearer), the name of one of those numerous classes of PILGRIMS (q. v.), whose origin and history form one of the most interesting studies in the social life of medieval Europe. The Palmer, properly so called, was a pilgrim who had performed the pilgrimage to the HOLY SEPULCHRE (q. v.), and had returned, or was returning home after the fulfilment of his vow. The Palmers were so called from their carrying branches of the oriental palm, in token of their accomplished expedition. On arriving at their home, they repaired to the church to return thanks to God, and offered the palm to the priest, to be placed upon the altar. The palms so offered were frequently used in the procession of Palm Sunday. Even after the time of his return, the religious character of the Palmer still continued: and although his office might be supposed to have ceased with the fulfilment of his vow, many Palmers continued their religious peregrinations even in their native country. They were thus a class of itinerant monks, without a fixed residence, professing voluntary poverty, observing celibacy, and visiting at stated times the most remarkable SANCTUARIES (q. v.) of the several countries of the West. Their costume was commonly the same as that of the ordinary PILGRIM (q. v.), although modified in different countries.

PALMERSTON, Viscount, Henry John Temple, an English politician, was born at the family mansion, Broadlands, near Romsey, Hants, October 20, 1784. The Temples are of Saxon origin, and the family claim descent from Edwyn, who was deprived of the earldom of Mercia by the Conqueror, and lost his life in defending himself against the Normans in 1071. Sir W. Temple, the diplomatist and patron of

Swift, was a member of this family, which removed to Ireland in the time of Elizabeth. The family was ennobled 1722, when Henry Temple was created a peer of Ireland, with the dignities of Baron Temple and Viscount Palmerston. His grandson, the second viscount, father of the present peer, superintended his son's education at Broadlands, and then sent him to Harrow. P. afterwards went to the university of Edinburgh, where he attended the prelections of Dugald Stewart and other professors. He next matriculated at St John's College, Cambridge, whence he was summoned to attend the deathbed of his father, on whose decease, in 1805, P. succeeded to the title. His eminent abilities were early recognised, for he was scarcely of age when the Tory party in the university selected him (1806) as their candidate to succeed Mr Pitt in the representation. The late Marquis of Lansdowne was the Whig candidate; and Lord Byron, then at Cambridge, in his "Hours of Idleness," evinced the interest he took in the election. P. was unsuccessful, and again in 1807. He entered parliament, however, in the same year for the borough of Newport, his colleague being Arthur Wellesley, then chief secretary of Ireland. In 1811, he exchanged Newport for the university of Cambridge, enjoyed the distinction of representing his *alma mater* for 20 years, and only lost his seat when he became a member of the Grey administration, and supported the Reform Bill. For the last two years of the unreformed parliament, he sat for the now extinct borough of Betchingly. At the first election after the Reform Act, he was returned for South Hampshire, but lost his seat at the general election of 1835. He immediately afterwards found a seat for the borough of Tiverton, which he promised never to leave as long as the electors would permit him to represent them. Having traced his representative, we now turn to his official career. P. entered life as a member of the Tory party, and accepted the office of Secretary at War in the Duke of Portland's administration in 1809. This office he held during the successive governments of Mr Perceval, the Earl of Liverpool, Mr Canning, Lord Goderich, and the Duke of Wellington—a period extending from 1809 to 1828. There was ample scope at the War-office for P.'s administrative talents and activity. Our military system swarmed with abuses, and the labor thrown upon the Secretary at War during the Peninsular campaigns was prodigious. In 1817, an attempt was made to assassinate P. by an insane army lieutenant, named Davis, who fired a pistol at him as he was entering the Horse Guards, the bullet, however, only inflicting a slight wound. P. early attached himself to the Canning section of the Liverpool administration, and he accepted a seat in the cabinet of Mr Canning. His official connection with the Tory party ceased in 1828, when the "Great Duke" insisted on accepting Mr Huskisson's resignation, which was followed by P.'s retirement. The Duke's government was swept away in the reform flood of 1830; and Earl Grey, who became Prime Minister, offered the seals of the Foreign Office to Palmerston. The European horizon was so disturbed at this crisis, that a great political authority declared that if an angel from heaven were in the Foreign Office, he could not preserve peace for three months. P. falsified the prediction. Louis Philippe then filled the throne of France; and for the first time on record, England and France acted in concert, and without jealousy, under P.'s foreign ministry. He took a leading part in effecting the independence of Belgium, and in establishing the thrones of Queen Isabella of Spain and Queen Maria of Portugal on a constitutional basis. In 1841, P. went out of office with the Whigs on the question of free trade in corn; but on their return in 1846, he resumed the seals of the Foreign Office. His second foreign administration furnished various subjects of hostile party criticism, among which may be mentioned the civil war in Switzerland, the Spanish marriages, the European revolutions in 1848, the rupture of diplomatic relations between Spain and Great Britain, and finally, the affair of Don Pacifico and the quarrel with Greece. A vote of censure on the foreign policy of the government was, in 1850, carried in the House of Lords on the motion of Lord Stanley (afterwards Earl of Derby). A counter-resolution, approving the foreign policy of the government, was therupon moved by Mr Roebuck in the Lower House. The debate lasted four nights. In a speech of five hours' duration—"that speech," said Sir Robert Peel, "which made us all so proud of him"—P. entered upon a manly and dignified vindication of his foreign policy; and Mr Roebuck's motion was carried by a majority of 46. In December 1851, the public were startled at the news that P. was no longer a member of the Russell cabinet. He had ex-

pressed his approval of the *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon, without consulting either the premier or the Queen; and as explanations were refused, her Majesty exercised her constitutional right of dismissing her minister. P. avenged himself, as soon as parliament met, by shattering the Russell administration to pieces on a comparatively trifling question regarding the militia. He refused an offer from the Earl of Derby to join the government which he was commissioned to form, but accepted the post of Home Secretary in the coalition administration of the Earl of Aberdeen in 1852. The fall of this government, on Mr Roebuck's motion for a Sebastopol committee, placed P. in his 71st year in the position of prime minister, to which he was unanimously called by the voice of the nation. He vigorously prosecuted the Russian war until Sebastopol was taken, and peace was made. His government was defeated in March 1857, on Mr Cobden's motion, condemnatory of the Chinese war. Parliament was dissolved, and P. met the House of Commons with a large majority. But his administration fell in February 1858, upon the Conspiracy Bill, intended to protect the French emperor against the machinations of plotting refugees. A short Conservative administration followed; but in June 1859, P. was again called to the post of First Lord of the Treasury, which he continued to fill up to his death. It was his ambition to be considered the minister of a nation rather than the minister of a political party; and his opponents have been constrained to admit that he held office with more general acceptance than any English minister since the time of the great Lord Chatham. As an orator, he was usually homely and unpretending, but always sensible and practical. He was a dexterous tactician, and a ready, witty, and often brilliant debater. He was popular as a minister, because he was thoroughly English in his ends and aims. Even his robust health, manly bearing, and physical vigor were elements of his popularity, because they were regarded as a glorification of the English sports, which he was never ashamed to patronise. He desired nothing so ardently as to promote the wealth and grandeur of Great Britain, and his national character and national spirit were thoroughly appreciated by his countrymen. He married, in 1859, the widow of the fifth Earl of Cowper, daughter of the first Viscount Melbourne. As he died without issue, and his only brother died unmarried, the title became extinct on P.'s decease, Oct. 18, 1865. See "Life of P." by Sir Henry Lytton Bulwer (Lord Dalling), continued by Evelyn Ashley.

PALMER-WORM, a name given to many large kinds of grub, the larvae of coleopterous insects destructive to vegetable substances of various kinds. It is used in the English version of the Old Testament as the translation of the Hebrew *gazam*, rendered *kampe* by the Septuagint, which modern Hebrew writers and others very generally regard as a kind of locust, although more probably it is either the grub of a coleopterous or the caterpillar of a lepidopterous insect.—See Kitto in "Pictorial Bible," on Joel i. 4.

*Palmer-flea* are much used by anglers on the English streams, and are at certain seasons excellent lures for trout, &c.

PALMETTO (*Sabal palmetto*, or *Chamærops palmetto*). a species of palm, a native of maritime parts of North America, as far north as lat. 35°, which is further north than any other American species of palm is found. It attains a height of 40—60 feet, and has a crown of large palmated leaves, the blade from one foot to five feet in length and breadth, and the footstalk long. The flowers are small, greenish, and in long racemes; the fruit black, about as long as a pen-pod, and inedible. The leaves are made into hats. The terminal bud or *cabbage* is eaten. The wood is extremely porous; but is preferred to every other kind of wood in North America for wharfs, as it is very durable, and not liable to be attacked by worms.—The *Chamærops* (q. v.) *humilis* of the south of Europe is also called Palmetto.

PALMETTO-LEAVES, the leaves of the Palmyra (q. v.) palm, *Borassus flabelliformis*, which grows extensively in India and Polynesia. The leaves have great value as a material for the manufacture of hats, mats, &c., and for this purpose are frequently imported into Europe. In their native country, they are used as thatch, and for a great variety of other useful applications.

PALMIPEDES, or Web-Footed Birds, also called NATATORES, or SWIMMERS, an order of birds, the *Anseres* of Linnaeus, very natural and universally recognised by ornithologists. Having the feet specially formed for swimming, and the toes webbed, i. e., connected by a membrane, at least those which are directed forwards

In swimming, the feet are contracted when drawn forwards, the toes being brought together, and expanded to their utmost extent in the backward stroke. In accordance with their aquatic habits, the P. are further characterised by a boat-like form, calculated to move through the water with little resistance; and by a dense and polished plumage, oiled by a secretion from certain glands near the tail, very impervious to water; whilst warmth is further secured by a clothing of down, more or less abundant, beneath the feathers. They are remarkable for the length of the breast-bone (*sternum*), and the neck is often longer than the legs, a thing very unusual in birds, so that they can plunge the head far down in search of food. The length of the wings differs very much in different sections of the order, and with it the power of flying; as does also the power of diving, which some possess in a high degree, and others, even of the same family, in a very inferior degree. To this order belong geese, swans, ducks, divers, aliks, guillemots, puffins, penguins, petrels, albatrosses, gulls, terns, shearwaters, noddies, pelicans, cormorants, frigate-birds, gannets, darters, tropic-birds, &c.

**PALMITIC ACID** ( $\text{HO.C}_{18}\text{H}_{32}\text{O}_3$ ) is one of the most important of the *Fatty Acids*, represented by the general formula  $\text{HO.C}_n\text{H}_{2n-2}\text{O}_3$  (see OILS and FATS). In a pure state, when crystallised from alcohol, it occurs in the form of beautifully white acicular crystals arranged in tuft-like groups. These crystals are devoid of odor or taste, communicate a fatty feeling to the finger, fuse at  $143^\circ\text{C}$ . and solidify on cooling in the form of crystalline scales. This acid is lighter than water, in which it is perfectly insoluble; but it dissolves freely in boiling alcohol and in ether, and the solutions have a distinctly acid reaction. In small quantities it may be distilled without decomposing, if the heat be carefully regulated. The neutral palmitate of the alkalies constitute soaps, and are soluble in water; if, however, their solutions are largely diluted with additional water, they are decomposed, an insoluble acid salt being precipitated, while a portion of the base remains in solution. The addition of chloride of sodium (common salt) to a solution of an alkaline palmitate produces a similar effect. The other most important compounds of palmitic acid are those which it forms with glycerine and with cetyllic ether. With glycerine this acid forms three compounds, viz., a triglyceride or tripalmitate (constituting the ordinary **PALMITINE** of chemists), a diglyceride, and a monoglyceride. In addition to its existence in the form of palmitine, palmitic acid is found in a free state in old palm oil. In combination with cetyllic ether, or of oxide of cetyl, whose composition is represented by the formula  $\text{C}_{28}\text{H}_{52}\text{O}$ , it is the main constituent of Spermaceti (q. v.), which is in fact essentially a palmitate of oxide of cetyl ( $\text{C}_{28}\text{H}_{52}\text{O.C}_{18}\text{H}_{32}\text{O}_3$ ); and a palmitate of oxide of inellasyi—a substance which will be noticed in the article **WAX**—it is the chief ingredient of bees-wax.

**PA'LMITINE** is a white fat, usually occurring, when crystallised from ether, in the form of a mass of small scaly crystals. According to Duffy, it occurs like the allied fat stearine in three modifications, each of which has a different melting-point —viz.,  $114^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $143^\circ$ , and  $145^\circ$ . On cooling, it solidifies into a wax-like mass, of lower specific gravity than water, and insoluble in that fluid, but readily soluble in ether and in boiling alcohol. It is a constituent of almost every kind of fat, and is the preponderating ingredient in those of a semi-solid consistence, and in many oils. It receives its name from the abundance in which it occurs in palm oil, and it may readily be obtained from this source by removing the liquid portion (the oleine) by pressure, and purifying the remaining palmitine by crystallisation from ether, or a mixture of ether and alcohol. It has been stated in the article on Glycerine (q. v.) that the composition of that substance may be represented by the formula  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{10}\text{O}_8.3\text{HO}$ . When palmitic acid unites with it to form a triglyceride (or the substance usually recognised as palmitine), three atoms of the anhydrons acid expel and replace the three atoms of water in the glycerine, and the resulting compound, palmitine, is consequently represented by the formula  $\text{C}_6\text{H}_{10}\text{O}_8 + 3(\text{C}_{18}\text{H}_{32}\text{O}_3)$ , or  $\text{C}_{122}\text{H}_{224}\text{O}_{15}$ .

**PALMS** (*Palmae* or *Palmaceæ*), a natural order of endogenous plants, not excelled in importance by any order in the vegetable kingdom except Grases. They are generally tall and slender trees, often of gigantic height, without a branch, and bearing at the summit a magnificent and graceful crown of very large leaves. The stem is sometimes, however, of humble growth, and more rarely it is thick in propor-

tion to its height; sometimes, but rarely, it is branched, as in the Doom (q. v.) Palm; and sometimes, as in Rattans (q. v.), it is flexible, and seeks support from trees and bushes, over which it climbs in jungles and dense forests, clinging to them by means of hooked spines. Some of the species with flexible stem attain a prodigious length, ascending to the tops of the highest trees, and falling down again. Rumphius asserts that they are sometimes 1200, or even 1800 feet long. Whatever the form or magnitude of the stem of a palm, it is always woody, and the root is always fibrous. It is only towards its circumference, however, that the stem is hard and there in many species it is extremely hard; but the centre is soft, often containing, when young, a great quantity of starch (sago), and sometimes filled, when old, with a mass of fibres which can be separated without difficulty. Concerning the structure of the stem, see ENDOGENOUS PLANTS. The stem is generally marked externally with rings or scars, where former leaves have been attached; sometimes it is rough with the remaining bases of the leaves, and part of it is sometimes covered with their fibrous appendages. No other plants have leaves so large as many of the P.; the largest of all are those of some of the fan-leaved P., but there are P. with pinnate leaves 50 feet long and 8 feet broad, and undivided leaves up to 80 feet long by 4 or 5 feet broad. There are, however, also small P., and P. with flexible stems, which have small leaves. The number of the large leaves which form the crown of even the most magnificent palm is never great. Whatever the size or form of the leaves, they are always stalked, the stalk being often in dimensions equal to a large bough of a great oak or other such tree. The leaves are commonly pinnated, the number of pinnae or leaflets being often very great; but about one sixth of the whole number of known species of P. have fan-shaped leaves, and a few species have undivided leaves. The leaves are in all cases persistent, only falling off in succession as the palm advances in growth, and new ones are formed at the summit. The flowers are sometimes hermaphrodite, sometimes unisexual; the same tree having sometimes male, female, and hermaphrodite flowers, whilst other species are monoecious, and others dioecious. The perianth has six divisions, three outer and three inner; there are generally six, rarely three stamens; the ovary is composed of three carpels, distinct or united, each with one cell containing one ovule. The flowers are small, but are often produced in dense masses of very striking appearance. Humboldt reckons the number of flowers on a single palm (*Affenia amygdalina*) as about 600 000, and every branch of the Sago Palm of the Orinoco consists of about 8000 fruits. The flowers are produced on scaly spadices, often much branched, and enclosed, before expanding, in leathery or woody spathe, often very large, and sometimes opening by bursting with a loud explosion. The flower of some P. emit a very powerful odor, which attracts multitudes of insects. The fruit is sometimes a kind of berry, sometimes a drupe, either with a fleshy or a fibrous covering; and sometimes contains a very hard and bony nut. The fruit is sometimes only of the size of a pea or a cherry; sometimes, notwithstanding the smallness of the flowers, it is of very large size, of which the cocoa-nut is a familiar example.

Palms are mostly natives of tropical countries, being found almost everywhere within the tropics, and forming, perhaps, the most striking characteristic of tropical vegetation. The tropical parts of America, however, particularly abound in them, producing a far greater number of species than any other part of the world. A few species are found in temperate regions; one species only, *Chamaerops humilis*, being a native of Europe, and extending as far north as lat. 44°, whilst the northern limit of P. in Asia is about lat. 84°, and in North America, lat. 85°. In South America, the southern limit of P. is lat. 38°; in Australia, it is lat. 35°; in Africa, no native species is found further south than lat. 30°; but in New Zealand, one species extends as far south as lat. 33° 22'. Some of the species, however, which are found in tropical America grow in mountain regions bordering upon the limits of perpetual snow. Some P. have very narrow geographical limits; the cocoa-nut palm is by far the most extensively distributed species. Some, like the cocoa-nut, grow in maritime, others in inland districts. Some grow on dry and sandy ground, others in the richest alluvial soil, and some in swampy situations; some in open districts, others in dense forests. Some species are generally found singly, some in groups; some even cover tracts of country in which no other tree appears.

The uses of P. are many and various; there is almost no species which is not.

capable of being applied to some use. Tribes in the lowest grade of civilisation depend almost entirely on particular species of palm, as the cocoa-nut palm, for the supply of all their wants. The fruit of some species is eaten; sometimes the fleshy part of the fruit, sometimes the kernel of the nut. The importance of the date and the cocoa-nut needs only to be alluded to; but in this respect they far excel the fruits of all other palms. A grateful beverage is made from the fruit of some P. (see ASSAR), consisting simply of a mixture of the pulp with water; but a kind of wine can be obtained also by fermentation (see DATE). A kind of beverage more generally used is the sap of palm-trees, either fresh or fermented (*palm-wine* or *toddy*), from which also a kind of spirits called Arrack (q. v.) is obtained by distillation; whilst from the fresh sap, boiled down, sugar is obtained—the *jaggery* of the East Indies. The sap of various species of palm is collected and used for these purposes, and that of many others is probably not less suitable. The pulp of the fruit of some species, and the kernel of others, yield bland fixed oil useful for various purposes. See OIL PALM and COCOA-NUT. The soft and starchy centre of the stem of some P. affords a very important and abundant article of food. See SAGO. The terminal bud, or *cabbage*, of some species is boiled for the table; and although the taking of the bud is death to the tree, this is little regarded where vegetation goes on with a rapidity and luxuriance unknown in the colder parts of the world. The young sprouts arising from the seeds of P., when they have begun to vegetate, are another esculent of tropical countries. From the stems of some species of palm, as the Wax Palm (q. v.) of the Andes, and from the leaves of some, as the Carnauba Palm (q. v.), wax is obtained, which is used for the same purposes as bees-wax. The wood of P. is used in house building, and for many other purposes; some affording very hard and beautiful wood for ornamental work, whilst others are suitable only for coarse purposes. The great leaf-stalks are also used for some of the purposes of timber. The stems of the most slender species are used for walking-sticks, &c., and, split, or unsplit, for wicker-work. See RATTAN. The leaves of many P. are used for thatching houses. The spathes of some species are used as vessels or bags. The fibres of the leaf, the fibres connected with the leaf-stalk, the fibres of the rind of the fruit, and the fibres of the stem of different kinds of P. are used for making cordage, mats, nets, cloth, &c. The most important of these fibres are Coir (q. v.) or Cocoa-nut Fibre, Gomuto (q. v.) or Ejoo Fibre, and Phasaba (q. v.). The coarsest fibres are employed as bristles for making brushes, &c. Stripes of the delicate epidermis of the young unopened leaves of some South American P. are twisted, and so used for making a kind of thread; hammocks made of which are highly valued. See ASTROCARYUM. The leaves of the Palmyra Palm and Talipot Palm are used in some parts of the east for writing upon, an iron style being employed instead of a pen. One of the kinds of the resinous substance called *Dragon's Blood* is obtained from the fruit of a palm. The Betel (q. v.) Nut, abounding in catechu, is the fruit of a palm. The fruit of many P. is very acrid. The ashes of the fruits of some American species are used by the Indians as a substitute for salt, probably on account of potash, or some salt of potash, which they contain; and such potash may be obtained from the stems and leaves of palms. Vegetable Ivory (q. v.) is the kernel of the fruit of a palm; and somewhat similar to it in quality is the Coquilla Nut (q. v.). But a complete enumeration of the uses to which P. and their products are applied is almost impossible.

Some of the more important species of P. are noticed in separate articles.

About five hundred species are known; but it is probable that many are still undescribed. The most complete work on P. is the monograph by Martius, "Genera et Species Palmarum" (8 vols., large folio, Munich, 1828—1845), a magnificent work, with 219 colored plates; but many new species have been discovered since its publication.

The cultivation of P. in hothouses is attended with great expense. Separate houses are devoted to them in a few gardens, of which the greatest is that at Kew. A very fine palm-house has been erected in the Botanic Garden of Edinburgh. P. are cultivated in hothouses merely as objects of interest, and for the gratification of a refined taste, never for the sake of their fruit or any other product.

PALMY'RA, the name given by the Greeks to a great and splendid city of Upper Syria. Its original Hebrew name was *Tadmor*, which, like the Greek word, means "city of palms." It was built, according to the writers of Kings (Book I. chap. ix.

verse 13) and *Chronicles* (Book II. chap. viii. verse 4), by Solomon in the 10th c. B.C.; but it is more probable that he only enlarged it. It occupied a fertile oasis, well watered, and abounding in palm-trees. Barren and naked mountains overlook it from the west, and to the east and south stretches the illimitable sandy desert. P. was, in the Solomonic age, a bulwark of the Hebrew kingdom against the wandering hordes of Beduins; but its early history is obscure and insignificant. After the fall of Scelencia, it became a great centre of commercial intercourse between the east and the west of Asia. Its commercial importance, wealth, and magnificence greatly increased after the time of Trajan, who subjected the whole country to the Roman empire. In the 3d c., Odenathus, a Syrian, founded here an empire, which, after his murder, rose to great prosperity under his wife, Zenobia (q. v.), and included both Syria and Mesopotamia; but this was not of long duration, for the Roman Emperor Aurelian conquered it in the year 275, and the city was soon after almost entirely destroyed in revenge for the slaughter of a Roman garrison. It never recovered from this blow, although Justinian fortified it anew. The Saracens destroyed it in 744. A village called Tedmor, inhabited by a few Arab families, now occupies the site. The ruins of the ancient city, white and dazzling in the Syrian sun, excite at a little distance the admiration of all beholders; but when examined in detail, they are said to be far from inspiring, though in regard to this latter point opinions differ. They were visited by English merchants resident at Aleppo in 1691, and again by Messrs Wood and Dawkins in 1761, and since then by a vast number of travellers. The ruins of a temple of Baal, the sun god, are, however, confessedly magnificent. The language of ancient Palmyrene appears, from inscriptions which remain, to have been an Aramaic language. See Murray's or Baedeker's "Handbook for Syria and Palestine;" Vogüé's "Syrie Centrale."

**PALMYRA PALM.** (*Borassus flabelliformis*), a species of palm with a magnificent crown of fan-shaped leaves, a native of the East Indies. The stem attains a height of 25–40, or even 60 feet, and tapers slightly upwards. The leaves are about four feet long, with stalks of about the same length, the stalks spiny at the edges; each leaf having 70–80 rays. The fruit is somewhat triangular, about the size of a child's head; having a thick, fibrous, and rather succulent yellowish-brown or glossy black rind, and containing three seeds each as large as a goose's egg. The P. P. is the most common palm of India, growing spontaneously in many districts, cultivated in others, and reaching as far north as lat. 30°. It is of slow growth; and the wood near the circumference of the stem in old trees is very hard, black, heavy, durable, susceptible of a high polish, and valuable, easily divided in a longitudinal direction, but very difficult to cut across. The P. P. abounds greatly in the north of Ceylon, forming extensive forests; and the timber is exported to the opposite coast of India, being of superior quality to that which is produced there. It is much used in house building. The stalks of the leaves are used for making fences, &c. The leaves are used for thatching houses; for making baskets, hats, mats, umbrellas, and large fans; and for writing upon. Their fibres are employed for making twine and small rope; they are about two feet long, and very wiry. A fine down found at the base of the leaf-stalks is used for straining liquids, and for staunching wounds. The P. P. yields palm-wine, and of course also arrack and sugar (jaggery). It furnishes great part of the palm-wine, sugar, and arrack of India. See ARRACK. The fruit is cooked in a great variety of ways, and used for food. The seeds are jelly-like, and palatable when young. A bland fixed oil is extracted from the fruit. The young plants, when a few inches high, are esteemed as a culinary vegetable, being boiled and eaten generally with a little of the kernel of the cocoa-nut; and sometimes they are dried and pounded into a kind of meal. Multitudes of the inhabitants of the north of Ceylon depend almost entirely on the P. P. for the supply of all their wants. In the "Palmyra Regions" of the Southern Dekkan vast numbers of the people subsist chiefly on the fruit of this palm.

The Doleb Palm (q. v.), so important to the inhabitants of Central Africa, is believed to be nearly allied to the Palmyra Palm.

**PALMYRA WOOD.** Properly this name applies only to the wood of the Palmyra palm (*Borassus flabelliformis*), but it is generally used for all kinds of palm-tree wood imported into this country, amongst which very much is the wood of the coco-nut palm, *Cocos nucifera*, and the allied species *C. plumosa*. These woods are also called *Speckled Wood* and *Porcupine Wood* by the dealers—the former name

being applied to those veneers cut transversely, and showing the ends of numerous black fibres mixed with the lighter-colored portions; and the latter to longitudinal sections, in which the mixed black and white fibres much resemble porcupines' quills.

PA'LO BLA'NCO (*Plotoria dicanthoides*), a large tree, a native of Chili, the wood of which is white, and very useful and durable. It is remarkable as one of the few large trees belonging to the natural order *Composite*.

PA'LO'LO, or Balolo (*Palolo viridis*), a dorsibranchiate annelid, allied to the Lung-worm, extremely abundant at certain seasons in the sea above and near the coral reefs which surround many of the South Sea Islands, as the Samoa Islands and the Fiji Islands. The body is cylindrical, slightly tapering at both ends, divided into nearly equal joints, each joint with a small tuft of gills on each side. In thickness, the P. resembles a very fine straw; it is about three inches long, generally of a greenish color, with a row of round black spots; but the color varies to red, brown, and white. These annelids make their appearance in great multitudes, apparently rising out of the coral reefs, and with a periodical regularity which is very remarkable. They are eagerly sought after by the islanders, who are on the watch for their appearance, and go out in canoes early in the morning to take them by means of nets; but they often occur in such numbers that the water seems to be full of them, and they may be grasped by handfuls. They are a delicacy of which the South Sea islanders are very fond. To prepare them for use, they are wrapped in bread-fruit leaves, and cooked for twelve or eighteen hours in an oven.

PA'LPI (from the Lat. *palpo*, I touch) are organs occurring in Insects, Crustaceans, and Arachnidians. In Insects, one or two pair of jointed appendages bearing this name are attached to the maxillæ, while one pair is attached to the labium; and in the higher Crustaceans, similar appendages are attached to the mandibles and foot-jaws. In both these classes, the palpi probably serve, through the sense of touch, to take cognizance of the qualities of the substances which are employed as food. In the Arachnidians, the palpi are attached to the maxillæ only; and vary exceedingly in form and functions. In the scorpions, for instance, they are extremely developed, and terminate in pincers which resemble the chelæ (or pincers) of crabs and lobsters; while in the spiders, they terminate in a single movable claw in the female, and in the male the last joint is dilated, and acts as an accessory generative organ.

PALPITA'TION is the term used to signify inordinately forcible pulsations of the heart, so as to make themselves felt, and frequently to give rise to a most troublesome and disagreeable sensation. It may be either functional or a symptom of organic disease of the heart. Here we shall merely consider it as a functional disorder. Although it may be persistent, it far more frequently comes on in paroxysms, which usually terminate within half an hour, recurring afterwards quite irregularly, sometimes daily or several times a day, and sometimes not till after a long interval. The attack often comes on under some mental or physical excitement, but sometimes when the patient is quite composed, or even asleep. If the paroxysm is a severe one, the heart feels as if bounding upwards into the throat; and there is a sensation of oppression over the cardiac region, with hurried or even difficult respiration. Excluding organic diseases, the causes of this affection are either (1) an abnormally excitable condition of the nerves of the heart, or (2) an unhealthy condition of the blood.

1. Amongst the causes of disturbed innervation may be especially noticed the abuse of tea (especially green tea), coffee, spirits, and tobacco. Any irritation of the stomach and intestinal canal may be reflected to the heart; and hence palpitation may frequently be traced to flatulence; undue acidity, and intestinal worms, especially tape-worms. Everything that causes pressure on the heart, such as tight lacing, abdominal dropsy, or an enlarged uterus, is also liable to occasion this affection.

2. If the blood is abnormally rich and stimulating it may give rise to palpitation, as in Plethora (q. v.); but the opposite condition, known as Anæmia (q. v.), is a much more common cause of this affection. In anæmia the blood is watery and deficient in fibrine, and (far more) in red corpuscles; and being thus in an unnatural state, it acts as an unnatural stimulant, and induces frequent, although not usually

strong pulsations. In cases of this kind, singular murmurs (not unlike those which are heard when we apply certain shells to the ear) are heard on applying the stethoscope to the neck over the course of the great jugular veins.

The age at which palpitation most usually comes on is from 15 to 25 years; and the affection—especially if it arise from anaemia—is very much more common in the female than in the male sex.

The treatment of palpitation must entirely depend upon its cause. The use of all nervous stimulants (tea, coffee, alcohol, and tobacco) should be suspended or abandoned. If the patient is clearly plethoric, with a full strong pulse, he should take saline cathartics, and live upon comparatively low diet (including little animal food) until this condition is removed. When, on the other hand, the palpitation is due to an anaemic condition, the remedies are preparations of iron, aloeetic purgatives, an abundance of animal food, bitter ale, the cold shower-bath, and exercise, short of producing positive fatigue, in a pure bracing air. In the paroxysms, relief will often be afforded by the administration of a diffusible stimulant, such as ammoniated tincture of valerian, aromatic spirit of ammonia, &c.

**PA'LSY.** See PARALYSIS.

**PA'LY.** See PALE.

**PA'MLICO SOUND**, a large bay on the coast of North Carolina, U. S., separated from the ocean by long, narrow islands of sand, an angle of the largest forming Cape Hatteras, and connected with the ocean by narrow passages, the chief of which is Ocracoke Inlet, and on the north with Albemarle Sound; it is 80 miles long, and from 10 to 80 miles wide, and receives the Neuse and Pamlico Rivers.

**PA'MPAS** (in the Quichua tongue, "a valley" or "plain") is a term employed in a general sense as a designation of Southern American plains, in contradistinction to the "prairies" of North America, and in this sense it is frequently employed by geographers. It is also used in Peru as a general designation of tracts of level land either on the coast or among the mountains, and in this sense occurs as a component of many proper names, being then transformed into *bamba*. The chief pampas in Peru are those of the Sacramento. But in its more special and proper signification, the word pampas is given to the immense and partly undulating plains bounded by the Rio Negro of Patagonia, the La Plata and Paraguay, and the base of the Cordilleras. These plains during the wet season afford abundant pasture to the many herds of wild oxen and horses which roam over them, but they become rapidly parched under the burning heat of the sun, except in the low-lying tracts, or along the banks of rivers. The most fertile of the pampas lie westwards towards the Cordilleras. From the rapid alternation of vigorous growth with parching drought, the growth of trees is impossible, and their place is accordingly supplied by sparse groups of stunted shrubs. The soil, which is in general poor, is a diluvium composed of sandy clay, and abounds in the bones of extinct mammals. Strips of waterless desert, known as *travegas*, stretch across the pampas; these *travegas* are destitute of all vegetation with the exception of a few bushes, and are markedly distinct in geological character. The soil of the pampas is more or less impregnated with salt, and saltpetre abounds in many places. The wild animals of the pampas are horse, oxen (both introduced by the Spaniards), mandus, and guanacos. The skins of the horses and oxen, and the flesh of the latter, form a most important item in the trade of this region. The half-white inhabitants of the pampas are called Guachos (q. v.). The whole area of the pampas has been estimated at about 1,500,000 square miles.

**PAMPAS GRASS** (*Gynandromorphum argenteum*), a grass which covers the *pampas* in the south of Brazil and more southern parts of South America, and has been introduced into Britain as an ornamental plant. It is quite hardy, and its tufts have a splendid appearance. The leaves are six or eight feet long, the ends hanging gracefully over; the flowering stems ten to fourteen feet high; the panicles of flowers silvery white, and from eighteen inches to two feet long. The herbage is too coarse to be of any agricultural value. The male and female flowers are on separate plants; in panicles; the spikelets 2-flowered, one floret stalked, and the other sessile; the palea of the female florets elongated, awn-shaped, and woolly.—Another

species of the same genus, *G. saccharoides*, also a Brazilian grass, yields a considerable quantity of sugar.

PAMPELUNA, or Pamplo'na, a fortified city of Spain, capital of Navarre, of which it is the key, occupies an eminence not commanded by any neighboring height, on the left bank of the Arga, a tributary of the Ebro, 111 m. n.n.w. of Zaragoza by railway, and 200 miles north-north-east of Madrid. The citadel, overlooking the river and commanding the plain, is a *regia ar pentagon*, each side being 1000 feet in extent, and is connected with the city by an esplanade or glacis. Magnificent views of the Pyrenees on the north are obtained from the citadel, and there are several very pleasant promenades. The *Cuenca* (plain) of P. is about 30 miles in circumference; and although the climate is somewhat chilly and damp, the gardens are fruitful and the meadows verdant. The city is well built and clean; water is brought from hills about nine miles distant, by means of an aqueduct built after the solid Roman style by Ventura Rodriguez, and a portion of which, 2300 feet in length, is supported on 97 arches, 35 feet in span, and 65 feet in height. The town contains a number of squares with fountains, a theatre, and the regular *plaza de toros*—bull arena—capable, it is said, of containing 10,000 people. Agriculture, the wine trade, and the manufacture of linens and leather are the only noteworthy branches of industry. Pop., before the ruinous Carlist blockade in 1874, about 23,000.

P. was called by the ancients *Pompeipolis*, from the circumstance of its having been rebuilt by the sons of Pompey in 65 B.C. It was taken by the Goths in 466, by the Franks under Childebert in 542, and again under Charlemagne in 778. It was subsequently for a time in possession of the Moor, who corrupted the name Pompeipolis into *Bambilonah*, whence the modern Pamplona. In later times it was seized by the French in 1804, and held by them till 1813, when it fell into the hands of the allies under the Duke of Wellington.

PAMPHLET (variously derived from Spanish *papela*, slip of paper on which anything is written, and *página plana*, threaded page), a small book consisting of a sheet of paper, or a few sheets stitched together, but not bound. It generally contains a short treatise on some subject, political or otherwise, which is exciting public attention at the time of its appearance. The word is of considerable antiquity, as it is to be met with in Chaucer; but it was not until about the middle of the 16th c. that pamphlets began to be of common use in political and religious controversy in England and France. Under the second French Empire, political pamphlets appeared from time to time which were generally believed to be written under imperial dictation, and either to speak the sentiments of the emperor, or to be feelers of public opinion.

PAMPHYLLIA, anciently a country on the south coast of Asia Minor, with Cilicia on the east and Lycia on the west. It was originally bounded on the inland or northern side by Mount Taurus, but afterwards enlarged, so as to reach the confines of Phrygia. P. is mountainous, was formerly well wooded, and had numerous maritime cities. The inhabitants—a mixed race of aborigines, Cilicians, and Greek colonists—spoke a language the basis of which was probably Greek, but which was disfigured and corrupted by the infusion of barbaric elements. Their coins shew that they had adopted to some extent the religion, arts, and manners of the Hellenic race. Its political history is unimportant. Along with Phrygia and Lycia it fell to the share of Antigonus on the partition of the Macedonian empire. It afterwards passed successively into the hands of the Greco-Syrian princes, the kings of Pergamus, and the Romans.

PAN, among the Greeks, the chief god of pastures, forests, and flocks. The later rationalising mythologists, misconceiving the meaning of his name, which they confounded with *to pan*, "the whole," or "the universe," whereas it is more probably connected with *paō* (Lat. *paxo*), "to feed," "to pasture," represented him as a personification of the universe, but there is absolutely nothing in the myth to warrant such a notion. Pan neither in his *genus* nor his history figures as one of the great principal deities, and his worship became general only at a comparatively late period. He was, according to the most common belief, a son of Hermes (Mercury) by the daughter of Dryops; or by Penelope, the wife of Ulysses; while other accounts make Penelope the mother, but Ulysses himself the father—though

The paternity of the god is also ascribed to the numerous wooers of Penelope in common. The original seat of his worship was the wild hilly and wooded solitudes of Arcadia, whence it gradually spread over the rest of Greece, but was not introduced into Athens until after the battle of Marathon. Homer does not mention him. From his very birth his appearance was peculiar. He came into the world with horns, a goat's beard, a crooked nose, pointed ears, a tail, and goat's feet; and so frightened his mother that she ran off for fear, but his father, Hermes, carried him to Olympus, where all the gods, especially Dionysus (Bacchus), were charmed with the little monster. When he grew up, he had a grim shaggy aspect, and a terrible voice, which bursting abruptly on the ear of the traveller in solitary places—for Pan was fond of making a great noise—inspired him with a sudden fear (whence the word *panic*). It is even related that the alarm excited by his blowing upon a shell decided the victory of the gods over the Titans. He was the patron of all persons occupied in the care of cattle and of bees, in hunting and in fishing. During the heat of the day he used to take a nap in the deep woods or on the lonely hillsides, and was exceedingly wroth if his slumber was disturbed by the halloo of the hunters. He is also represented as fond of music, and of dancing with the forest nymphs, and as the inventor of the syrinx or shepherd's flute, also called Pan's pipe. Cows, goats, lamb, milk, honey, and new wine were offered to him. The fir-tree was sacred to him, and he had sanctuaries and temples in various parts of Arcadia, at Troezen, at Sicyon, at Athens, &c. The Romans identified the Greek Pan with their own Italian god Faun, and sometimes also with Faunus. See FAUN.

When, after the establishment of Christianity, the heathen deities were degraded by the church into fallen angels, the characteristics of Pan—viz., the horns, the goat's beard, the pointed ears, the crooked nose, the tail, and the goat's feet—were transferred to the Devil himself, and thus the "Auld Hornie" of popular superstition is simply Pan in disguise.

PANAMA', a city and seaport of the republic of Colombia, in S. America, capital of the "state" of the same name, at the head of the Bay of Panama, on the southern shore of the isthmus of the same name, in lat.  $8^{\circ} 56' n.$ , long.  $79^{\circ} 31' w.$ . It occupies a tongue of land which extends some distance out to sea in shallow waters. The harbor is safe, but vessels of more than 50 tons burden cannot approach within two miles of the shore. Large vessels anchor at a distance of three miles, near the island of Perico. The important edifices of the city include a beautiful cathedral, a college, and several convents, all of which, however, are falling into decay. There is considerable trade with Europe in pearls, mother-of-pearl, shells, and gold-dust, obtained in the vicinity. P. is chiefly important, however, as the Pacific terminus of the Panama railway. This railway was completed in 1855, is about 48 miles in length, and connects P. on the Pacific with Aspinwall colony on the Atlantic. By means of it the route to California was much shortened, and mails were carried over it till the completion of the Pacific Railway. Pop. (1870) 18,378. The former city of P., the seat of the Spanish colonial government established in 1518, stood six miles n. e. of P. and is now a heap of ruins.

PANAMA, Isthmus of, is that portion of the narrow ridge of mountainous country connecting Central and South America, which is bounded on the w. by the frontier of Costa Rica, and on the e. by the surveyed inter-oceanic route from the Bay of Caledonia on the n. to the Gulf of San Miguel on the s. or Pacific side. It extends in long. from  $77^{\circ}$  to  $83^{\circ}$  w. The "State" of P., one of those which form the United States of Colombia, is co-extensive with the isthmus of the same name. Area, 29,756. Pop. (1870) 220,542. P. contains the provinces of Panama, Azuero, Chiriqui, and Veraguas. The Isthmus is traversed throughout by a chain of mountains, forming the barrier between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and of which the highest peak is that of Picacho (7200 feet) in the west. Numerous streams, the largest of which is the Tuira (162 miles long, and navigable for 102 miles), fall into both oceans. On the Pacific shore are numerous beautiful islands, among which Las Perlas, so called from their pearl fisheries, and the island of Coiba, are the chief. On the north coast, the principal harbors are the Chiriqui Lagoon, San Blas, and Caledonia; on the south shore, Damas in the island of Coiba, the Bay of San Miguel, and Golfo Dulce. Gold, which in ancient times was obtained here in great quantities, is still found, and mines of salt, copper, iron, coal,

&c., are worked. The climate is unhealthy, except in the interior and on the flanks of the mountains. Almost all the plants of the torrid zone may be raised here, but maize, rice, plantains, &c. (grown for the purpose of supplying the transit), are the chief crops. The total imports in 1872 amounted to £500,000, and the exports to the same value. The latter consisted of cotton, india-rubber, cloth and grass hammocks, grass (Panama) hats, matting, &c. Commerce is the chief employment.

In 1855 a railway across the Isthmus, from Aspinwall city on the Atlantic to Panama on the Pacific, was opened. The summit of the railway is 250 feet above the level of the sea; and the average value of the goods that annually pass over it is estimated at £11,000,000. The Isthmus has frequently been surveyed with the object of finding a route for an inter-oceanic canal. The name, Isthmus of P., is generally used as interchangeable with Isthmus of Darton (q. v.).

PANATHENEA, the most famous festival of Attica, celebrated at Athens in honor of Athene, patron goddess of the city, and intended to remind the people of Attica of their union into one community by the mythical Theseus. Before the time of Theseus, or—to speak more critically—before the formation of the Attic confederacy, this festival was only for the citizens of Athens, and was called simply *Athenaea*. According to tradition, the *Athenaea* owed its origin to King Erichthonius about 1506 or 1521 B.C. The later Panathenaea appears to have been a double festival. All writers who mention it, speak of a Lesser and Greater Panathenaea, the former held annually, the latter every fourth year. Both took place in the month *Hecatombaion* (July), and lasted several days. The Lesser Panathenaea was celebrated with gymnastic games, musical competitions, declamations, and a torch race in the evening, the whole concluding with the sacrifice of an ox. The prize of the victors was a vessel filled with oil from the sacred tree on the Acropolis. The Greater Panathenaea only differed from the Lesser in being more solemn and magnificent. Rhapsodists sang the Homeric poems; dramatic representations were given; and a splendid procession took place to the temple of Athene Polias, on the last day of the festival, to present the goddess with a *peplus* or embroidered robe, of crocus color, woven by the maidens (*ergastinai*) of the city. Not alone the Athenians, but the whole population of Attica poured forth on this occasion. The procession is grandly sculptured on the frieze of the Parthenon by Phidias and his disciples.

PA'NAX. See GINSENG.

PA'NCAKE. This article of food is prepared by pouring a rich batter of flour, eggs, and milk into a frying-pan, so as to cover it about half an inch in thickness; the pan having been previously heated, and well supplied with butter, lard, or olive oil. A quick fire is necessary to cook it well, and when the under side is done, a dexterous cook by jerking the frying-pan manages to reverse the cake, so as to bring the upper side downward to be cooked in its turn. It is now a common practice to make pancakes rather smaller than the bottom of the pan, and frequently to add minced apples and other materials to vary and flavor them; these are, however, better known under the name of Fritters.

This dish is particularly associated with Shrove Tuesday, but the origin of the connection is by no means clear. Perhaps it is the relic of a heathen custom. The Saxons called February, *Solmonath*, "which," says a writer in "Notes and Queries" (First Series, vol. v. p. 491), "Dr Frank Sayers, in his 'Disquisitions,' says is explained by Bede, 'Mensis Placentarum,' and rendered by Spelman, in an inedited MS., 'Pancake month,' because, in the course of it, pancakes were offered by the pagan Saxons to the sun."

PANCHATANTRA (literally, the five books) is the name of the celebrated Sanscrit fable-book of the Hindus whence the *Histopades'a* (q. v.) was compiled and enlarged. Its authorship is ascribed to a Brahman of the name of Vishnu's'arman, who, as its introduction in a later recension relates, had undertaken to instruct, within six months, the unruly sons of Amara's'akti, a king of Mahilāranya or Mihilāranya, in all branches of knowledge required by a king, and for this purpose composed this work. If the latter part of this story be true, it is more probable, however, as Professor Balfour assumes, that Vishnu's'arman was merely the teacher of the princea, and that the existing work itself was composed by some other personage; for an older recension of the work does not speak of his having brought his

tales into the shape of a work. The arrangement of the F. is quite similar to that of the "Hitopadre'a." The fables are narrated in prose, and the morals drawn from or connected with them are interwoven with the narrative in verse; many such verses, if not all, being quotations from older works.—On the history of the P., and its relation to the fable-books and fables of other nations, see the excellent work of Professor Theodor Benfey, "Panchatantra: fünf Bücher indischer Fabeln, Märchen und Erzählungen" (2 vols., Leip. 1859), the first volume containing his historical and critical researches on, and the latter his literal translation into German of the "Panchatantra."

**PANCREAS** (from the Gr. *pan*, all, and *kreas*, flesh) is a conglomerate gland, lying transversely across the posterior wall of the abdomen, varying in length from 6 to 8 inches, having a breadth of about an inch and a half, and a thickness of from half an inch to an inch. Its usual weight is about three ounces. The head of the pancreas lies in the concavity of the duodenum.

The secretion of this gland, or the pancreatic fluid, is conveyed from its various parts by means of the pancreatic duct to the duodenum. This gland is found in all mammals, birds, reptiles, amphioxians, and osseous fishes, and in some cartilaginous fishes.

The physical and chemical characters of the pancreatic fluid, and its uses in the animal economy, are sufficiently noticed in the article **DIGESTION**.

The diseases of the pancreas are few, and do not signify their existence by any very marked symptoms. The presence of undigested fat in the stools has been frequently observed in cases in which after death the pancreas has been found to be diseased; and if Bernard's views regarding the saponifying power of the pancreatic juice on fatty matters (described in the article already referred to) be correct, the reason why the fat should appear in the evacuations in these cases is sufficiently obvious. The most common form of disease is cancerous deposit in the head of the gland, which frequently induces jaundice by obstructing the common biliary duct near its opening. An accurate diagnosis of disease of this organ is extremely difficult, but fortunately is of comparatively little importance, as it cannot lead to efficient treatment: all that can be done in these cases being to palliate the most distressing symptoms.

The pancreas of ruminating animals is a favorite article of food under the name of sweetbread. That of the calf is most highly esteemed, but that of the lamb is often substituted for it. Dr Edward Smith questions whether the very high price often paid for calf's sweetbread is warranted by its nutritive qualities, or even by its flavor; although he allows that the flavor is perhaps the most delicate of any meat we are acquainted with. It is either boiled or fried. The thyroid and sublingual glands are also used as sweetbread.

**PANCOVA**, an active trading town of Austria, in the Servian military frontier, 70 miles south-south-west of Temesvar, and close to the mouth of the Tisza in the Danube, which is here a mile wide. It is a military station, contains several churches, a high school, and a quarantine establishment. Silk spinning, brandy distilling, and an active trade in cattle, pigs, and corn are carried on. Pop. (1869) 13,403.

**PANDA** (*Ailurus fulgens*), a quadruped of the family **Ursidae** (see BEAR), a native of the Himalaya, the only known species of its genus, which has a very short muzzle, small rounded ears, a moderately long tail, covered with long hair, semi-retractile claws. The P. is about the size of a large cat. It dwells chiefly in trees, preying much on birds, but it also eats small quadrupeds and large insects. It has a thick, fine, woolly covering, adapting it to a cold climate, concealed by long, soft, glistening, and richly colored hair, mostly chestnut brown, which passes into black on the sides and legs, and into white on the head. The P. is said to excel all other animals in the brilliancy of its fur, which, however, has not yet acquired any commercial value. The soles of the feet are thickly covered with woolly hair. The P. is also called *Wah* and *Chit-wa*, from a peculiar cry which it utters.

**PANDANACEÆ**, a natural order of endogenous plants, constituting a remarkable feature in the scenery of many tropical countries, but unknown in the colder regions of the globe. They are trees or bushes, often sending down adventitious roots, sometimes weak and decumbent, or climbing. There are two sections of the

order, one (*Pandanaceæ*) including the genera *Pandanus*, *Freycinetia*, &c., having long, simple, imbricated leaves, usually spiny on the back and margin, their base embracing the stem, their spiral arrangement often notably visible; the other (*Cyclanthaceæ*) containing the genera *Cyclanthus*, *Nipa* (q. v.), *Carludovicia*, *Phytelephas*, &c., having pinnate or fan-shaped leaves, and in general appearance much resembling palms, with which they have been often ranked. The two sections, however, are very similar in their flowers and fruit, in which they not a little resemble the humbler *Araceæ* and *Typhaceæ*. The flowers are mostly unisexual, naked, or with only a few scales, arranged on a spadix, and wholly covering it. The stamens are numerous; the ovaries usually clustered, one-celled, each crowned with a stigma; the fruit consists of fibrous, one-seeded drupes, collected or almost combined, or of berries with many seeds.—There are not quite 100 known species. Some are valuable for the fibre of their leaves, some for their edible fruit, &c. See SCREW PINE, KIEKIE, and NIPA. The unexpanded leaves of *Carludovicia pulinata* furnish the material of which *Panama hats* are made. The tree which yields VEGETABLE IVORY (q. v.) is another of the palm-like section of this order.

PAN'DAVAS, or the descendants of Pān'd'u (q. v.), is the name of the five princes whose contest for regal supremacy with their cousins, the Kurus, the sons of Dhritarāshṭra, forms the foundation of the narrative of the great epic poem, the "Mahābhārata" (q. v.). Their names are *Yudhiṣṭhīra*, *Bhīma*, *Arjuna*, *Nakula*, and *Sahadeva*—the former three being the sons of Pān'd'u, by one of his wives, Prīthī; and the latter two, by his other wife, Mādri. But though Pān'd'u is thus the recognised father of these princes, the legend of the "Mahābhārata" looks upon him, in truth, merely as their father by courtesy; for it relates that Yudhiṣṭhīra was the son of Dharmarā, the god of justice; Bhīma, of Vāyu, the god of wind; Arjuna, of Indra, the god of the firmament; and Nakula and Sahadeva, of the As'wins, the twin-sons of the sun.

PANDEC'S (Gr. *Pandecton*, all receiving; from *pan*, all, and *dechomai*, I receive), one of the celebrated legislative works of the Emperor Justinian (q. v.), called also by the name *Digestum*, or Digest. It was an attempt to form a complete system of law from the authoritative commentaries of the jurists upon the laws of Rome. The compilation of the Pandect was undertaken after that great collection of the laws themselves which is known as the Codex Justinianus. It was intrusted to the celebrated Tribonianus, who had already distinguished himself in the preparation of the Codex. Tribonianus formed a commission consisting of 17 members, who were occupied from the year 530 till 538 in examining, selecting, compressing, and systematising the authorities, consisting of upwards of 2000 treatises, whose interpretation of the ancient laws of Rome was from that time forward to be adopted with the authority of law. A period of ten years had been allowed them for the completion of their work; but so diligently did they prosecute it, that it was completed in less than one-third of the allotted time; and some idea of its extent may be formed from the fact that it contains upwards of 9000 separate extracts, selected according to subjects from the 2000 treatises referred to above.

The Pandects are divided into 50 Books, and also into 7 Parts, which correspond respectively with Books 1–4, 5–11, 12–19, 20–27, 28–35, 36–44, and 45–50. Of these divisions, however, the latter (into Parts) is seldom attended to in citations. Each Book is subdivided into Titles, under which are arranged the extracts from the various jurists, who are 39 in number, and are by some called the classical jurists, although other writers on Roman law confine that appellation to five of the number. Papinian, Paulus, Ulpian, Gaius (q. v.), and Modestinus. The extracts from these indeed constitute the bulk of the collection; those from Ulpian alone making one-third of the whole work, those from Paulus one-sixth, and those from Papinian one-twelfth. Other writers besides these 39 are cited, but only indirectly, i.e., when cited by the jurists whose works form the basis of the collection. The principle upon which the internal arrangement of the extracts from individual writers was made had long been a subject of controversy. The question seems now to be satisfactorily solved; but the details of the discussion would carry us beyond the prescribed limits. Of the execution of the work, it may be said that although not free from repetition (the same extracts occurring under different heads), and from occasional lapses of citation, and other inconsistencies, yet it deserves the very highest

commendation. In its relations to the history and literature of ancient Rome it is invaluable; and taken along with its necessary complement the Codex, it may justly be regarded (having been the basis of all the medieval legislation) as of the utmost value to the study of the principles not alone of Roman, but of all European law.

**PANDORA** (i. e., the "All-endowed"), according to Grecian myth, was the first woman on the earth. When Prometheus had stolen fire from Jupiter, Zeus instigated Hephaestus to make woman out of earth to bring vexation upon man by her graces. The gods endowed her with every gift necessary for this purpose, beauty, boldness, cunning, &c.; and Zeus sent her to Epimetheus, the brother of Prometheus, who forgot his brother's warning against receiving any gift from Zeus. A later form of the myth represents P. as possessing a vessel or box filled with winged blessings, which mankind would have continued to enjoy if curiosity had not prompted her to open it, when all the blessings flew out, except Hope.

**PANDOURN**, a people of Servian origin who lived scattered among the mountains of Hungary, near the village of Pandour in the county of Sobi. The name used to be applied to that portion of the light-armed infantry in the Austrian service which is raised in the Slavonian districts on the Turkish frontier. The P. originally fought under the orders of their own proper chief, who was called Harun-Basba, and rendered essential service to the Austrians during the Spanish War of Succession, and afterwards in the Seven Years' War. They originally fought after the fashion of the "free lances," and were a terror to the enemy whom they annoyed incessantly. Their appearance was exceedingly picturesque, being somewhat oriental in character, and their arms consisted of a musket, pistols, a Hungarian sabre, and two Turkish poinards. Their habits of brigandage and cruelty rendered them, however, as much a terror to the people they defended as to the enemy. Since 1750 they have been gradually put under a stricter discipline, and are now incorporated with the Austrian frontier regiments. The name is now obsolete.

**PĀN'DŪ**, literally, "white," is the name of the father of the Pān'd'avar (q. v.), and the brother of Dhr'itarāshī'tra. Although the elder of the two princes, he was rendered by his "pallor"—implying, perhaps, a kind of disease—incapable of succession, and therefore obliged to relinquish his claim to his brother. He retired to the Himalaya Mountains, where his sons were born, and where he died. His renunciation of the throne became thus the cause of contest between the Pān'd'avar, his sons, and the Kurus, or the sons of Dhr'itarāshī'tra.

**PANEL** (through Fr. from Lat. *pannus*, a piece of cloth or patch), a space or compartment of a wall, ceiling, woodwork, &c., enclosed by beams, mouldings, framing, and so forth. It is generally sunk under the plane of the surrounding styles. In woodwork, panels are thinner parts used to fill in strong framing, as in doors, shutters, &c. These are sometimes highly ornamented with tracery, shields, &c. In late Gothic architecture, the panel is very often carved into the "linen pattern." Paneling is a style of ornament greatly used in Elizabethan architecture. The ceilings and walls are covered with it, and every piece of furniture is cut up into panels of every variety or form. Panels are said to be "fielded" when the centre of the panel is raised with mouldings, &c.

**PANEL** (properly the slip or "pane" of parchment on which the names of the jurors are written) is, in the practice of the English law, used to denote the body or set of jurors, consisting of twelve men, who try a cause, civil or criminal. In Scotch criminal law, the prisoner is usually called the panel.

**PANGÉ LINGUA** (Lat. "Proclaim, O Tongue"), one of the most remarkable of the hymns of the Roman Breviary, and like its kindred hymn, "Lauda Sion," a most characteristic example as well of the medieval Latin versification as of that union of theology with asceticism, which a large class of these hymns present. The Pangé Lingua is a hymn in honor of the Eucharist, and belongs to the service of the Festival of Corpus Christi. It is from the pen of the great angelic doctor, Thomas Aquinas (q. v.), and consists of six strophes of verses in alternate rhyme. Besides its place in the office of the Breviary, this hymn forms part of the service called Benediction with the Blessed Sacrament, and is sung on all occasions of the exposition, procession, and other public acts of Eucharistic worship.

**PA'NGOLIN**, or *Pengolin*, a name sometimes extended to all the species of *Mantis* (q. v.), but originally belonging to *M. pentadactyla*, also called **SHORT-TAILED MANTIS**, and in some parts of India **BAJERKEIT**; this species being a native of most parts of the East Indies, and F., its Malayan name, derived from a word which signifies to roll up; the animal having the habit of rolling itself up, on apprehension of danger, into a compact ball, the head in the centre, and its muscular mail-covered tail enfolding all. The food of the P. consists chiefly of ants, and like the rest of the genus, it is entirely destitute of teeth, and has a round, extensile tongue. Its claws are long and strong; it doubles them up like the American ant-eaters when it walks. It resides in burrows, which it excavates to the depth of seven or eight feet in the ground. It is capable of climbing trees, and the tail is prehensile. The whole length of the animal, including the tail, is almost five feet, the tail being not quite half the length of the body. It is a gentle animal, easily tamed, and of an affectionate disposition.

**PANIC** is where fear, whether arising from an adequate or inadequate cause, obtains the mastery over every other consideration and motive, and urges to dastard extravagance, or hurries into danger, or death. An inexplicable sound causes a rush from a church, a vague report in the market-place causes a run on a bank, and precipitate the very events that are dreaded. This emotion either differs from natural apprehension, or presents so intense and uncontrollable a form of the feeling, that it is propagable from one person to another, and involves alike the educated and ignorant—those who act from judgment as well as those who act from impulse. There are, besides this feature, several grounds for believing that such manifestations of involuntary terror are of morbid origin, and should be regarded as moral epidemics. They have generally arisen during, or have followed, seasons of scarcity and physical want and disease, the ravages of war, or periods of great religious fervor and superstition. The dancing mania, the retreat of the French army from Moscow, and recent and familiar commercial panics afford illustrations of certain of these relations. The most notable instance of universal panic, and that which demonstrates most aptly the connection here indicated, is the dread of the approaching end of the world which pervaded all minds, and almost broke up human society in the 10th century. The empire of Charlemagne had fallen to pieces; public misfortune and civil discord merged into misery and famine so extreme that cannibalism prevailed even in Paris; superstitions and vague predictions became formalized into a prophecy of the end of all things and universal doom in the year 1000. This expectation suspended even vengeance and war. The "truce of God" was proclaimed. Enormous riches were placed upon the altars. Worship and praise never ceased. The fields were left uncultivated; serfs were set free; four kings and thousands of nobles retired to the cloister; and all men, according to their tendencies, prepared to die.

It is worthy of note that during all pestilences there have arisen epidemic terrors, not so much of the devastations of disease, as of plots, and poisonings directed by the rich against the poor. Even where these epidemic terrors are legitimately traceable to local and physical causes, as in the case of the singular affection *fimoria*, which occurs in the marshy and unhealthy districts in Sardinia, the trevor, and trepidation, and other phenomena, are ascribed to the magical influence of enemies. For the origin of the name, see PAN.

**PA'NICLE**, in Botany, a mode of Inflorescence (q. v.) in which the floral axis is not only divided, but also subdivided more or less frequently. The panicle may thus be regarded as a Raceme (q. v.), of which the branches (or flower-stalks) are branched. The panicle is a very common kind of inflorescence. Most of the grasses exhibit it, and many other plants, both endogenous and exogenous. The common lilac affords a good example of it. The panicle variously modified as to its form, and the arrangement and relative lengths of its branches and branchlets, becomes a Cyane (q. v.), Thyrus (q. v.), &c.

**PA'NICUM.** See MILLET.

**PĀNINI**, the greatest known grammarian of ancient India, whose work on the Sanscrit language has up to the present day remained the standard of Sanscrit grammar. Its merits are so great, that P. was ranked among the Rishis (q. v.), or inspired seers, and at a later period of Sanscrit literature, was supposed to have re-

ceived the fundamental rules of his work from the god S'iva himself. Of the personal history of P., nothing positive is known, except that he was a native of the village S'alatūra, situated north-west of Atrock, on the Indus—whence he is also surmised S'alatūrya—and that his mother was called Dākshi, wherefore, on his mother's side, he must have been a descendant of the celebrated family of Dakshin. A tale-book, the "Kathasārīgara" (i. e., the ocean for the rivers of tales), gives, indeed, some circumstantial account of the life and death of P.; but its narrative is so absurd, and the work itself of so modern a date—it was written in Cashmere, at the beginning of the 12th c.—that no credit whatever can be attached to the facts related by it, or to the inferences which modern scholars have drawn from them. According to the views expressed by Goldstücker ("Panini, his Place in Sanscrit Literature," London, 1861), it is probable that P. lived before Śākyamuni, the founder of the Buddhist religion, whose death took place about 548 B.C., but that a more definite date of the great grammarian has but little chance of ascertainment in the actual condition of Sanscrit philology.—The grammar of P. consists of eight Adhyāyas, or books, each book comprising four Pādas, or chapters, and each chapter a number of Sūtras (q. v.), or aphoristical rules. The latter amount in the whole to 3996; but three, perhaps four, of them did not originally belong to the work of Panini. The arrangement of these rules differs completely from what a European would expect in a grammatical work, for it is based on the principle of tracing linguistic phenomena, and not concerned in the classification of the linguistic material, according to the so-called parts of speech. A chapter, for instance, treating of a prolongation of vowels, will deal with such a fact wherever it occurs, be it in the formation of bases, or in conjugation, declension, composition, &c. The rules of conjugation, declension, &c., are, for the same reason, not to be met with in the same chapter or in the same order in which European grammars would teach them; nor would any single book or chapter, however apparently more systematically arranged—from a European point of view—such as the chapters on affixes or composition, suffice by itself to convey the full linguistic material concerned in it, apart from the rest of the work. In a general manner, P.'s work may therefore be called a natural history of the Sanscrit language, in the sense that it has the strict tendency of giving an accurate description of facts, instead of making such a description subservient to the theories according to which the linguistic material is usually distributed by European grammarians. Whatever objections may be raised against such an arrangement, the very fact of its differing from that in our grammars makes it peculiarly instructive to the European student, as it accustoms his mind to survey language from another point of view than that usually presented to him, and as it must induce him, too, to question the soundness of many linguistic theories now looked upon as axiomatic truths. As the method of P. requires in a student the power of combining many rules scattered all over the work, and of combining, also, many inferences to be drawn from these rules, it exercises, moreover, on the mind of the student an effect analogous to that which is supposed to be the peculiar advantage of the study of mathematics. The rules of P. were criticised and completed by Kātyāyana (q. v.), who, according to all probability, was the teacher, and therefore the contemporary, of Patanjali; and he, in his turn, was criticised by Patanjali (q. v.), who sides frequently with Panini. These three authors are the canonical triad of the grammarians of India; and their works are, in truth, so remarkable in their own department, that they exceed in literary merit nearly all, if not all, grammatical productions of other nations, so far as the two classes are comparable. The rules of P. were commented on by many authors. The best existing commentary on them is called the "Kāśikāvritti," by Vāmana Jayāditya, which follows these rules in their original order. At a later period, attempts were made to arrange the rules of P. in a manner which approaches more to the European method; the chief work of this category is the "Siddhānta-Kaumudi," by Bhārtrooja-dikṣhita. P. mentions, in his Sūtras, several grammarians who preceded him, amongst others, Śākatāyana. Manuscripts of a grammar ascribed to a grammarian of this name exist in the Library of the India Office in London, and in the Library of the Board of Examiners at Madras. On the ground of a few pages only of the latter an attempt has been very recently made to prove that this grammar is the one referred to by P., and therefore older than the work of the latter. But the facts adduced in

proof of this hypothesis are so ludicrously weak, and the reasoning upon them so feeble and inconclusive, whereas the evidence in favor of the comparatively recent date of this work is so strong, that no value whatever can be attached to this hasty hypothesis. For the present, therefore, P.'s work still remains the oldest existing grammatical work of India, and probably of the human race. The Sūtras of P., with a modern commentary by two native pandits, and with extracts from the "Vārttikas" of Kātyāyana and the "Mahābhāṣya" of Patañjali, were edited at Calcutta in 1809. This edition, together with the modern commentary, but with garbled extracts from the extracts mentioned, was reprinted at Bonn in 1839-1840 by Dr O. Boehltingk, who added to it remarks of his own and some indices.—For the literature connected with P., see Colebrooke's preface to his "Grammar of the Sanscrit Language" (Calc. 1808), and Goldstücker's "Pāṇini, &c., as mentioned above.

PANIPUT, the chief town of the district Kurmail in the division of Delhi, Punjab, is situated 54 miles (by road 78 miles) north by west from Delhi, in a fertile tract, the resources of which are largely developed by artificial irrigation. Pop. (1869) 25,276. Being a station on the great military road between Afghanistan and the Punjab, and to some extent an outpost of Delhi, it has been at various times the scene of strife between the inhabitants of India and invaders. The first great battle of P. was fought in 1526, and gained by Mirza Baber, the ex-ruler of Fergannah, at the head of 12,000 Mongols, over Ibrahim the emperor of Delhi, whose unwarlike array numbered 100,000 men, with 1000 elephants. This victory seated Baber on the throne of Hindustan as the first of the "Great Mogul" dynasty. The second great battle was fought, in 1558, by the Mongols under Akbar, grandson of Baber, and third of the Mogul emperors, against Hemu an Indian prince who had usurped the throne of Delhi. Hemu's army was defeated with great slaughter, and himself slain. The third battle was fought on the 14th of January 1761, between Ahmed Abdallī, ruler of Afghanistan, and the till then invincible Mahrattas. The Jats, who had been forced to join the Mahrattas, deserted to the Afghans at a time when victory seemed to be declaring for the former; and this act of treachery, together with the loss of their leaders, threw the Mahrattas into confusion, and in spite of their most resolute valor they suffered a total defeat. They left 50,000 slain on the field of battle, including all their leaders except Holkar, and 80,000 men were killed in the pursuit, which was continued for four days. The Mahrattas never recovered this crushing blow. It was at Kurmail, a town a little to the north of P., that Nadir Shah of Persia, in 1739, won the celebrated battle over the Mogul emperor, which placed North-Western India at his feet.

PANIZZI, Sir Antonio, principal librarian of the British Museum from 1836 to 1866, was born on 16th Sept. 1797, at Brescello, in the *et-devant* duchy of Modena. For his education he was sent first to the public school of Reggio, and afterward to the university of Padua, where, in 1818, he took the degree of Doctor of Laws, with a view to practising at the bar. Early in life his sympathies were enlisted on behalf of the friends of Italy, as opposed to domestic tyranny and foreign intrusion, and when, in 1821, the popular revolution broke out in Piedmont, the young advocate became one of its leaders. The attempt, however, failed; and P., who had been denounced by a pretended friend, was arrested at Cremona. Having by some means contrived to escape, he took refuge in Lugano, and from thence in a short time found his way to Geneva. Meanwhile, during his absence, he was tried at home *per contumaciam*, as it is called, and sentenced to death, with confiscation of property. Nor was he allowed to remain at Geneva. The governments of Austria and Sardinia demanded from the Swiss Confederation the expulsion of all concerned in the recent outbreak, and among these P. was obliged to depart. Forbidden to pass through France, he reached England by way of Germany and the Netherlands. He now resided for about a month in London, whence he proceeded to Liverpool, with an introduction from Ugo Foscolo to Roscoe the historian, who received him with the utmost hospitality. At Liverpool, where he was introduced into the best circles by Mr Roscoe, he taught Italian, and continued to reside in that town until 1828, when he came to London again, and was chosen professor of Italian in the university of London, just then opened for students. In 1831, through the instrumentality of Lord Brougham, he was appointed one of the assistant-librarians in the British Mu-

sem; and upon the retirement of the Rev. Mr Baber, in 1837, from the office of Keeper of the Printed Books, P. was appointed his successor. In the previous year there had been a parliamentary committee on the state of the British Museum before which P. gave valuable evidence, and likewise urged the adoption of measures for the improvement and augmentation of the library, which, upon becoming keeper, he was in a still better position to advocate. In 1838 he superintended the removal of the printed books from the old suite of rooms in Montague House to the new library; and in the same year, in conjunction with some of his assistants, he drew up the well-known 91 rules for the formation of a new catalogue of the library. These rules were approved by the trustees, and the first volume of a catalogue framed after them was printed and published in 1841. No other volume has been since published, and P., before a royal commission of inquiry into the Museum in 1847, justified the suspension of the printing until the whole catalogue should be finished. In 1845, P. drew up an elaborate report of the deficiencies existing in the library, in consequence of which the trustees applied to the Lords of the Treasury for "an annual grant of £10,000 for some years to come, for the purchase of books of all descriptions." This grant having been obtained, the library rapidly increased in numbers, to such a degree that in 1849 the books amounted to 485,000, as compared with 285,000, the ascertained number in 1838. The number of volumes is now estimated at between 600,000 and 700,000. Upon the resignation of Sir H. Ellis, in 1856, P. was appointed to the post of principal librarian of the British Museum, an office he held ten years. In a literary capacity, P. is known by an edition of the "Orlando Innamorato di Boiardo, and Orlando Furioso di Ariosto: with an Essay on the Romantic Narrative Poetry of the Italians, Memoirs and Notes, by A. Panizzi" (9 vols. Lond. 1880—1884). He has also edited the "Sonetti e Canzoni" of Boiardo (Lond. 1885), and a collection of reprints of the first four editions of the "Divina Commedia," printed at the expense of Lord Vernon (Lond. 1858). He is also the author of a privately-printed pamphlet, "Chi era Francesco da Bologna," tending to prove the identity of the type-founder employed by Aldus, and the inventor of the well-known Aldine or Italic type, with the painter Francesco Francia. P. is also understood to have written articles for some of the Quarterly Reviews. P. retired on a pension in 1866. In 1869, he received the order of K.C.B.

PA'NJIM. See GOA.

PA'NNAH, or Pu'mnah, a decayed town of India, in the district of Bundelcund, stands on the north-eastern slope of a plateau, 115 miles south-west of Allahabad. It was formerly a large, thriving, and well-built town; but whole streets are now desolate, or are tenanted only by monkeys, which, posted on the roof of at the windows, view the town's-people without alarm. The palace of the rajah is a beautiful building, surmounted by elegant kiosks, but is in many places ruinous. The source of the former prosperity of P. was its rich diamond mines. Owing to the diminished value of the gem, however, and the increased tax upon the produce of the mines, this branch of industry has much fallen off. The diamonds are generally tinted with color; very few of them being of first-water, or completely colorless. This town is the chief place of a territory of the same name, which is bounded on the north by the British district of Banda, and on the south by the British district of Nerudda. See BUNDELCOND.

PANELS, in Artillery, are the carriages upon which mortars and their beds are conveyed on a march.

PANNO'NIA, a province of the ancient Roman empire, bound on the n. and e. by the Danube, on the w. by the mountains of Noricum, and on the s. reaching a little way across the Save; and thus including part of modern Hungary, Slavonia, parts of Bosnia, of Croatia, and of Carinthia, Styria, and Lower Austria. It received its name from the Pannonians, a race of doubtful origin, but who at first dwelt in the country between the Dalmatian Mountains and the Save, in modern Bosnia, and afterwards more to the south-east in Moesia. The Roman arms were first turned against them and their neighbors, the Iapydes, by Augustus in 85 B.C., and after the conquest of Segestica or Siscia (Sisak) he subdued them. An insurrection took place in 12 B.C., which Tiberius crushed after a long struggle; and a more formidable one of the Dalmatians and Pannonians together in 6 A.D., which was sup-

pressed by Tiberius and Germanicus, but not till 8 A.D. Fifteen legions had to be assembled against the Pannonians, who mustered 200,000 warriors. Hereupon the Pannonians settled in the more northern countries, which received their name, and of which the former inhabitants, the Celtic Boii, had been in great part destroyed in Caesar's time. The country was now formed into a Roman province, which was secured against the invasions of the Marcomanni and Quadi by the Danube, and on its other frontiers had a line of fortresses. Military roads were constructed by the conquerors, who also planted in the country many colonies and inniciplia, and thus gave it a rough coating of civilization. Great numbers of the Pannonian youth were drafted into the Roman legions, and proved, when disciplined, among the bravest and most effective soldiers in the imperial army. P. was subsequently divided into Upper (or Western) and Lower (or Eastern) P., and under Galerius and Constantine underwent other changes. Upper Pannonia was the scene of the Marcomannic war in the 2d century. In the 5th c. it was transferred from the Western to the Eastern Empire, and afterwards given up to the Huns. After Attila's death, in 455, the Ostrogoths obtained possession of it. The Longobards under Alboin made themselves masters of it in 527, and relinquished it to the Avari upon commencing their expedition to Italy. Slavonian tribes also settled in the south. Charlemagne brought it under his sceptre. In the reigns of his successors, the Slavonians spread northward, and the country became a part of the great Moravian kingdom, till the Magyars or Hungarians took it in the end of the 9th century. In the time of the Romans, Siscia (Siszek), Vindobona (Vienna), Carnuntum (near Linzburg), and Arrabo (Raab) were among its principal towns.

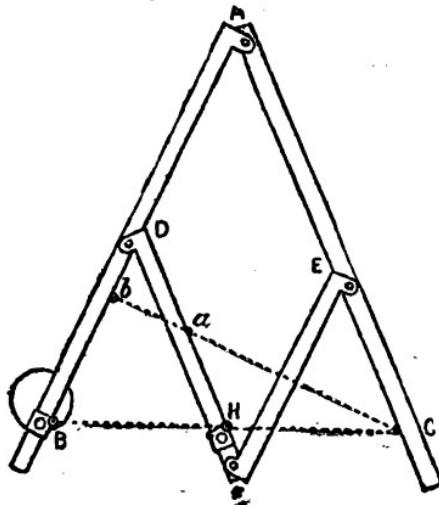
PANORA'MA (Gr. *pan*, all, *orama*, a view), a pictorial representation of the whole surrounding landscape as seen from one point. The invention of the panorama is claimed by the Germans for Professor Breitig of Danzig, but it does not appear that he ever constructed one. The real inventor was Mr Barker, an ingenious artist of Edinburgh, to whom the idea occurred while taking a sketch of the city from the top of Arthur Seat. After surmounting numerous difficulties—one of which was the invention of new kind of perspective for the horizontal lines—he succeeded in producing an effective panoramic view of Edinburgh, which was exhibited in that city in 1788, and in London the following year. The next panorama executed by Barker was a view of London from the top of the Albion Mills. A large building was now erected in Leicester Square for the exhibition of such views. On Mr Barker's death, in 1806, he was succeeded by his son, in partnership with a pupil, Burford, the painter of the chief modern panoramas. The first step in the construction of a panorama is to obtain sketches of the entire region to be represented; each sketch is a representation of a portion of the landscape in the form of a sector of a circle, with the sketcher's position as a centre, and the horizon for circumference. The canvas to which the sketches are to be transferred is hung round the sides of a circular room, and forms the surface of a cylinder, on the inside of which the panorama is painted. The canvas, brushes, &c., are of the finest description manufactured, and the painting and coloring are elaborated in the most careful manner, in order to render the optical illusion—which every one who has seen a good panorama must have experienced—as complete as possible. The stage from which the picture is viewed is placed in the centre of the room, about 90 feet on every side from the picture; the picture itself is fastened above to a strong circular hoop, and hanging down, has its lower edge fastened to a similar hoop, which is heavily weighted to keep the picture steady. The light is admitted by an aperture in the roof, which is concealed by an awning from the spectators on the stage. Notwithstanding important defects in the panorama, one of which is that the light more strongly illuminates the upper than the lower parts of the picture—thus throwing the foreground comparatively into shade—many cases are on record of spectators being for the time completely under the influence of mental illusion. One of the best instances of this occurred during the exhibition of the third panorama in London. Part of the view consisted of a representation of the wreck of a ship's boat, with sailors struggling in the waves; and at sight of this, a dog belonging to one of the spectators at once leaped over the handrail to the rescue of the supposed drowning men. Panoramas, though frequently exhibited in France, Germany, and other European countries, have met with little success out of Great Britain. The most popular panorama ever executed was that of the Battle of Waterloo, the exhibition of which

brought in ten thousand pounds. There are many modifications of the panorama, but that above described is the most important.

**PANSLAVISM.** This term is applied to the movement lately set on foot, and generally ascribed to Russian influence, for the amalgamation of all races of Slavonic descent into one body, having one language, one literature, and one social polity. The writings of Adam Gurowski and Kollar, and the anonymous pamphlet which appeared at Leipzig in 1837, under the title of "Die Europäische Pentarchie," have exercised a very widespread influence in this direction among all the Slavonic people of the German states; and although the other nations of Europe have hitherto had no reason to anticipate any practical results from a movement towards Panslavism, the Slavonians of the Austrian empire have always taken occasion to shew that they regarded themselves as standing apart from German interests in times of public disturbance. Thus, in 1848, instead of taking part with their fellow-citizens in the election of representatives to the German parliament at Frankfurt, the leading promoters of Panslavism summoned a Slavonic congress at Prague, which was attended by Slavonians from Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia, and by Slavonic Poles, Croats, Servians, and Dalmatians, who appeared in their national costumes. The impracticability of the grand schemes promulgated in the manifestoes of the conclave, had been sufficiently shewn ere the congress was interrupted by a democratic rebellion, which was suppressed with much bloodshed. Since 1860, when questions of nationality began to come more into the foreground, P. has exercised some direct influence on Austrian affairs; both northern and southern Slavs tending towards united action in opposition to the centralistic and dualistic aims of Germans and Magyars respectively. In 1867, a great Slavonic congress was held at Moscow, but the meeting had no direct result. Panslavistic tendencies contributed in some measure to the difficulties of Turkey in 1876.

**PANSY.** See VIOLET.

**PA'NTAGRAPH** (Gr. *panta*, all, *graphein*, to delineate), an instrument by the aid of which any engraving may be copied on paper, though its use is in practice restricted to the copying of maps and plans. The copy can be drawn to any scale.



The instrument consists of four rods, AB, AC, DF, and EF, jointed together as in the figure; the points D and E are so taken that AD is equal to EF, and AE to DF,

and consequently ADEF is always a parallelogram. If C be a determinate point near the end of the rod AE, and any line, CHB, be drawn cutting the other three rods, the triangles BAC and BDH are similar; so that when the point B is fixed, the points C and H, which can, from the structure of the instrument, move in any direction, will describe similar figures different in size; that described by C being to that described by H in the proportion of CB to HB. The practical working of the instrument is as follows: The points H and B are determined by the ratio BH to BC, which is the proportion the scale of the copy bears to that of the original; a socket, which slides along the arm, is fastened exactly at B on the mid-r side; below this is placed a heavy weight, with a stalk fitting into the socket, thus rendering B the centre of motion of the instrument, if the weight be heavy enough. A pencil is fitted into another socket at H, and a rod of metal with a sharp point, called the *tracer*, is fastened at C, and the instrument is fitted with castors at various points underneath, to allow of its being moved freely. The operator then passes the tracer over the outline to be copied, and simultaneously the pencil at H makes the copy on the required scale. If a copy on a scale nearly as large as the original be required, the fulcrum must be placed in DF, and the pencil in DB: while if a magnified copy be required, the pencil and tracer must exchange the positions assigned them in the first case. The defects of this instrument are its weight and the difficulty of rendering it perfectly mobile, both of which prevent that steady motion of the tracer which is necessary for making an accurate copy.

To remedy these defects, the pantograph has been constructed in a variety of forms, all of which, however, like the one described, depend upon the principle that the two triangles which have for their angular points the fulcrum, the pencil point and a joint, and the fulcrum the tracer point and a joint, must always preserve their similarity.

PANTELLO'RIA, a volcanic island in the Mediterranean, 36 miles in circumference, and lying 60 miles s. w. of the Sicilian coast. The chief products are wine, oil, cotton and fruit.

PANTHAYS. A Mohammedan community occupying the province of Yun-nan in the south-west of China, who asserted their independence in 1855. In 1859 they captured Taifoo, the second city of the province, and in 1863, the capital. Their leader Wen-soo (King Suleiman) established his authority over about 4,000,000 of people, of whom not above a tenth were Mohammedans. In 1863 the Chinese government recognised the independence of the P., and in 1872 their king sent his son Hassan on a mission to Europe. Meanwhile the Chinese again attacked the P., defeated them utterly, and finally suppressed their empire. P. is an anglicised form of *Pan-si*, the name by which the Mohammedans called themselves.

PA'NTHEISM (Gr. *pan*, all, and *theos*, God), the name given to that system of speculation which, in its spiritual form, identifies the universe with God (*akosmism*), and in its more material form, God with the universe. It is only the latter kind of pantheism that is logically open to the accusation of Atheism (q. v.); the former has often been the expression of a profound religiosity. The antiquity of pantheism is undoubtedly great, for it is prevalent in the oldest known civilisation in the world—the Hindu. Yet it is a later development of thought than Polytheism (q. v.), the natural instinctive creed of primitive races, and most probably originated in the attempt to divest the popular system of its grosser features, and to give it a form that would satisfy the requirements of philosophical speculation. Hindu pantheism or *akosmism* is taught especially by the Upanishads (q. v.), the Vedanta (q. v.), and Yoga (q. v.) philosophies, and by those poetical works which embody the doctrines of these systems; for instance, the Bhagavadgita, which follows the Yoga doctrine. It is poetical and religious, rather than scientific, at least in its phraseology; but it is substantially similar to the more logical forms developed in Europe. The Hindu thinker regards man as born into a world of illusions and entanglements, from which his great aim should be to deliver himself. Neither sense, nor reason, however, is capable of helping him; only through long continued, rigorous, and holy contemplation of the supreme unity (Brahma) can he become emancipated from the deceptive influence of phenomena, and fit to apprehend that he and they are alike but evanescent modes of existence assumed by that infinite, eternal, and unchangeable Spirit who is all in all. Hindu pantheism is thus purely spiritual in

its character; matter and (finite) mind are both alike absorbed in the fathomless abyss of infinite and absolute being.

Greek pantheism, though it doubtless originated in the same way as that of India, is at once more varied in its form, and more ratiocinative in its method of exposition. The philosophy of Anaximander (q. v.) the Milesian may almost, with equal accuracy, be described as a system of atheistic physics or of materialistic pantheism. Its leading idea is, that from the infinite or indeterminate (*to apeiron*), which is "one yet all," proceed the entire phenomena of the universe, and to it they return. Xenophanes (q. v.), however, the founder of the Eleatic school, and author of the famous metaphysical *mot*, *Ex nihilo, nihil fit*, is the first classical thinker who promulgated the higher or idealistic form of pantheism. Denying the possibility of creation, he argued that there exists only an eternal, infinite One or All, of which individual objects and existences are merely illusory modes of representation; but as Aristotle finely expresses it—and it is this last conception which gives to the pantheism of Xenophanes its distinctive character—"casting his eyes wistfully upon the whole heaven, i.e. pronounced that unity to be God." Heraclitus (q. v.), who flourished a century later, reverted to the material pantheism of the Ionic school, and appears to have held that the "All" first arrives at consciousness in man, whereas Xenophanes attributed to the same universal entity, intelligence, and self-existence, denying it only personality. But it is often extremely difficult, if not impossible, to draw or to see the distinction between the pantheism of the earlier Greek philosophers and sheer atheism. In general, however, we may affirm that the pantheism of the Eleatic school was penetrated by a religious sentiment, and tended to absorb the world in God, while that of the Ionic school was thoroughly materialistic, tended to absorb God in the world, and differed from atheism rather in name than in fact. But the most decided and the most spiritual representatives of this philosophy among the Greeks were the so-called "Alexandrian" *Neo-Platonists* (q. v.), in whom we see clearly, for the first time, the influence of the East upon Greek thought. The doctrines of Emanation, of Ecstasy, expounded by Plotinus (q. v.) and Proclus (q. v.), no less than the fantastic Demonism of Iamblichus (q. v.), point to Persia and India as their birthplace, and in fact differ from the mystic teaching of the Vedanta only by being presented in a more logical and intelligible form, and divested of the peculiar mythological allusions in which the philosophy of the latter is sometimes dressed up.

During the middle ages, speculation was, for the most part, held in with tight reins by the church, and in consequence we hear little of pantheism. Almost the only philosopher who advocated, or who even seems to have thought about it, is John Scotus Erigena (see ERIGENA), who was probably led to it by his study of the Alexandrine, but his speculations do not appear to have been thought by him incompatible with a Christian faith; and in point of fact there are several profoundly mystical expressions employed in the New Testament, especially in the Epistles of John, in which the soaring spirituality of Christianity culminates in language that has at least a pantheistic form; e.g., "God is love; and he that dwelleth in love dwelleth in God, and God in him." Erigena is regarded as the link that united ancient and modern pantheism. We find in him now a reflection of the East and of Greece, and now a foreshadowing of the doctrines of Schelling and Hegel. His opinions were, with some scholastic modifications, introduced, in the 12th and 13th centuries, into theology by Amalric or Amaury de Chartres (a disciple also of Abelard), and his pupil David de Dinant, who were condemned as heretics by a council held at Paris.

Modern pantheism first shews itself in Giordano Bruno (q. v.), burned at Rome for his opinions in 1600. In Bruno reappear the speculations of the Eleatics and of the Neo-Platonists, but with a still more definite recognition than we meet with in them of an absolutely perfect supreme spirit. The universe, in the eyes of the unfortunate Italian, is not, properly speaking, a creation, but only an emanation of the Infinite mind—the eternal expression of its infinite activity; and hence the Infinite mind penetrates and fills, with different degrees of consciousness, all the heights and depths of the universe. To see God everywhere, to realise that He alone is, and that all else is but a perishable phenomenon or passing illusion—that there is but one intelligence in God, man, beast, and what we call matter—this should be the aim of all true philosophy. Spinoza (q. v.) comes next among pantheists in the order of time, but he is perhaps the greatest, certainly the most rigorous and precise of the whole class.

that either the ancient or the modern world has seen. His system is based, like the geometry of Euclid, on certain definitions and axioms, and he claims to have given it as conclusive and mathematical a demonstration as the latter. None will deny the keenness and cogency of his ratiocination. But human beings will not be forced into pantheistic convictions by any mere logical gond, however sharp; and the system, impregnable as it seems, has never had a formal adherent. The principal result at which, after a long, firm-linked chain of reasoning, Spinoza arrives, is, that there is but one substance, infinite, self-existent, eternal, necessary, simple, and invisible, of which all else are but the modes. This substance is the self-existent God. To call Spinoza an atheist is ridiculous. The extravagant phrase of Schleiermacher, "a God-intoxicated man" (*ein gott-trunkener mann*), would be greatly nearer the truth, for no human system of philosophy whatever exhibits such an all-controlling and even overwhelming sense of the omnipresent God. Many critics have said that he was far more of an old Hebrew in his system than he dreamed. Although he had no direct followers, he exercised great influence on the development of metaphysical speculation in Germany, where, with the exception of Kant (q. v.), the three greatest philosophers of recent times—Fichte (q. v.), Schelling (q. v.), and Hegel (q. v.)—have all promulgated systems of a thorough pantheistic and ideal character. Neither England, France, nor America has produced a single great pantheistic philosopher (unless Mr. Emerson be regarded as such); but there is an immense amount of pantheistic sentiment floating about in the poetry, criticism, theology, and even in the speculative thinking, in these and all European countries in the present age. This is attributable to the ravages made by biblical criticism, and the progress of the physical sciences in this region of religious beliefs. Multitudes of men are puzzled what to think and what to believe. They do not like to face the fact that they have actually lost faith in revelation, and are no longer relying for help and guidance on the Spirit of God, but on the laws of nature; so they take refuge from the abhorred aspect of the naked truth that they are "atheists" in a cloud of rose-colored poetical phrases; which, if they mean anything, mean pantheism.

**PANTHE'ON**, a Greek or Roman temple dedicated to all the gods. The "Pantheon" of Rome now the church of Santa Maria Rotonda, is the only ancient edifice in Rome that has been perfectly preserved. The P. is lighted through one aperture in the centre of its magnificent dome. It was erected by Agrippa, son-in-law of Augustus, 27 B.C.

**PANTHER** (*Felis pardus*), one of the largest *Felidae*, now supposed to be identical with the Leopard (q. v.), or a mere variety of it, differing only in its larger size and deeper color. Cuvier distinguishes the P. from the leopard, but without stating any characters other than those of color. The name P. (vulg. "Painter") is given to the Puma in America.

**PANTHER**. In Heraldry, is borne gardant, and incensed, i. e., with fire issuing from his mouth and ears.

**PA'NTOMIME**, among the ancient Romans, denoted not a spectacle but a person. The pantomimes were a class of actors who (as the name implies) acted not by speaking, but wholly by mimicry—gesture, movements, and posturings—corresponding therefore pretty closely to the modern ballet-dancers. When they first made their appearance in Rome cannot be ascertained; probably the *histriones* (Etrusc. *Hister*, a dancer) brought from Etruria to Rome 364 B.C. were pantomimes; but the name does not once occur during the republic, though it is common enough from the very dawn of the empire. Augustus shewed great favor to this class of performers, and is consequently supposed by some writers to have been himself the inventor of the art of dumb acting. The most celebrated pantomimes of the Augustan age were Bathylins (a freedman of Maecenas), Pylades, and Hylas. The class soon spread over all Italy and the provinces, and became so popular with the Roman nobles and knights (who used to invite male and female performers to their houses to entertain their guests), that Tiberius reckoned it necessary to administer a check to their vanity, by issuing a decree forbidding the aristocracy to frequent their houses, or to be seen walking with them in the streets. Under Caligula they were again received into the imperial favor; and Nero, who carried every unwholesome weakness and vice to the extremity of caricature, himself acted as a pantomime.

From this period they enjoyed uninterrupted popularity as long as paganism held sway in the empire.

As the pantomimes wore masks, no facial mimicry was possible; everything depended on the movements of the body. It was the hands and fingers chiefly that spoke; hence the expressions, *manus loquacissima, digiti clamori*, &c. To such perfection was this art carried, that it is said the pantomimes could give a finer and more precise expression to passion and action than the poets themselves. The subjects thus represented in dumb show were always mythological, and consequently pretty well known to the spectators. The dress of the actors was made to reveal, and not to conceal the beauties of their person; and as, after the 2d c., women began to appear in public as pantomimes, the effect, as may easily be supposed, of the aesthetic costume was injurious to morality. Sometimes these pantomimic actresses even appeared quite naked before an audience—a thing which could never have happened had the Roman communities not become thoroughly base, sensual, and impure. It was quite natural, therefore, that pantomimic exhibitions should have been denounced by the early Christian writers, as they even were by pagan moralists like Juvenal.

Under HARLEQUIN is described the character of the modern pantomimes, which word denotes not the performers, but the pieces performed. A few additional facts are here given to complete that notice. The Christmas Pantomime, or Harlequinade, is, in its present shape, essentially a British entertainment, and was first introduced into this country by a dancing-master of Shrewsbury named Weaver, in 1702. One of his pantomimes, entitled "The Loves of Mars and Venus," met with great success. The arrival, in the year 1717, in London of a troupe of French pantomimists with performing dogs gave an impetus to this kind of drama, which was further developed in 1758 by the arrival of the Grimaldi family, the head of which was a posture-master and dentist. Under the auspices of this family, the art of producing pantomimes was greatly cultivated, and the entertainment much relished. Joseph Grimaldi, the son of the dentist, was clever at inventing tricks and devising machinery, and "Mother Goose," and others of his harlequinades, had an extended run. At that time the wit of the clown was the great feature; but by and by, as good clowns became scarce, other adjuncts were supplied, such as panoramas or dioramic views; and now the chief reliance of the manager is on scenic effects, large sums of money being lavished on the *mise en scène*. This is particularly the case as regards the transformation scene—i. e., the scene where the characters are changed into clown, harlequin, &c.—as much as £1000 being frequently spent on this one effort. In London alone, a sum of about £40,000 is annually expended at Christmas time on pantomimes. The "King of the Peacocks," a pantomime produced at the London Lyceum Theatre during the management of Madame Vestris, cost upwards of £3000. Even provincial theatres, such as those of Manchester or Edinburgh, consider it right to go to considerable expense in the production of their Christmas pantomimes.

PA'OLI, Pascal, a famous Corsican patriot, was born in 1726, at Morosaglia, in Corsica. His father, having taken a leading part in the unsuccessful insurrection of the islanders against the Genoese and their French allies, was obliged to retire to Naples in 1739, taking his son with him. Here P. received an excellent education. In July 1755, he was summoned by the supreme magistracy to Corsica, and was elected captain-general of the island, and the chief of a democratic government, possessing all the power of a king, but without the title. He energetically and successfully applied himself to the reformation of the barbarous laws and customs of the island, and at the same time to the expulsion of the Genoese, who, notwithstanding the aid they received from an influential section of the islanders, were deprived of nearly all their strongholds, their fleet was defeated, and they were finally obliged to seek help from France. After the withdrawal of the French troops, they were again speedily deprived of the places they had recaptured, and in 1768 they ceded the island to France. P. refused all the advantageous offers by which the French government sought to bribe him, as he had before refused those of the Genoese, and continued to struggle for the independence of his country, but he was signally defeated by the Comte de Vaux, at the head of the French troops, and the French became masters of the island. After one year's struggle, P. was compelled to take refuge on board of a British frigate, in which he sailed for England, where

he was treated with general sympathy. Twenty years afterwards, the French revolution of 1789 recalled him to Corsica, and as a zealous republican he entered into the schemes of the revolutionary party; but during the anarchy of France in 1792-1793, he conceived a scheme for making Corsica an independent republic. Until this time he had been on the best terms with the Bonaparte family, but they now joined the Jacobin party whilst he allied himself with Britain, favored the landing of 2000 British troops in the island in 1794, and joined them in driving out the French. He then surrendered the island to George III., but becoming dissatisfied with the government, he quarrelled with the British viceroy, whilst many of his countrymen were displeased with the course he had adopted in allying himself with the British. He therefore retired from the island in 1796, and spent the remainder of his life in the neighborhood of London. P. died near London, February 5, 1807.

PA'PA, a large market-town in the west of Hungary, stands in a beautiful district on the Tapolcza; an affluent of the Marczal, 60 miles south-south-east of Presburg. It contains a stately castle, with a beautiful garden, handsome Catholic and Lutheran churches, a Catholic gymnasium, Reformed college, and an hospital. Stone-ware, cloth, and pipes are manufactured, and a trade in wine is carried on. Pop. (1869) 14,223.

PAPA, the Latin form of the title now, in the Western Church, given exclusively to the Bishop of Rome. Originally, however, meaning simply "father," it was given indiscriminately to all bishops. Tertullian (*De Pudicitia*, cxlii.) so employs it. Dionysius, a priest of Alexandria, calls his bishop Papa Heraclias. St Cyprian, in the letters of his clergy, is addressed *Beatisissimo Papae Cypriano*. The same form is employed towards him by the clergy of Rome itself. Even Arius so addresses his own bishop Alexander. In the next century, St. Jerome addresses the same title to Athanasius, to Epiphanius, and most of all to Augustine. Indeed it would appear certain that down to the time of Gregory of Tours it was used not uncommonly of bishops in the Western Church. And there are evidences of its being occasionally applied to the inferior clergy, for whom, however, some adjunct was employed, in order to distinguish them from bishops. Thus, we sometimes read of *papa pisinii*, minor popes; and the tonsure was called by the name *papa letra*. In the Greek Church, as is well known, whether in Greece Proper or in Russia, papa is the common appellation of the clergy. The circumstance of its having been originally of general application, is acknowledged by all learned Roman Catholic controversialists and historians.

PA'PACY. See POPES.

PAPAL STATES (Italian, *STATI DELLA CHIESA*, or *STATI PONTIFICI*), a territory, or rather group of states in Central Italy, formerly united into one sovereignty, with the pope for its head. It was of an irregular form, resembling the letter Z, the upper portion lying to the east of the Apennines, the lower to the west of that range, these two being connected by a third strip, which crossed the peninsula from east to west. The P. S. were bounded on the n. by the Po, on the s. by Naples, on the e. by the Gulf of Venice and Nuples, and on the w. by Modena, Tuscany, and the Tyrrhenian Sea. Detached portions, as Benevento and Pontecorvo, lay within the Neapolitan territory. The country is traversed by the Apennines, which attain their highest elevation in the Monte della Sibilla, which is about 7402 feet above sea-level. Owing to this range, which traverses the peninsula in the direction of its length, lying so much nearer the east than the west coast, the streams to the east of it have a short course and little volume, being, in fact, mere mountain torrents; while on the west side a few of the rivers are of considerable size. Of the latter, the Tiber (q. v.) is the largest. The eastern coast is bold and rugged, and destitute of proper harbors, that of Ancona alone excepted; toward the north, at the mouth of the Po, it gradually subsides into a low, level, marshy tract, with numerous lagunes. The country west of the Apennines is traversed by ranges of hills parallel to them, and gradually decreasing in elevation as they approach the sea. The coast itself is almost wholly flat, sandy, or marshy, with no deep bays and few good harbors besides Civita Vecchia. There are numerous small lakes, principally in the northern portion of the country, the chief of which are Lake Bolsena, Lake Perugia, and Lake Bracciano, the last an old crater, situated almost 1000 feet above sea-level.

The country was divided for administrative purposes into 20 districts, as follows:

**1 Comarca**, including Rome and the Agro Romano; **6 Legations**, Bologna, Ferrara, Forlì, Ravenna, Urbino, Velletri; and **18 Delegations**, Ancona, Ascoli, Benevento, Camerino, Civita Vecchia, Fermo, Frosinone, Macerata, Orvieto, Perugia, Spoleto, Rioli, Viterbo; with a total area of 15,774 English square miles, and a population of above 3,000,000. The Legations of Bologna, Ferrara, Forlì, and Ravenna constituted the *Romagna*; Spoleto and Perugia were known as *Umbria*; and Ancona, Fermo, Macerata, and Ascoli constituted the *March of Ancona*. The inhabitants, with the exception of 16,000 Jews, were of Italian race, and of the Roman Catholic religion. The only provinces which latterly remained under the papal rule were, Rome with the Comarca, the legation of Velletri, and the delegations of Civita Vecchia, Frosinone (excepting Pontecorvo), and Viterbo, with a total area of 4498 English square miles, and a population of about 700,000. The chief cities and towns in the territory were, Rome (the capital), Viterbo, Velletri, Alatri, and Civita Vecchia.

**Climate and Products.**—The climate of the P. S. is one of the finest in the world, and the heat of summer is tempered by the mild and cooling sea-breezes; but in the flats south of the Po and in the Campagna of Rome, the noxious atmosphere produced by the exhalations from the marshes is most destructive of human life. Fever and ague are very prevalent among the inhabitants of the neighboring districts, and notwithstanding the attempts to remedy the deadly influence of the marshes by drainage and cultivation, it has hitherto been undiminished (see **MAREMMA**). Violent siroccos are occasionally experienced on the west coast. The northern portion, from its elevation, is exposed to severe cold during winter. The soil of the P. S. is in general extremely fertile; but the higher mountain districts are either quite barren, or only adapted for pasture; and not more than one-third of the whole surface is under cultivation. The practice of agriculture is in its most primitive state, notwithstanding the fact that agriculture, as a science, originated here, and was practised for many centuries before it was introduced into the other countries of Europe; but the many political changes and revolutions which have convulsed the country, have acted as a bar to all enterprise. It must, however, be mentioned, that the present pope has, by salutary enactments, and by the establishment of agricultural societies, done much for the improvement of this branch of industry. The products are similar to those of the rest of Italy. The manufactures are comparatively unimportant—silk-, woollens, and leather are the chief; but plate-glass, rope, sailcloth, cotton goods, paper, artificial flowers, wax-candles, soap, stoneware, &c., are also manufactured in various places. The fisheries are important. The chief minerals are alum, vitriol, saltpetre, sulphur, coal, rock-salt, marble, and alabaster.

Many of the manufactured goods, and wine, olive oil, wool, hemp, tobacco, bread-stuffs, catgut, &c., were exported, the total exports amounting to about £2,600,000, while the imports reached nearly £14,000,000. The statistics were latterly very unreliable, but the fact that the P. S. are now no more, renders details of trade under pontifical rule a matter of little importance. Indeed, no information on such topics was issued under the latest years of the political power of the pope.

**Government.**—The pope possessed absolute and unlimited power, but the members of the college of cardinals, who elected him, generally kept the chief offices of state in their own hands, and assisted the pope in the government of his states, as well as in the affairs of the church. The secretary of state was at the head of political affairs, and was nominated by the pope. He presided over both the ministerial council and the council of state. The former council, which consisted of five or more ministers, heads of departments, selected by the pope, had a voice in legislation, and also the right of authoritative interpretation of the laws; the latter, which consisted of thirteen members, also nominated by the pope, had, in matters of legislation and finance, only the right of giving advice; but it settled any question of competency that might arise between the various branches of the administration. After 1850, there was also a separate *finanz-consulta* for the regulation of financial affairs. The Comarca, which was more directly under the central government, was ruled by a cardinal-president; the Legation was ruled by a cardinal-legate, aided by a provincial chamber of deputies. There were civil and criminal courts in all the provinces, minor courts in the communes, with courts of appeal in all the chief

cities, and a central tribunal at Rome. All the proceedings of these courts were public, except trials for political offences.

The papal army, which formerly amounted to 20,000 men, in June 1863, numbered only 8513 men, infantry, cavalry, artillery, &c. included, and a considerable portion of the papal territory was garrisoned by French troops, without whose aid the pope's power could not have been maintained.

The income and expenditure for 1859, the last year of the entirety of the P. S., were respectively 14,453,828 scudi (£8,126,028), and 15,019,846 scudi (£3,248,039); but the three succeeding years shewed a widely different result; the expenses being largely increased by the cost of the war, while from the rebellious provinces scarcely any taxes were collected. The income and expenditures for these three years were nearly as follows:

|           | Expenditure.        | Income.    |
|-----------|---------------------|------------|
| 1860..... | £4,720 80 <i>t.</i> | £1,716,658 |
| 1861..... | 4,291,644.....      | 1,716,658  |
| 1862..... | 2,145,822.....      | 1,072,911  |

The finances continued in the same deplorable condition, and the national debt amounted to about £17,000,000. The tax known as "Peter's pence," which was collected from all the Roman Catholic countries, had produced at the beginning of 1863 about £1,080,000.

*History.*—During the rule of the Goths and Lombards in Italy, the inhabitants of Rome and all who desired to live free from the barbarian yoke, feeling that the Greek empire was incapable of protecting them, and at the same time observing the pertinacity and energy with which the pope asserted the importance and dignity of Rome, naturally looked up to him as in some sort a protector; and it is to the gradual growth and spread of this feeling that the important position subsequently taken by the popes as authorities in temporal matters is chiefly due. About 730 A.D., Gregory III., having quarrelled with the Emperor Leo the Isaurian, declared the independence of Rome. In 726, Pepin le Bref compelled the Lombard king to hand over Ravenna, Rimini, Pesaro, Fano, Cesena, Urbino, Forlì, Comacchio, and fifteen other towns to the pope, who now assumed the state of a temporal sovereign. Pepin's example was followed by his son Charlemagne; but, notwithstanding the pope's sovereignty was more nominal than real, as the towns were not in his possession, and he only obtained a small share of their revenues. In the 11th c., the Normans greatly aided to increase the papal temporal authority, and in 1053 the duchy of Benevento was annexed. In 1102, the Countess Matilda of Tuscany left to the pope her fiefs of Parma, Mantua, Modena, and Tuscany; but these were immediately seized by the German emperor, and of this magnificent bequest only a few estates came into the pope's hands. Between this period and the end of the 13th c., the popes succeeded, often by unscrupulous means, in obtaining from many of the free towns of Italy an acknowledgment of the superiority of the Roman see over them; and in 1278 the Emperor Rodolf I. confirmed the popes in the acquisitions thus obtained, defined authoritatively the boundaries of the P. S., and acknowledged the pope's exclusive authority over them, by absolving their inhabitants from their oath of allegiance to the empire. The P. S. at this time included Perugia, Bologna, Bertinoro, the Duchy of Spoleto, the Exarchy of Ravenna, and the March of Ancona; but many of the towns were either republics or hereditary principalities, and in none did the pope possess real authority. Sixtus IV., in the end of the 15th c., managed to annex the Romagna to his dominions; in effecting which he is accused of having employed intrigue, perjury, and murder. His successors, Alexander VI. and Julius II., increased the P. S. by the addition of Pesaro, Rimini, Fenuza, Parma, Placentia, and Reggio. By the victory of the French at Marignan (1515), the very existence of the papal power was threatened; but the able policy of Leo X. averted the threatened danger. In 1545, Paul III. alienated Parma and Placentia, and erected them into a duchy for his son, Pietro-Luigi Farnese; but this loss was partly made up by the acquisitions of Gregory XIII. In 1598, the possessions of the House of Este, viz., Ferrara, Comacchio, and a part of the Romagna, were seized by Pope Clement VIII., and the P. S. received their final additions in Urbino (1628), Ronciglione, and the duchy of Castro (1660). The Romagna was seized by Napoleon in 1797, and incorporated in

the Cisalpine Republic; and in the following year, Rome was taken by the French, and the P. S. erected into the *Roman Republic*. Pius VII., in 1800, obtained possession of his states, but they were almost immediately retaken by the French, and finally (1809) incorporated with France, Rome being reckoned the second city of the empire. In 1814, the pope returned to his dominions, and was formally reinstated by the treaty of Vienna, mainly through the exertions of the *non-Roman Catholic* powers, Russia, Prussia, and Britain; but the clerical misgovernment contrasted so strongly with the liberal administration of France, that in 1830 the people of Ancona and Bologna rose in rebellion. They were put down by the aid of an Austrian army, but the abuses in the administration were so flagrant, that even Austria urged the necessity for reform. Her remonstrances, however, were not attended to, and the Bolognese again rebelled. This second revolt supplied Austria with a pretext for occupying the northern Legations, and the French at the same time garrisoned Ancona. Occasional risings took place from time to time up to 1846, when pope Pius IX. assumed the tiara, and burst upon the astonished world in the new character of a reforming pope. His projects were of a most liberal character, and were put in force with great energy, despite the opposition of Austria; but, alarmed at the spread of revolution in Europe during 1848, he halted in his career, just at the critical moment when to halt was to be lost. The people rose, and Pius IX. fled to Gaeta, whilst Rome was proclaimed a republic. He was restored, and his subjects reduced to submission, by the arms of France, Austria, Naples, and Spain. The Austrians held the Legations in subjection to the pope's authority till 1859; and the French occupied Rome in his behalf for ten years more. In July 1859, the four northern Legations (the Romagna), taking advantage of the withdrawal of the Austrian troops, quietly threw off the papal authority, and proclaimed their annexation to Sardinia, which was formally acknowledged by Victor Emmanuel in March 1860. The pope now raised a large body of troops, appointing Lamoricière, an eminent French general, to command them, for the purpose of resisting any further encroachments on his dominions; but the news of Garibaldi's success in Sicily and Naples produced revolt in the Legations of Urbino and in the Marches, the people proclaiming Victor Emmanuel. The Sardinians accordingly marched into the P. S., defeated Lamorcière in two encounters, and finally compelled him to retire into Ancona, where, after a siege of seven days, he was compelled to surrender with his whole army. The revolted provinces of Umbria, Urbino, and the Marches were immediately annexed to Sardinia; and the isolated provinces of Benevento and Pontecorvo (a part of Frostone), which were situated within the kingdom of Naples, shared the same fate. In October, 1870, the French having withdrawn, the remnant of the P. S. voted for annexation to the kingdom of Italy.

PAPAVERACEÆ, a natural order of exogenous plants, herbaceous or half shrubby, usually with a milky or colored juice. The leaves are alternate, without stipules; the flowers on long one-flowered stalks. The fruit is pod-shaped or capsular; the seeds numerous. The order is distinguished for narcotic properties. Opium (q. v.) is its most important product. The juice of Celandine (q. v.) is very acrid. A number of species are used in their native countries for medicinal purposes. The seeds yield fixed oil, which, with the exception of that obtained from *Argemone Mexicana*, is quite bland. See POPPY. The flowers of many species are large and showy, most frequently white or yellow, sometimes red. Several kinds of poppy and *Eschscholtzia* are frequent in our gardens. There are in all about 130 known species, natives of all quarters of the world, and of tropical and temperate climates, but they abound most of all in Europe.

PAPAW' (*Carica Papaya*), a South American tree of the natural order *Papayaceæ*—of which order about 30 species are known—which has now been introduced into many tropical and subtropical countries. It grows to the height of 15–80 feet, with leaves only at the top, where also the fruit grows close to the stem. The leaves are 20–80 inches long. The fruit is of a green color, very similar in appearance to a small melon, and with a somewhat similar flavor. It is eaten either raw or boiled. The seeds are round and black, and when chewed, have in a high degree the pungency of cresses. The powdered seeds and the juice of the unripe fruit are most powerful anthelmintics. A constituent of this juice is *Fibrine*, otherwise unknown in the vegetable kingdom, except in the Fungi. The milky juice of the tree is very

acid. The leaves are used by negroes instead of soap to wash linen. The juice of the fruit and the sap of the tree have the singular property of rendering the toughest meat tender in a short time. Even the exhalations from the tree have this property; and joints of meat, fowls, &c., are hung among its branches to prepare them for the table. It is a tree of extremely rapid growth, bears fruit all the year, and is exceedingly prolific. The fruit is often cooked in various ways.—The *Chamburu* (*C. digitata*), another species of the same genus, a native of Brazil, is remarkable for the extremely acid and poisonous character of its juice, and the disgusting stercoaceous odor of its flowers.—In the middle and southern states of America the name P. is given to the *Uvaria* (or *Astinalia*) *triloba*, a small tree of the natural order *Anonaceæ*, the fruit of which, a large oval berry, three inches long, is eaten by negroes, but not generally relished by others. All parts of the plant have a rank smell.

PA'PENBURG, a small town of Hanover, in the bailiwick of Osnabrück, on a canal navigable for sea-going vessels, 27 miles south-south-east of Emden, on Dollart Bay, by the Emden and Hanover Railway. It originated in a small colony which sprung up here, and was supported principally by peat-cutting, an employment for which the fens and moors of the vicinity afford abundant facilities. The town is cleanly built, after the Dutch model; its houses stretch along the banks of the canal. It possessed, in 1874, 188 ships, and carries on manufactures of sailcloth and ropes. Its commerce is considerable. Pop. (1871) 6077.

PAPER. This well-known fabric is usually composed of vegetable fibres minutely divided and recombined in thin sheets, either by simple drying in contact, or with the addition of size or some other adhesive material. Probably the earliest use of paper was for the purpose of writing upon, and its earliest form was the *Papyrus* (q. v.) of the Egyptians. The stems of the *Papyrus* plant, which are often eight or ten feet long, are soft and green, externally like the common rush; and the interior consists of a compact cellular tissue or pith. At the bottom of each stem the portion immersed in the mud and water is whiter and more compact; and under the outer skin a number of thin pellicles lie one above the other. These were removed, and laid side by side with their edges overlapping each other, and crosswise upon these was placed one or more similar layers, until the sheet was sufficiently thick; pressure was then applied for a time, and afterwards the sheet was dried in the sun. The width of such sheets, of course, depended upon the length of the portion of *papyrus* stems taken; but they could be made any length by joining a number of the squares end to end by glue or any other adhesive material. The *scapus*, or roll, usually consisted of about 20 of them.

Owing to the fact that the various layers of the *papyrus* decrease in thickness as they are nearer to the centre of the stem, the makers were enabled to produce papers of different qualities; and in the time of the Romans many varieties were known, which differed as to the quality of the material, and the size of the pieces of which the sheets were composed. The finest quality was made from the innermost layer of membrane, and was called *Hieratica*, or paper of the priests. This was made for the Egyptian priests, who interdicted its sale until covered with sacred writing. In this state it was, however, an article of trade, and the Romans found a means of removing the writing, and sold the palimpsest sheets in Rome under the name of *Augustus* paper, used as a Latin equivalent for its former Greek name of *hieratica*. It was, however, supposed by many that it was named after the Emperor Augustus, and in consequence a second quality was called after his wife, *Livinia*; and the original name of the first quality came in time to be applied to the third quality. The next quality was called *Xmphiltheatrica*, it is supposed, from its having been made in the vicinity of the Alexandrian amphitheatre. This last, when imported to Rome, was partly remanufactured by Q. Remmius Fannius Palaenon, the schoolmaster and paper-maker, who, by a peculiar process of his own, reduced its thickness, and rendered it equal to the first quality, when it was sold under the name of *Fanniana*. There were other inferior qualities, of which one called *Emporetica* was used as shop-paper.

Pliny, from whom we get these very interesting particulars, tells us that all these kinds were manufactured in Egypt, and required the Nile water for their formation. He says, that "when it is in a muddy state it has the peculiar qualities of glue, and the various kinds of paper are made on a table where they are moistened with this water. The leaves or sheets of membrane are laid upon it lengthwise, as long in-

deed as the papyrus will admit of, the jagged edges being cut off at either end; after which a cross layer is placed over: the same way, in fact, that bundles are made. When this is done, the leaves are pressed together, and dried in the sun." The idea of the adhesive quality of the Nile water is erroneous, but it is very probable the Egyptian manufacturers encouraged the error. It is obvious the whole merit consisted in using the membranes fresh, whilst their own natural gum was in proper condition to make them adhere together.

In India and China, the art of writing with a style or sharp point upon dried palm and other leaves, and also some kinds of bark, is common even at the present day, especially in Ceylon, where we find it common to employ the leaves of the salpig, and other palms as paper. Perhaps it was from the employment of these materials, or it is even possible from watching the operations of the paper-making wasps and other insects, that the manufacture of larger pieces, by pulping the materials and spreading them out to a greater extent, was suggested. Whatever was the true origin of the art, it is now lost in the vista of time.

It is known that the Chinese were acquainted with the art of making paper from pulp artificially prepared as early as the commencement of the Christian era; and it is thought that they used the bark of various trees, the soft parts of bamboo stems, and cotton. In the 7th c., the Arabians learned the art of making it of cotton from the Chinese, and the first manufactory was established, about 706 A.D., at Samarcand. From thence it was transplanted to Spain, where, under the Moors, paper was made not only of cotton, but it is thought also of hemp and flax. The exact time of the introduction of paper made of linen rags is very uncertain; but the best evidence is offered by the Arabian physician Abdollatiph, who writes, in an account of his visit to Egypt in the year 1200, "that the cloth found in the catacombs, and used to envelop mummies, was made into garments, or sold to the scribes to *make paper for shopkeepers*;" and as there is no doubt that these mummy-cloths were linen, it proves that the use of this material is of no mean antiquity. Of the use of linen rags in Europe, the earliest proof is in the celebrated document found by Ichwander in the monastery of Goss, in Upper Styria, which purports to be a mandate of Frederick II., emperor of the Romans, and is dated 1242. It is written on paper which has been proved to be made of linen. The practice of making a distinctive water-mark on the paper, by means of an impression on the fine sieve of threads or wires upon which the floating pulp is received, was also of very early date, as MSS. as old as the 13th c. bear it. But there is really no satisfactory information respecting the exact time or place of the introduction of paper-making into Europe; by some it is supposed that Spain was the first to receive the art, and that thence it spread to France and Holland, and afterwards to England. It is quite certain that England was a long time behind these countries. As a proof of this, we find that the first patent for paper-making was taken out in 1665, by one Charles Hildeyerd, but it was for "The way and art of making blew paper used by sugar-bakers and others." The second was in 1675, by Eustace Barneby, for "The art and skill of making all sorts of white paper for the use of writing and printing, being a new manufacture, and never practised in any way in any of our kingdoms or dominions." This, then, was the first commencement of the making of writing and printing paper; but that it did not equal the manufacture of other countries is shewn by the specification of another patent, taken out by John Briscoe in the year 1686, which is thus expressed: "The true art and way for making English paper for writing, printing, and other uses, both as good and as serviceable in all respects, and especially as white as any French or Dutch paper." As a general rule, it was the custom of paper-makers to employ linen rags for fine papers, but a great variety of other materials have been in use from its first introduction; for, as early as 1680, Nathaniel Bladen took out a patent for "An engine method and mill, whereby hemp, flax, linnen, cotton, cordage, silke, woollen, and all sorts of materials" might be made into paper and pasteboard; and from that time innumerable efforts have been made to prepare other materials than cotton and linen rags for the manufacture of paper. The following is a summary of the patents which have been taken out in Britain for making paper from various materials, with the dates, which will shew to those engaged in this investigation in what directions the inquiry has been previously conducted. The arrangement is alphabetical, and consequently not in the order of dates.

The following are Materials, Names of Inventors, and Dates of Patents:  
Aloe Fibre, Berry, 1833; D'Harcourt, 1838; Small, 1838; May, 1852; Burke, 1855.

- Asbestos, Mamiere, 1853.**  
**Bagging or Sacking, Stiff, 1853; Wheeler and Co., 1854; Rossiter and Co., 1854;**  
 Smith and Co., 1855.  
**Banana Fibre, Berry, 1838; Lilly, 1854; Jullion, 1855; Burke, 1855; Hook, 1857.**  
**Barks of various kinds, Koops, 1800; Balmano, 1838; Nerot, 1846; Couper, 1852;**  
 Johnson, 1855; Kelk, 1855; Lotteri, 1855; Niven, 1856; Broad, 1857; Hope  
 and Co., 1857.  
**Bass or Bass, Ruck and Touche, 1856; Touche, 1857.**  
**Bean-stalks, &c., D'Harcourt, 1838; Broome, 1855.**  
**Cane (Sugar), Berry, 1838; Couper, 1852; Johnson, 1855; Jullion, 1855; Ruck and**  
 Touche, 1856; Hook, 1857.  
**Cocoa-nut Fibre, Newton, 1852; Holt and Forster, 1854.**  
**Cocoa-nut Kernel, Diaper, 1854.**  
**Clover, Coupland, 1854; Holt and Fraser, 1854; Plunkett, 1857.**  
**Cotton, Bladen, 1632; Williams, 1833; Couper, 1852; Crossley, 1854; Siblet, 1857.**  
**Dung, Jones, 1805; Zander, 1839; Lloyd, 1852; Hill, 1854.**  
**E-rapto or Alfa, Routledge, 1866.**  
**Flax, Bladen, 1632; Koops, 1800; Jones, 1805; Ball, 1817; Berry, 1833; Gibba, 1833;**  
 De la Garde, 1825; Couper, 1852; Collins, 1858; Pownal, 1852; Coupland,  
 1854; Broad, 1857.  
**Flax, New Zealand, Berry, 1838; Gibba, 1833 and 1857; Gilman, 1854.**  
**Fresh-water Weeds, Archer, 1856.**  
**Fur, Williams, 1833.**  
**Grasses, Stiff, 1853; Evans, 1854; Clift, 1854; Coupland, 1854; Jeyer, 1854; Cross-  
 ley, 1854; Jackson, 1854; Johnson, 1855; Fraser, 1855; Gilbee, 1855; Holt  
 and Fraser, 1854; Pariset, 1856.**  
**Gutta-percha, Hancock, 1846.**  
**Hair, Williams, 1838.**  
**Hay, Koops, 1800; Castelain, 1854; Pariset, 1856.**  
**Heath, Cro-sley, 1854.**  
**Hemp, Bladen, 1632; Hooper, 1790; Koops, 1800; De la Garde, 1825; Gibba, 1833;**  
 Couper, 1852; Collins, 1858; Bargnano, 1833; Jackson, 1854; Helin, 1854;  
 Broad, 1857; Ball, 1817.  
**Hops and Hop-lines, De la Garde, 1825; D'Harcourt, 1838; Balmano, 1838;**  
 M'Guarau, 1839; Sheldon, 1843; Barling, 1854; Crossley, 1854; Holt und  
 Fraser, 1854; Taylor, 1854; Broad, 1857; Plunkett, 1857.  
**Husks of Grain, Wilkinson, 1832.**  
**Jute, Calvert, 1846; Nerot, 1846; Couper, 1852; Hulin, 1854; Jackson, 1854; Smith  
 and Hollingworth, 1855.**  
**Leather, Hooper, 1790; Trappes, 1854; Ocka, 1856; Van den Hout, 1856; Lichten-  
 stadt, 1857.**  
**Leaves, Balmano, 1638; Warner, 1853; Vivien, 1853; Johnson, 1855; Möll, 1855;**  
 Ruck and Touche, 1857.  
**Maize, Husk, and Stems, D'Harcourt, 1838; Balmano, 1838; Ruck and Touche,**  
 1857.  
**Manilla Hemp or Plantain Fibre, Newton, 1852.**  
**Moss, Neshitt, 1824; Bellford, 1854; Johnson, 1855.**  
**Nettles, Jones, 1805; De la Garde, 1825; Clift, 1854.**  
**Old Writing Paper, Koops, 1800.**  
**P-a Stalk, D'Harcourt, 1838.**  
**Peat or Turf, Ley, 1852; Clarke, 1853; Lallemande, 1863; Crossley, 1854; Hemming,  
 1857; Westerman, 1852.**  
**Roots of various kinds, Balmano, 1838; De la Bertoche, 1855; Johnson, 1855; Ack-  
 land, 1854; Barling, 1855; Dubus, 1857.**  
**Sawdust, Wilkinson, 1852; Johnson, 1855.**  
**Saw-wood, Martenois de Martonoi, 1855; Archer, 1855.**  
**Silk, Binden, 1632; Bull, 1817; Williams, 1833.**  
**Straw, Koops, 1800; Lambert, 1824; Zander, 1839; Couper, 1852; Stiff, 1853; Poo'e,  
 1853; Helin, 1854; Fraser, 1855; Chanchard, 1853; Castelain, 1854; Broad, 1857;**  
 Wheeler, 1857.

Tan (Spent Bark), Crossley, 1854; Jeyer, 1854; Holt and Forster, 1854; Horton, 1855; Rossiter and Bishop, 1854.

Thistle-down, Bellford, 1854.

Thistles, Koops, 1850; Lord Berridale, 1854; Lillie, 1854.

Tobacco-stalks, Adecock, 1854.

Wood, Kops, 1851; Desgrand, 1853; Brooman, 1853; Swindells, 1854; Newton, 1852; Johnson, 1855; Kelk, 1855; Martin, 1855; Predeval, 1855; De Frontur, 1855; Chanchard, 1856; Amyot, 1856; Newton (Voeher), 1857; Poisat, 1857; Coupler, 1852.

Wool, Bladen, 1682; Williams, 1853; Dickenson, 1857; Crossley, 1854.

Wreath Grass or Zostera, Spooner, 1857.

But whatever the material employed, the process for nearly all is the same. The rags, bark, fibres, or other substance, have to be reduced with water into a fine smooth pulp. This, in the early stages of the manufacture, was accomplished by macerating and boiling the material, until, in the case of bark, fibres, or other raw material, the fibres could be drawn out from the cellulose matter, after which it was beaten with mallets, or with pestles in mortars, or stampers moved by sole power. Water is generally used, but in Holland wind-mills do this work. The beating is continued until the material is reduced to a very smooth pulp. The pulping, in our machine paper-mills, is much more rapidly accomplished by boiling the linen or cotton rags, or other material, in a strong lye of caustic alkali. This effectually cleans the rags, and other vegetable fibres are softened and separated in a remarkable manner by it; they are then put into a machine called the washing-machine, which washes out dirt and everything but the pure vegetable fibre. This machine is a large cast-iron vessel, usually about 10 feet in length,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  feet in width, and  $2\frac{1}{2}$  feet in depth. In the middle, occupying about two-thirds of its length, is a partition, always cast with it, called the mid-feather, to support the axle or driving shaft. This turns the cylinder which has a large number of teeth or ridges running across it, which grip and tear the rags, or other materials, as they are drawn under it by the current formed by its revolutions. In order to facilitate this, a peculiar form is given to the bottom of the part in which the cylinder works. The rice is called the back-fall, and the materials are drawn up to, and through the narrow space by the current; then, as they pass over the ridged surface, they come in contact with the ridged surface of the cylinder, and are thus violently ground and drawn through, the streams carrying them round and round until they are thoroughly washed and partly pulped; or, as it is technically called, *broken in*. The washing-machine is supplied with a continued flow of clean water, and the soiled water as regularly escapes through a fine gauge screen, in the ends of the cylinders, in which is an ingenious arrangement for raising it and carrying it away through the axis, which is hollow. The contents of the washing-machine are then allowed to flow out through a large valve, opening downwards into the draining-chest. Here the water is drained away, and the stuff is then placed in the bleaching vats, which are made of stone, and each calculated to contain a hundredweight of stuff, which is here submitted to the action of a strong solution of chloride of lime for about twenty-four hours, and frequently agitated; after which it is transferred to a hydraulic press, and pressed so as to remove the greater portion of the liquid and chloride of lime. It is then placed in another washing-engine, and for an hour is submitted to the same process as in the first; by which all vestiges of the bleaching materials are removed, and the stuff so much more broken down as to be called *half-stuff*. From this engine it is let out by valve, and finds its way into the *beating-engine*, which is placed at a lower level so as to receive it. Here the arrangement is nearly the same as in the washing and intermediate engines; but the ridges on the bars below the cylinder, and on the cylinder itself, are much sharper, and the disintegration of the fibres is carried on with great rapidity until they are quite separated; and the flow of water in a rapid current, as it passes the cylinder, draws them out and arranges them in the water in much the same way as wool or cotton is laid on the carding-cylinders of a carding-machine. This operation takes about five hours, at the end of which time the materials have been worked up with the water into an almost impalpable pulp. This is then let out into the pulp vat, where it is kept continually agitated by a wooden wheel revolving in it, called a *hog*, and from this the hand-workman or machine is supplied.

We will now suppose the pulp formed and ready for use in the vat, and will first describe the process of hand-making, as formerly practised in all countries, and still in use, more or less, in all paper-making countries. The workman or vatman takes an implement called a *mould*, which consists of a sheet of very fine net-work, attached to a frame. In Europe this net-work was always made of very fine wire; but in India, China, and Japan it is usually made of fine fibres of bamboo, which the workmen of these countries split and weave with remarkable skill. There are usually two kinds of moulds employed. In one the wires are woven across each other, forming a very fine gauze, and paper made with them is known as *wove*. In the other, there are several cross-bars in the frame, and straight wires are laid from side to side, and about four or five to each half sheet are laid across them lengthwise, to keep them in position; the transverse wires are about twenty to the inch; the longitudinal ones are a little more than an inch apart. Paper made on such moulds is called *laid*, and is easily known by the impression of the wires upon it. Whichever kind of mould is used, another implement called the *deckle* is required. It is a thin frame, which exactly corresponds to the frame of the mould, and the workman first places the deckle on the mould, and then dips them into the pulp; the deckle forms a ridge which retains just enough of the liquid pulp for the sheet of paper. The water of the pulp speedily drains through the wire gauze, and after it has stood in an inclined position for a few minutes, another workman, called the *coucher*, applies the face of the sheet of pulp to a piece of felt or flannel cloth stretched on a board, called the *couch*, and the sheet thus pressed, leaves the mould, and is left on the *couch*. Every successive sheet is similarly treated, and they are piled one on another, with a sheet of felt between each, until from four to eight quires, or a *post*, as it is called, is formed. Each post is put in a press, and under pressure parts with nearly all the moisture in the sheets of paper. The felts are then removed, and after several pressings, and other minor operations, the paper is hung on hair ropes, called *tribbles*, in the drying-loft; and when dried, resembles blotting-paper, and cannot be written upon. This is remedied by dipping it in a weak solution of hot size, sometimes tinged with color, after which it is pressed, dried, folded, and made up into quires. Hot pressing and glazing are done by passing the sheets through hot and polished iron rollers.

In Britain very little paper is now made by hand, the paper-machine having changed the character of the manufacture. It is usually stated that Louis Robert, a Frenchman, invented the paper-machine, and that it was brought to this country by Didot of Paris in an imperfect state, but received improvements from Fourdrinier. But it must not be overlooked that Braimah took out a patent in 1805, rather more than a year before Fourdrinier, for very similar improvements to those described in Fourdrinier's specification. The object of all was to cause an equal supply of the pulp to flow upon an endless wire gauze apron, which would revolve and carry on the paper until it is received on an endless sheet of felt, passing around and between large couching cylinders. These machines have now been brought to such perfection, that paper can be made in one continuous web of any length; and before leaving the machine, is sized, dried, calendered, hot-pressed, and cut into sheets. Different engineers have contrived variations of construction in the paper-machine, but the general principles of all are the same. The machine which was exhibited by Mr George Bertram of Edinburgh, was universally acknowledged to be by far the most complete and perfect which was presented in the International Exhibition of 1862. Since then no very important improvements have been made in the main part of the machine, but the drying portion has been greatly extended.

The principle of the machine is very simple; it contains a pulp vat, with a hog or wheel inside to agitate the pulp, and an arrangement for pouring the pulp over the wire-gauze mould, which instead of being in single squares, as in the hand-process, is an endless sheet moving round two rollers, which keep it stretched out and revolving when in operation. Under the part which receives the pulp there is a series of small brass rollers, these, being nearly close together, keep it perfectly level, which is a most necessary condition; besides which, there is a shallow trough, called the *sieve*, which catches and retains the water, which always escapes with some pulp in suspension; and an arrangement of suction boxes and tubes, worked by air-pumps, which draw much of the water out as the pulp passes over them. The pulp

is kept from running over the sides by straps called the *deckles*, which are also endless bands, usually of vulcanised India-rubber, carried round moving rollers, so that they travel with the wire-gauze, and therefore offer no resistance to it. In addition to all this, the frame-work on which the surface of the wire-gauze rests has a shogging motion, or side-shake, which has an important effect in working the fibres together before the pulp finally settles down. When it reaches the *couching-rolls*, which press out most of the remaining moisture, and carry it forward to the first and second series of press-rolls by means of an endless web of felt which passes round them, the speed of these rollers and the travelling sheet of felt is nicely calculated, so as to prevent a strain upon the still very tender web of paper. Sometimes the upper rollers of these two series are filled with steam, in order to commence drying the web. The paper is now trusted to itself, and passes on from the second press-rolls to the first set of *drying cylinders*, where it again meets with a felt sheet, which keeps it in close contact with the drying cylinders, which are of large size, and filled with steam. Around these it passes, drying as it goes; is then received between the two *smoothing-rolls*, or damp calenders, which press both surfaces, and remove the marks of the wire and felt, which are until then visible on the paper. This is necessarily done before the drying is quite completed; and from the smoothing-rolls it passes to the second series of drying cylinders, where the drying is finished, and thence to the calenders, which are polished rollers of hard cast-iron, so adjusted as to give a considerable pressure to the paper, and at the same time a glossiness of surface. For writing-papers, the paper passes through a shallow trough of size after leaving the drying cylinders, and then passes over another series of skeleton cylinders, with fans moving inside, by which it is again dried without heat, and afterwards passes through the calenders. Printing and other papers are usually sized by mixing the size in the pulp, in which stage the coloring materials—such as ultramarine for the blue tint of foolscap—are also introduced. Still following the paper web, it is seen to pass from the calenders to another machine; this slits the web into widths, which are again cross cut into sheets, the size of which is regulated at will. The water-mark is impressed on machine-made paper by means of a fine light-wire cylinder with a wire-woven pattern; this is placed over the wire-gauze sheet upon which the pulp is spread, but near the other end of it, so that the light impression of the marker may act upon the paper just when it ceases to be pulp, and this remains all through its course. There are many other interesting points about the paper-machine, but their introduction here would rather tend to confuse the reader. Its productive power is very great; it moves at a rate of from 30 to 70 feet per minute, spreading pulp, couching, drying, and calendering as it goes, so that the stream of pulp flowing in at one end is in two minutes passing out finished paper at the other. It has been computed that an ordinary machine, making webs of paper 54 inches wide, will turn out four miles a day, and that the total production of all the mills in Britain is not less than 6,000,000 of yards, or 3400 miles daily.

For very obvious reasons, the manufacture of paper has been localised on the banks of streams that afford an abundant supply of pure water for washing and pulping. Kent is celebrated for its paper-mills and for the fine quality of its paper, and is the chief county in this respect. Next follow Hertfordshire, (where it was first commenced in England in 1490 by John Tate of Stevenage, of whom it is said in a book printed by Caxton,

Which late hath in England doo make thya paper thynne,  
That now in our Englyssh thys booke is printed iine;

and the same John Tate is mentioned in Henry VII.'s Household Book, under dates May 26, 1498 and 1499, "for a rewarde geven at the paper-myln," and "geven in rewarde to Tate of the mylne, 6s. 8d."), Buckinghamshire, Oxfordshire, and Lancashire. It was introduced into Scotland, in the year 1695, when a company was formed for carrying it on under "Articles" signed at a general meeting held in Edinburgh, which articles are now in the Library of the British Museum. It has become a very important branch of manufacture; and not only is paper of a very fine quality made from rags and the new material Esparto, Alfa, or Spanish Grass (the *Lygeum Sparteum* of botanists), but also the manufacture of paper-machines is carried on most successfully both for foreign and home use. Both of these manu-

factories are carried on in the immediate neighborhood of Edinburgh. Since the introduction of the penny postage, penny paper, and other economical measures, especially the abolition of the excise-duty, an enormous impetus has been given to this branch of our home-manufacture, and considerable difficulty has been found in supplying the makers with raw material; this difficulty has been much increased by the export duties laid by other countries upon the export of rags. The greatest relief has been experienced by improved methods for preparing paper pulp from straw, and from the introduction of the Esparto, which yields half its weight of paper. Of this material our imports have risen to 140,000 tons per annum, which represents 75,000 tons of paper. The imports of rags, notwithstanding the foreign impediments, are also very large. During the five years ending in 1875, they were as follows : 1871, 26,868 tons ; 1872, 22,254 tons ; 1873, 16,151 tons ; 1874, 17,282 tons ; and 1875, 15,879. In 1863, the import of rags was as high as 45,448 tons. Judging from good data, this manufacture has more than trebled since the abolition of the paper-duty, at which time it was very nearly 100,000 tons, a quantity so vast, that it will remove all surprise at the difficulty of supplying the raw materials.

The following are the principal varieties of ordinary paper, and the sizes of the sheets given in inches :

1. *Writing and Printing Papers*.—Pot (so named from its original water-mark, a tankard), 12½ by 15 ; Double Pot, 15 by 26. Woolscap, 16½ by 18½ ; Sheet-and-third Do., 22½ by 13½ ; Sheet-and-half Do., 22½ by 18½ ; Double Do., 27 by 17. Post (so called from its use in letter-writing) : one of its original water-marks was a postman's horn, 18½ by 15½ ; Large Do., 20½ by 16½ ; Medium Do., 18 by 22½ ; Double Do., 30½ by 19. Copy, 20 by 16½. Double Crown, 20 by 30. Demy, 20 by 15 ; Printing Do., 22½ by 17½ ; Medium Do., 22 by 17½ ; Medium Printing Do., 23 18½. Royal, 24 by 19 ; Printing Do., 25 by 20 ; Super-royal, 27 by 19 ; Super-royal Printing, 21 by 27. Imperial, 30 by 22. Atlas, 31 by 26. Columbier, 34½ by 23½. Elephant, 23 by 23 ; Double Do., 26½ by 40. Antiquarian, 58 by 31 : this is generally, if not always, hand-made.

These sizes are somewhat lessened by ploughing and finishing off the edges previous to sale.

2. *Courte Papers for wrapping and other purposes*.—Kent-cap, 21 by 18 ; Bag-cap, 19½ by 24 ; Havou-cap, 21 by 16 ; Imperial-cap, 22½ by 29. Double 2-lb., 17 by 24 ; Double 4-lb., 21 by 31 ; Double 6-lb., 19 by 28. Cartridge, Casting, and Middle-hand, &c., 21 by 16. Lumber-hand, 19½ by 22½ ; Royal-hand, 20 by 25 ; Double Small-hand, 19 by 29.

Purple papers of a soft texture, unsized, are used in very large quantities by sugar-refiners, of the following sizes : Copy-loaf, 16½ by 21½ ; Powder-loaf, 18 by 26 ; Double-loaf, 18½ by 23 ; Single-loaf, 21½ by 27 ; Lump, 23 by 23 ; Bambo', 16½ by 28 ; Titter, 29 by 35 ; Prussian, or Double Lump, 32 by 42.

*Blothing and Filtering Paper*.—This is unsized paper, made of good quality, and usually colored pink or red, and of the same size as demy.

Besides these, which are well-known trade definitions, there are very many others, amounting, if we include *pastes* and *null boards*; to at least twelve or fifteen hundred, so that even paper-manufacturers require the aid of a treatise upon the subject of the sizes, qualities, &c., and such a treatise is in common-use.

Even as regards materials, varieties are endless. In an old German book by Jacob Christian Schäffers, published at Regensburg in 1772, there are no less than eighty-one samples of different kinds of paper bound up and forming part of the book, and innumerable others have been made since.

Rice paper is a beautiful material imported from China, about which innumerable errors have been written. It is now known to be formed of thin slices of the pith of the plant called *Aralia papyrifera*. This pith can be obtained from the stems in beautiful cylinders, from one to two inches in diameter, and several inches in length. The Chinese workmen apply the blade of a sharp, straight knife to these cylinders of pith, and, turning them round dexterously, pare them from the circumference to the centre, making a rolled layer of equal thickness throughout. This is unrolled, and weights are placed upon it until it is rendered perfectly smooth and flat. Sometimes a number are joined together to increase the size of the sheets. It will be seen that this more nearly resembles the ancient papyrus than modern paper; but it is more beautiful than the former, being a very pure pearly white, and admirably adapted to the peculiar style of painting of the Chinese.

The ordinary papers of the Chinese, Japanese, and East Indians have much resemblance to each other, which arises from the manufacture and material being similar; the bark of the paper mulberry (*Broussonetia papyrifera*) being chiefly used. The Chinese and Japanese are the most skilful paper-makers in the world, and some of the East Indian papers surpass the European manufactures completely.

Some useful kinds of paper are the result of manipulations subsequent to the paper-maker's work. Thus:

*Lithographic Paper* is prepared from good printing-paper by laying on one side of the sheets a preparation consisting of six parts of starch, one of alum, and two of gum-arabic dissolved in warm water, and applied whilst hot with a proper brush. Generally a little gamboge is added, to give it a slight yellow color.

*Copying Paper*, for manifold-writers, is made by applying a composition of lard and black-lead to one side or both of sheets of writing-paper; and after leaving it on for a day or so, it is carefully and smoothly scraped off and wiped with a soft cloth.

*Tracing Paper* is good printing-paper rendered transparent by brushing it over with a mixture of Canada balsam and oil of turpentine, or nut oil and turpentine. In either case it must be carefully dried before using.

There are two distinct classes of colored papers. In one, the color is introduced into the pulp, and is consequently in the body of the paper; in the other, the colors are mixed with size, and applied to the surface. There have been many ingenious and tasteful inventions for decorating the surface of paper, such as by giving it a marbled and even a beautiful iridescent appearance, but they are too numerous for the limits of this article.

Paper is subject to much adulteration. China-clay and gypsum are generally used for the white sorts, and the heavy ferruginous ochres for the coarse and brown kinds.

PAPER-BOOK, in English Law, is the name given to the pleadings on both sides in an action at law, when the issue is one, not of fact, but of law.

PAPER-HANGINGS. This name is applied to the webs of paper, *papiers peints* of the French, usually decorated, with which interior walls are often covered. Previous to the invention of the paper-machine, sheets of paper of the size called *Elephant*, 22 by 32 inches, were pasted together, to make 12 yard lengths, before the pattern was imprinted; but this is now rendered unnecessary by the facility of making webs of any length. Upon the paper it is usual first to spread a ground-color, with proper brushes, taking care to produce a perfectly smooth surface. The colors employed are opaque, and are mixed with size, and sometimes also with starch, and most of the ordinary pigments are used. In the early stages of the art it was usual to have the patterns stencilled (see STENCILLING) on the ground-color. The stencilling plates were usually pieces of pasteboard, one being required for every differently colored portion of the pattern. Afterwards, wooden blocks were adopted, similar to those used in calico-printing, made of pear or poplar wood, generally the width of the paper, forming, indeed, huge wood cuts, on which the pattern is in high relief. As many blocks are required as there are colors in the pattern, each bearing only so much of the pattern as is represented by the color to which it is assigned. Of course, the whole beauty of the work depends upon the nice adjustment of one portion of the pattern to another; and this is determined by guide-pins in the blocks, which are so managed as not to disfigure the surface with their points. The pattern-block, being coated with its particular color from the color-tub, is laid on the paper, which is stretched out for the purpose on a table, and a lever is brought to bear upon it with sufficient pressure to make the whole of the block bear equally upon the paper. When one block has been printed the whole length of the paper by a succession of impressions, the piece is taken to the drying-room, and dried, previous to receiving the next color; and it often happens that the same operations have to be repeated a dozen different times before the pattern is completed. This process is now being rapidly superseded by the cylinder printing-machines, which are of the same kind as are used in printing textile fabrics. In these machines, the pattern is engraved on a series of copper cylinders, and each part or color has a separate

cylinder, and an arrangement for keeping it constantly supplied with color when working. The cylinders are so arranged as, by the sum of their revolutions, to make the pattern complete; so that as the web of paper passes the first, it receives the color for one portion of the pattern, and reaches the second in exact time to have the next color applied in the right places. In this way the entire piece only occupies a few seconds in receiving the complete decoration.

The polished or glazed papers have the ground prepared with gypsum or plaster of Paris, and the surface dusted with finely-powdered steatite, or French chalk. When perfectly dry, this is rubbed hard with a burnishing-brush, until the whole is evenly polished. This is generally done before the pattern is printed, but in some cases pattern and ground are both polished. In making the *flock-papers*, the printing is done in the same way as in the block-printing, only, instead of colored material, a composition called *encaustic* is printed on. It consists of linseed-oil, boiled with litharge, and ground up with white-lead; sufficient litharge is used to make it dry quickly, as it is very adhesive. The flock is prepared from the shearings of woolen cloths from the cloth-mills, by washing and dyeing the shearings to the various colors, then stove-drying and grinding them in a peculiar mill, which, in their brittle state, after leaving the stove, breaks them short. After this they are sifted, to obtain various degrees of fineness. By nice management, the prepared flock is so sprinkled over the whole of the printed surface as to coat the encaustic, and adhere evenly and firmly to it. The same adhesive material is used for printing in gold and other metals. The pattern being printed with the encaustic, gold or other metallic leaf is applied, and when it is properly fixed, the loose metal is brushed away with a hair-brush or other soft brush. Some of the finest French papers have much of the pattern actually painted in by hand, a process which, of course, renders them very costly.

PAPER MULBERRY. See MULBERRY.

PAPER NAUTILUS. See AEGONAUT.

PAPHLAGO'NIA, anciently a province of Asia Minor, extending along the southern shores of the Black Sea, from the Halys on the east, to the Parthenius on the west, (which separates it from Bithynia), and inland on the south to Galatia. Its limits, however, were somewhat different at different times. The Paphlagonian mountains were covered with forests, and the inhabitants were famous as hunters. Croesus made P. a part of the kingdom of Lydia, and Cyrus united it to Persia; it subsequently became part of the empire of Alexander the Great, and afterwards of the kingdom of Pontus, was included in the Roman province of Galatia, and in the 4th c. of the Christian era was made a separate province by Constantine. Its capital was Sinope. The Paphlagonians are supposed to have been of Syrian, or at least of Semitic origin, like the Cappadocians. They were powerfully rude, coarse, and deficient in understanding, but this probably refers only to the country-people in the interior.

PA'PHOS, anciently the name of two cities in the isle of Cyprus. The older city, sometimes called *Pa'ipaphos* (now *Kuklos* or *Kornukia*), was situated in the western part of the island, about  $1\frac{1}{2}$  miles from the coast. It was probably founded by the Phenicians, and was famous, even before Homer's time, for a temple of Venus, who was said to have here risen from the sea close by, whence her epithet *Aphrodite*, "foam-sprung," and who was designated the Paphian goddess. This was her chief residence, and hither crowds of pilgrims used to come in ancient times.—The other Paphos, called *Neopaphos* (now *Bafra*), was on the seacoast, about seven or eight miles north-west of the older city, and was the place in which the apostle Paul proclaimed the gospel before the proconsul Sergius.

PA'PIAS. Bishop of Hierapolis in Phrygia, was a Christian writer, who flourished in the 2d century. According to Ireneus, he was a disciple of the apostle John; but Eusebius, who quotes ("Historia Ecclesiastica," chap. 39) the words of Ireneus, immediately subjoins a passage from P. himself, in which the latter distinctly states that he did not receive his doctrines from any of the apostles, but from the "living voice" of such followers of theirs as "are still surviving." He was, however, an "associate" of Polycarp, a bishop in the same province of proconsular Asia; and as the latter was a

disciple of the apostle John, it is probable that Irenaeus—a somewhat hasty writer—infers that his companion must have been the same. The "Paschal or Alexandrian Chronicle" states that he suffered martyrdom at Pergamus, 163 A.D. Eusebius describes P. as "well-skilled in all manner of learning, and well acquainted with the Scriptures;" but a little further on, he speaks of him as a man "of limited understanding" (*enikrōs* *on tōn nōūn*), and a very credulous chronicler of "unwritten tradition," who had collected "certain strange parables of our Lord and of his doctrine, and some other matters rather too fabulous." The work in which these were contained was entitled "Logiōn Kuriakōn, Exegēsēs Biblia E." (Five Books of Commentaries on the Sayings of our Lord.) It is now lost, but certain fragments of it have been preserved by Irenaeus, Eusebius, Maximus Confessor, and other writers. These fragments are extremely interesting, because of the light which they throw on the origin of the New Testament Scriptures, and their importance may be estimated from the fact, that they contain the earliest information which we possess on the subject. It is P. who is our authority for the statement that the evangelist Matthew drew up a collection of our Lord's sayings and doings (*ta logia*) in the Hebrew (probably Syro-Chaldaic or Aramaic) dialect, and that every one translated it as he was able. There can be no doubt that this is a perplexing statement, suggesting as it does the delicate question: "If Papias is correct, who wrote our present Matthew, which is in Greek, and not in Hebrew?" (For a consideration of this point, see MATTHEW.) P. also tells us, either on the authority of John the Presbyter, or more probably on that of one of his followers, that the evangelist Mark was the interpreter (*Hermeneutes*) of Peter, and wrote "whatsoever he [Peter] recorded, with great accuracy." But the passage is far from implying that Mark was a mere amanuensis of Peter, as some have asserted, but only, as Valesius has shewn, that Mark listened attentively to Peter's preaching, culled from it such things as most strictly concerned Christ, and so drew up his gospel. P., it remains to be said, was an extreme millenarian. See MILLENNIUM.

**PAPIER-MÂCHÉ** (Fr. mashed or pulped paper). This manufacture has certainly been in use for more than a century in Europe; but it is not improbable that it was first suggested by some of the beautiful productions of Sind and other parts of India, where it is employed in making boxes, trays, &c., as well as in China and Japan. Its first application, as far as we know, was to the manufacture of snuff-boxes by a German named Martin, in 1740, who learned it of a Frenchman named Lefevre; but the French say that he learned the art in England. Properly speaking, paper-mâché is paper-pulp moulded into shape, and it has been used, not only to make small articles, such as boxes, trays, &c., but in the interior decoration of houses for cornices, ceilings, &c. The collages in Chesterfield House, and some other fine Elizabethan structures, are made of this material, which at one time, owing to a combination of the stucco-workers to raise the price of their labor, took the place almost entirely of stucco in house ornamentation. At present, a combination of both stucco and paper is similarly employed under the name of *Carton-pierre*. From the extension of the applications of paper-mâché to the manufacture of a number of light and useful articles, modifications have taken place in its composition, and it is now of three kinds—1st, the true kind, made of paper-pulp; 2d, sheets of paper pasted together after the manner of pasteboard, but submitted to far greater pressure; and 3d, sheets of thick mithboard cast from the pulp are also heavily pressed. The term papier-mâché is in trade held to apply rather to the articles made of the pulp than to the pulp itself; and a vast manufacture has sprung up during the present century, particularly in Birmingham, in which a great variety of articles of use and ornament are made of this material. They are coated with successive layers of asphalt varnish, which is acted upon by heat in ovens until its volatile parts are dissipated, and it becomes hard, and capable of receiving a high polish. Mother-of-pearl is much used in their decoration, for which purpose, when several layers of the varnish still remain to be applied, thin flakes of the shell of the form of the pattern are placed on the varnish, and are covered by the succeeding layers, giving rise to elevations where they are hidden by the coats of varnish. The surface is then ground down smooth and polished, and the grinding down brings to light the pieces of mother-of-pearl shell, which thus present the appearance of inlaid patterns. The fine surface which can be given to the asphalt varnish, also permits of burnished gilding and other decorative applications with excellent effect.

PAPILIO. See BUTTERFLY.

PAPILIONACEÆ, a suborder of the natural order of plants generally called Leguminosæ (q. v.).—The plants of this suborder are the only plants known which have flowers of the peculiar structure called *papilionaceous*, and of which the Pea and Bean afford familiar examples. The name is derived from Lat. *papilio*, a butterfly. Papilionaceous flowers have five petals, imbricated in estivation (bnd), one of which, called the *vexillum*, or *standard*, is superior, turned next to the axis, and in estivation folded over the rest; two, called the *ala*, or *wings*, are lateral; and two are inferior, which are often united by their lower margins, forming the *carina*, or *keel*. The number of the P. is very great—about 4500 species being known. They are found in all parts of the world, abounding in the tropics. Many have superb and beautiful flowers; many are plants of beautiful form and foliage, trees, shrubs, or herbaceous plants; many possess valuable medicinal properties; and many are of great importance as furnishing food for man and for domestic animals, others as furnishing dyes, fibre, timber, &c. See BROOM, LABURNUM, CLOVER, BEAN, PEA, LUCERNE, LIQUORICE, INDIGO, SANDAL-WOOD, &c.

PAPILLE. This term is applied by anatomists to minute, elongated, conical processes, projecting from the surface of the true skin into the epidermis, highly vascular and nervous in their character, and taking an active part in the sense of touch. Their form and structure are described in the article SKIN. The mucous membrane of the tongue also contains three varieties of papille, which are described in the article TASTE, ORGAN AND SENSE OF.

PAPIN, Denis, a celebrated French physicist, was born at Blois, 22d August 1647, and studied medicine in Paris, where, after receiving his degree, he practised for some time as a physician. He now became acquainted with Huyghens—an incident which strengthened in him an original predilection for physical science; and from this time, he devoted himself almost exclusively to his favorite study. Before P.'s time, the intense force which can be generated in water, air, &c., under the action of heat, was well known, but he was one of the first to indicate the principal features of a machine by which this property could be made of practical utility. He soon acquired a wide reputation; and, on visiting England, was received with open arms by the philosophers of that country, and became a member of the Royal Society in 1681. While in England, P. and Boyle (q. v.) together repeated their experiments on the properties of air, &c.; but in 1687, P. was called to the chair of Mathematics in the university of Marburg in Hesse-Cassel, the duties of which office he discharged with zeal and success for many years. He died at Marburg about 1714. The French Academy of Sciences, withholding from P. the honor of "associate," entailed him among its "correspondents"—a proceeding on the part of the Academy which has, with reason, excited the astonishment of Arago. To P. undoubtedly belongs the high honor of having first applied steam to produce motion by raising a piston; he combined with this the simplest means of producing a vacuum beneath the raised piston—viz., by condensation of aqueous vapor; he is also the inventor of the "safety-valve," an essential part of his "Digester" (q. v.). By this latter machine, P. shewed that liquids in a vacuum can be put in a state of ebullition at a much lower temperature than when freely exposed to the air. P.'s sagacity led him to many other discoveries; he discovered the principle of action of the siphon, improved the pneumatic machine of Otto de Guericke (q. v.), and took part against Leibnitz in the discussion concerning "living" and "dead" forces. Unfortunately for science, P.'s numerous writings have not yet been collected, but many of them will be found in the "Philosophical Transactions," "Acta Eruditorum," and the "Recueil de Diverses Pièces." He published two works—one being an explanation of the construction and uses of his "digester" (London, 1681), afterwards (1689) translated into French, and his experiments entitled "Nouvelles Expériences du Vide" (Paris, 1674). It was not till nearly a century after that the great value of P.'s discoveries was perceived.

PAPINIA'NUS, Aemilius Paullus, the most celebrated of Roman jurists, was born towards the middle of the 2d c.; and during the reign of the Emperor Severus (q. v.), whom he succeeded as *Advocatus Fisci*, and whose second wife is said to have been P.'s relative, he held the office of *Libellorum Magister*, and afterwards that

**of Praefectus Praetorio.** After the death of Severus, his son and successor, Caracalla, dismissed P. from his office, and soon afterwards caused him to be put to death on various pretexts, the real reason, however, appearing to be that the emperor was afraid the influence of a man so able and upright would be dangerous to his power. P.'s works consist chiefly of 37 books of "Quæstiones," 19 of "Responsa," 2 of "Definitiones," two works, "De Adulterio," and a Greek fragment; and from these works there are in all 595 excerpts in the Digest (q. v.). The pupils of P. include the most famous names in Roman jurisprudence, such as Ulpian, Paulinus, Pomponius, Africanus, Florentinus, and Modestinus, but the master stands superior to them all. The high reputation he enjoyed among his contemporaries and successors may be gathered from the epithets *Prudentissimus*, *Omniuertissimus*, *Discretissimus*, bestowed upon him by various emperors, and from the first book of the *Codex Theodosii*, "De Responsis Prudentium," in which, after declaring the works of P., Paulinus, Caius, Ulpian, Modestinus, and four others, to be authority for a judge's decision, it is declared that should these jurists be equally divided in opinion, that opinion which was maintained by P. was to be considered right; while his commentator, the celebrated Cujacius (q. v.), goes so far as to declare "that Papinius was the first of all lawyers who have been, or are to be," and that "no one ever will equal him." His high reputation as a jurist was much enhanced by the strong moral feeling and stern unbending honesty which were equally characteristic of him, and which have stamped his works with an ineffaceable impress. P.'s works were studied both before and after Justinian's time by Roman legal students of the third year, who were for this reason denominated Papinianiste. The fragments of P.'s works which now remain are somewhat obscure, and the excerpts from them in the Digest are in general so brief, that the aid of a commentator is required.

**PAPIST** (Lat. *papist*, an adherent of the pope) is a name applied, generally with some admixture of contempt, to members of the Roman Church. Of itself, it implies nothing more than that they are adherents of the pope: but in its popular use it includes all the distinctive doctrines of Roman Catholics, and especially those which are supposed to be peculiarly cherished by the supporters of the papal authority. It is therefore in many cases held to be synonymous with the profession of the extremest opinions permitted in the Church of Rome, and even those which are popularly regarded as superstitions. Understood literally, no consistent Roman Catholic would disclaim it; but in the imputed signification explained above, it is held to be offensive.

**PAPPENHEIM.** Gottfried Heinrich, Count von, an imperial general of great note in the Thirty Years' War, was born at Pappenheim, in Middle Franconia, Bavaria, 29th May 1594, of a very ancient Swabian family, in which the dignity of Marshal of the Empire became hereditary about the 13th or 14th c., and many of whose members had greatly distinguished themselves in the wars of the middle ages. When about 20 years of age, P. went over to the Roman Catholic Church, and thenceforth signalised himself by his fiery zeal in its cause. At first serving under the king of Poland in his wars with the Russians and Turks, P. joined the army of the Catholic League, and in the battle of Prague (1620) stayed the flight of the Austrian cavalry, and by a well-timed and furious charge turned the tide of battle against the Bohemians. In 1623, he received from the emperor the command of a cavalry regiment of the famous "Pappenheimer Dragoons;" and in 1625, became general of the Spanish horse in Lombardy; but in 1626 re-entered the Austrian service, and after suppressing a dangerous revolt of the peasants of Upper Austria, in which 40 000 of the peasants perished, he joined the army which was opposed to the Protestant league, and, in association with Tilly, carried on many campaigns against the Danes, Swedes, and Saxons. It was P. who urged and induced Tilly to take Magdeburg by assault, and himself led and directed the attack. Moreover, it is he, rather than Tilly, who was to blame for the ferocious massacres which followed. His reckless bravery involved Tilly, against his will, in the disastrous battle of Breitenfeld; but to some extent he retrieved his character by his strenuous efforts to remedy the loss, and protect the retreat of the army. After Tilly's death, he was associated with Wallenstein, who detached him with eight regiments to protect Cologne, but on hearing of the advance of Gustavus, sent an urgent order for his return. P. arrived at Lützen at the moment

when Wallenstein's army was on the point of being completely routed, and at the head of his cuirassiers, charged the left wing of the Swedes, throwing it into confusion, and almost changing the fortune of the battle by his extraordinary bravery. He was mortally wounded in the last charge, and died a few hours afterwards at Leipzig, November 7, 1632, with a smile on his countenance, after learning that Gustavus Adolphus had died before him. "God be praised!" he said; "I can go in peace, now that that mortal enemy of the Catholic faith has had to die before me."

PA'PPUS, in Botany, an appendage of the fruit of plants belonging to certain natural orders, of which the great natural order *Compositæ* is the chief. It consists either of simple or feathery hairs, sessile or stalked, arising from the summit of the fruit, and is produced by a development of the tube and limb of the persistent calyx. Its object appears to be to waft the ripened seed to the new situation in which it is to grow. *Thistle-down* is the pappus of the thistle.—The pappus is sometimes represented by mere teeth or scales.

PAPPUS of Alexandria, one of the later Greek geometers, of whose history nothing is known; he is said by Suidas to have lived during the reign of Theodosius the Great, emperor of the East (379—895). Some writers are of opinion that he lived two centuries earlier, but the former is much the more probable opinion. The chief work of P. is his "Mathematical Collections," of which the last six out of eight books are extant. The "Collections," as their name implies are an assemblage into one book of scattered problems and theorems, the work of Apollonius, Archimedes, Euclid, Theodosius, &c., to which he has joined his own discoveries. The first two books are supposed (on insufficient grounds) to have treated of arithmetic and arithmetical problems, but only a small fragment of the second book is extant; the third book is a collection of problems, mostly of solid geometry; the fourth treats of curves other than the circle, according to the method of pure geometry: the fifth contains problems of maxima and minima; the sixth treats of the geometry of the sphere: the seventh, which is by far the most important to modern geometers, as it is almost the sole authority we possess on the subject of the history and methods of the Greek geometrical analysis, treats principally of analysis; it also contains the proposition now known as "Guldin's Theorem," which was plagiarized from P. by Father Guldin: the eighth and last book treats of machines. P. was the author of several other works which are lost, excepting only a fragment of his "Commentary on Four Books of Ptolemy's Syntaxis." P., as an independent investigator, enjoys a high reputation, and is considered by Des Cartes as one of the most excellent geometers of antiquity. Some of his problems have been looked upon with high interest by all succeeding geometers. The "Mathematical Collections" have been published in whole or part, at various periods, but the only complete editions are the two Latin versions, the first by Commandine (Pisa, 1588), and the second by Manolestius (Bologna, 1660), and the Greek edition of H. J. Eisenmann (Paris, 1824). The portion of the Greek text of the 2d book, which was wanting in Commandine's MS., was published (1688) in London by Dr Wallig.

PA'PUA, or New Guinea, is, with the exception of Australia, the largest island on the globe. It lies in lat.  $0^{\circ} 30'$ — $10^{\circ} 40'$  S., and long.  $131^{\circ}$ — $159^{\circ} 20'$  E., and is about 1300 miles in length. In outline the island is very irregular, the western part being nearly insulated by Geelvink Bay, on the north, and McClure's Inlet from the west. The head of Geelvink Bay is separated from the south coast by an isthmus only 35 miles in breadth. Eastward from this, the island increases in breadth from 200 to 360 miles, and terminates in the south-east, in a long narrow peninsula of lofty mountains.

There is probably no region of the globe so little known as P.; the coast has not even been visited in some parts, and the maps published to this date shew unsurveyed portions. It is not known with certainty who discovered Papua. It is attributed to a Spaniard, Alvaro de Saavedra. To him the first detailed notice of the island is due, and it was he who first noticed the resemblance of the inhabitants to African negroes, and for that reason gave the country the name of New Guinea. In 1606, the Spanish frigate *La Almadraba*, Captain Luiz Vaes de Torres, made the island, and sailed along the southern shore to the strait that bears his name. In 1676, the Dutch captains, Schouten and Le Maire, landed on the island to obtain fresh water.

They were unexpectedly attacked by the natives, who killed 18 of their men. M. De Bougainville, in 1768, also made the south coast of the island, and worked to windward along it. The English navigators, Cook in 1770, and Forrest in 1774, Edwards in 1791, and the following year Captain Bligh, of *Bounty* infamy, saw portions of the south coast. Flinders in 1799 visited the island, and added a few facts to our scanty information. In the course of the voyage of the French ship *Astrolabe*, under the command of J. Dumont d'Urville, the distinguished naturalists, Quoy and Gaimard, studied the natural history of the island, and more especially its zoology. A Dutch expedition in 1828 added to the information of the western coast. In 1845 Captain Blackwood and Owen Stanley, of Her Majesty's ships *Fly* and *Bramble*, surveyed part of the southern coast; and between 1846 and 1850, the last-named officer surveyed the southern shores of the eastern peninsula. In 1858, the Dutch government sent a surveying expedition in the steamer *Etna* to the north and north-west coasts. In 1869, attention was called to our lack of information on P., and to the fact that so little had been done to explore this great and fertile island, which lay almost within sight of Australia, and might be looked on as belonging to that continent. Sir Charles Nicholson especially directed the attention of our Australian colonists to the importance of their becoming acquainted with the island, lying, as it does, on the highway to India and China, and believed to be rich in mineral and commercial products. The importance of exploring the island was generally admitted. In 1871, the Russian steam corvette, the *Vitaz*, left on the north-east shores the naturalist, Miklonov Macleay, who undertook to penetrate westward into the Dutch territory. The Italian travellers, Messrs Beccari and D'Albertis, and the Italian corvette *Vittor Pisani*, also visited the island. Early in 1873, H.M.S. *Bastisk*, Captain Moresby, was sent to suppress the system of kidnapping natives in the neighborhood of Torres' Strait; and this being accomplished, Captain Moresby employed his time in continuing the survey of the eastern coasts commenced by Captain Owen Stanley. He found the eastern part of the island different in form from the representations as given on our maps, inasmuch as considerable portion of the eastern promontory consisted of islands with deep channels between, instead of being a continuous line of coast. But little is known of the geography of the island beyond the coast. The northern side is hilly and densely covered with wood, whilst such portions of the southern coasts as have been visited are low, and apparently swampy, but still densely wooded. A range of mountains, the Charles Louis Mountains, commences on the south coast near Geelvink Bay, and extends due east, rising gradually to a height of nearly 17,000 feet, where it is lost sight of at a distance of 100 miles from the coast; but it is not improbable that this range continues through, and subdivides the island until it joins the high land of the eastern peninsula, where a succession of mountainous, from 14,000 to 5000 feet high, continue to the eastern extreme. A large island, Frederick Henry Island, 100 miles long by about 50 broad, on the south-west coast, was supposed to be part of the mainland until Lieutenant Kool, of the Dutch navy, passed through the strait that separated it. The London Missionary Society's agents, in their steamer the *Ellangowan*, have also lately found that what was considered the south cape of P. is detached from the mainland, and have called it Stacey Island. The Fly River has been ascended 160 miles by the same parties. The whole of the south-eastern coast to the eastern extreme of the island, and continuing to the Loxisade Archipelago beyond, is fringed with dangerous coral reefs, and as during the monsoons the currents acquire great velocity, the danger of navigating is considerable. Captain Moresby has discovered a new passage at the south-east point of the main island, China Strait, which is navigable for large ships, and apparently free from dangers; it is considered that this discovery will lead to more rapid communication between China and Australia. The tides, however, at springs, run at the rate of 5 or 6 knots, but more careful and elaborate surveys will doubtless render navigation more safe and expeditions in these waters.

There cannot be a doubt that in an island of such vast extent as P., not only does the character of the human family greatly diverge, but there may possibly exist several distinct races. With our little knowledge, two distinct races are admitted, viz., the Papuans, so called from the Malayan "frizzled hair," and the Haraforas. The Papuans are said to resemble the Australian aborigines, but, as a rule, are

stouter. The Haraforas are distinguishable from the Papuans by lighter color and straighter hair; they also exhibit greater activity of body.

Except in the swampy districts, the climate is not unhealthy, though the temperature varies greatly, the thermometer sometimes indicating 95° F. by day, and falling to 75° by night. On the south-west coast, the east monsoon or rainy season begins about the middle of April, and ends in September; the dry season is from September to April, and on the north coast they are just reversed.

The island is everywhere clothed with the most luxuriant vegetation, cocos-nut, betel, sago, banana, bread-fruit, orange, lemon, and other fruit-trees lining the shores; while in the interior are abundance of fine timber trees, as the iron-wood, ebony, canary-wood, the wild nutmeg, and the masool, the fragrant bark of which is a leading article of export from the south-west coast. In the districts of the Arfak and Ambarbakin Mountains the sugar-cane, tobacco, and rice are cultivated.

The natural history of the western part of P. has been recently examined by Mr Wallace. This naturalist established the fact that a deep channel in the bed of the ocean, running west of Celebes, and east of the great islands of Java and Borneo, now known as Wallace's Line, separates two regions, in which the islands rise from shallow waters, and which are totally unlike each other in their botany and zoology. The islands on either side of this line he supposes to be the relics of submerged continents. Those on the west, or the Great Malay Islands, belong to the continent of Asia, and have its plants and animals. Those to the east of the line, on the other hand, including P., have a flora and fauna resembling those of Australia. The latter island has a dry climate and stunted vegetation. P., on the contrary, has a warm and moist climate, pre-eminently fitted to produce a varied luxuriant vegetation; and it is clothed from end to end with magnificent forests. Insect life is, as might be expected, abundant and varied; the Papuan species being remarkable for fine forms and beautiful colors. Still more interesting to the naturalist is the variety of birds, of which 120 species are singers, 39 parrots, and 29 pigeons. Those of land species which have been examined belong to 108 genera, 29 of which are found exclusively in Papua. The beautiful birds of paradise are peculiar to the island, and distinguish it from all other regions. In contrast to this variety of birds is the small number of mammals. The great pachiderms and quadrupeds of the Malay Islands are wanting, and the mammals are 2 bats, 1 pig, 10 marsupials, 1 cetacea, and 1 carnivora. There is one true kangaroo similar to those of Australia. The climbing kangaroos take the place of the monkeys of the Asiatic area. It is believed that Wallace's Line, or one nearly coincident with it, separates two varieties of the human race, the Malays and the Papuans, or rather areas in which one of these races predominates.

Mr Alfred Wallace, in his "Malay Archipelago," says of the Papuans: "There has been much difference of opinion about the races of the Oceanic region, but it is generally admitted that they belong to four different types—those of (1) the Malays; (2) the Negritos or Papuans; (3) the Polynesians; (4) the Australians. The most distinguished of recent ethnologists class the Malays with the Mongols; the Negritos or Papuans, and the Polynesians, with the negroes of Africa; and distinguish widely the Australians from both. They do not recognise any fundamental distinction between the dark Papuans and the light-complexioned Polynesians. The western parts of the island are inhabited by the former, the eastern parts by the latter. The Papuans are well made, have regular features, intelligent black eyes, small white teeth, curly hair, thick lips, and large mouth; the nose is sharp, but flat beneath. The nostrils large, and the skin dark brown. 'They are,' Mr. Wallace says, 'superior in stature to average Europeans, but have long and thin legs, and the splay foot of the negro.' He thinks the Papuans superior to the Malays in intelligence. In the western parts, they are divided into small distinct tribes, frequently at war with each other. The men build the houses, hollow the trunks of trees into canoes, hunt and fish; while the women do all the heaviest work, cultivating the fields, making mats, pots, and cutting wood. Their food consists of maize, sago, rice, fish, birds, the flesh of wild pigs, and fruits, &c. 'They are copper colored, of a light active build, often with very good features, which they paint; but the men's teeth and mouths are much disfigured by constant use of betel-unt. The hair is usually worn frizzled out into a huge mop. The women's hair is always cut short. Their weapons appear to be spears, swords, clubs, and stone hatchets, but no bows and arrows were seen amongst them. Occasionally human jaw and

spinal bones are worn as bracelets and ornaments. They appeared to take pleasure in making us understand that they had eaten the original owners of the bones; but these bones, as well as the few skulls exhibited in their villages, appeared to be of an ancient date. The houses are built after the Malay fashion, on poles raised 5 or 6 feet above the ground, and consist of one large apartment." The natives of Humboldt's Bay have a temple in every village, though nothing is known of their religion.

In the eastern part of the island, the negro type of the inhabitants passes into that of the Polynesians. Captain Moresby says of them, that they have the light complexion and in all respects the appearance of the Polynesians, typically represented by the New Zealanders, that they are a friendly and intelligent people, and gladly receive the English seamen at their villages, where they mix freely with them. They practice several useful arts, such as pottery, and possess extensive, well-fenced plantations. In the north-eastern part of the island, their villages are terraced and cultivated to a great height, in a manner which a Chinaman might envy. Captain Moresby believes them to be a fine, promising race, and thinks that, with the aid of civilising influences, a prosperous future is in store for them.

The Dutch scientific expedition of 1858 appended to their report a vocabulary of the Myfore language, of about 1200 words, collected by Ottow and Geisler, missionaries at Doreh, on the west of Geelvink Bay. It is, however, known to differ greatly from languages spoken in other parts; and natives of the South Sea Islands have a facility in communicating with the Papuans on the Torres Strait. The London Missionary Society has therefore begun to Christianise them through Samoan teachers directed by British missionaries. The first chapel, on Murray Island, was opened in 1875.

The population of P. and the immediately adjacent islands has been estimated at 600,000, but no correct estimate of the numbers can be formed. The exports are masooi bark, trepang or bêche-de-mer, tortoise-shell, pearls, nutmegs, birds of paradise, crown-pigeons, ebony, resin, slaves, &c.

The inhabitants seem to be divided into a great number of petty tribes, quite independent of each other. No native government is known to extend over a great part of the island. The Dutch acquired the rights of their tributary, the sultan of Tidore, and it was partly to assert them that an expedition was undertaken in 1828. At this time, the Dutch built a fort called Du Bus, in Triton Bay,  $8^{\circ} 46' \text{ S. lat.}$ , and  $134^{\circ} \text{ E. long.}$ , and declared the whole island west of a line running from Cape Bonpland in the north, along  $141^{\circ} \text{ E. long.}$ , to Torres Strait, to belong to the Netherlands, but the settlement was abandoned. In 1858 the Dutch made another attempt to establish a colony. The *Etna* was fitted out for that purpose. The expedition visited a great part of the north-western coast, and sailed eastward to Humboldt's Bay,  $140^{\circ} 54' \text{ E. long.}$ , the boundary claimed by the Netherlands.

That a great future is open to this vast territory is undoubtedly. Rich in natural products and mineral wealth to an extent of which we can have no conception, situated in such close contiguity to one of our largest possessions, and between it and China, Japan, and India, it is of immediate consequence to England; and if we are to profit by intercourse and trade, no time should be lost in detaching a strong surveying expedition, furnished with scientific explorers, to complete the survey of the coasts, and to ascertain its capabilities.

See "De Zuid-West kust van N. Guinea, door J. Modera" (Haarlem, 1830); "N. Guinea onderzocht en beschreven, door cene Nederlandsche Commissie" (Amsterdam, 1862); "De Papoea's van de Geelvinkbaai," by A. Goudswaard (Schiedam, 1868); "The Malay Archipelago," by A. R. Wallace; "Neu Guinea und seine Bewohner," by Otto Finsch (Bremen, 1866); "Dall' Italia alla Nuova Guinea—Viaggio della Corvetta 'Vittor Pisani'" (Florence, 1878); Paper on "Beccari's Exploration of Papuasia," by Prof. H. H. Giglioli, in "Ocean Highways" for December 1878; "Discoveries and Surveys in New Guinea and the D'Entrecasteaux Islands," by Captain Moresby (1876); "Chronicle of London Missionary Society" for 1876.

**PA'PULÆ AND PAPULAR DISEASES.** Papule, or pimplæ, constitute one of the eight orders of Bateman and Willan's classification of cutaneous diseases. They occur as little elevations of the cuticle, of a red color, containing neither pus nor any other fluid, and ending usually in a scurf. They are generally supposed to denote inflammation of the papillæ of the skin; but Erasmus Wilson believes that they

represent an inflammatory condition of the secretory orifices, whether sudoriferous or sebaceous. The diseases regarded as papular are Strophulus, Lichen, and Prurigo; but there are other diseases in which the first external symptom is a papular eruption, as, for example, small-pox, in which the papula speedily develops itself into a pustule.

**PAPYRI.** Rolls made of the paper of the papyrus plant are commonly known as *papyri*, corresponding to the Greek *biblia*. These rolls are of a very remote antiquity, some of the still remaining Egyptian papyri being certainly as old as the 6th dynasty, and others as old as the 12th, or from about 2000 B.C. This is owing to their mode of preservation, and to the peculiarly dry character of Egypt. These rolls have been found deposited in different ways, those of a religious nature being placed upon the bodies of mummies, at the feet, arms, or even in the hands, sometimes, indeed, packed or laid between the bandages, or even spread over the whole bandages, like a shroud. At the time of the 19th and 20th dynasties (1820—1200 B.C.), they were often deposited in hollow wooden figures of the god Ptah Socharis Osiris, or of the god Osiris, which were placed near the mummies. Papyri of a civil nature were deposited in jars or boxes, which were placed near the mummies, or have been found in the remains of ancient libraries. The following are the principal kinds of Egyptian papyri: I. Hieroglyphical papyri, always accompanied by pictures or vignettes, and consisting of three classes: 1. Solar litanies or texts, and pictures relating to and describing the sun's passage through the hours of the night, when that luminary was supposed to enter the Egyptian Hades or Hell. 2. Books of the empyreal gate, or heaven, with vignettes of deities, and other representations referring to the genesis of the cosmos or universe. 3. The so-called Ritual, consisting of a series of sacred or hermetic books, some of a very remote antiquity, accompanied with rubrical titles and directions as to their efficacy and employment, and comprising various formulas ordered to be placed on the coffins, amulets, and other furniture of the dead, for the better preservation of the souls of the dead and of the mummies in the future state. In this book, chapters giving an account of the future judgment, of the *makhenu*, or boat of the dead, of the Elysian Fields, and of the Halls through which the dead had to pass, are also found. The work was considered by the Egyptians themselves mystic, and parts were supposed to be written by the god Thoth himself. A copy more or less complete, according to the wealth of the deceased, was deposited with all the principal mummies; and from the blank spaces left for the name, which were afterwards filled up, it is evident they were kept ready made.—II. Hieratic papyri, written in the hieratic or cursive Egyptian hand, comprising a more extensive literature than the hieroglyphic papyri. This hand-writing being used for civil as well as religious purposes, the papyri found in it differ considerably from one another, and comprise rituals of the class already mentioned, principally in use about the 26th dynasty, or the 6th c. B.C., but found also on some few papyri of a remote period; a book called the "Lamentations of Isis;" magical papyri, containing directions for the preparation of charms and amulets, and the adjuration of deities for their protection; civil documents, consisting of the examination of persons charged with criminal offences, the most remarkable of which are that of an offender charged with the practice of magic in the 19th dynasty, another of a criminal charged with various crimes, in the reign of Sethos I., the examination of a conspiracy in the palace of Rameses II., and the *procès-verbal* of an offender charged with violating the sepulchres of the kings in the reign of Rameses IX. Besides these, there are several letters of various scribes upon subjects connected with the administration of the country and private affairs; funerary poems of Egyptian monarchs, one describing the campaign of Rameses II. against the Khita or Hittites; historical documents, the journeys in foreign parts; the endowment of temples by Rameses III.; works of fiction, one of the adventures of two brothers, the death of the younger, owing to the false accusation of the wife of the elder, his revival, and transformation into a bull and a Persian tree; another the story of a doomed prince, and the adventures of different persons. Works on plants and medical subjects, books of proverbs, lists of kings, historical accounts, are amongst these documents.—III. The last class of Egyptian papyri, those written in the demotic or enchorial character, consist of rituals, contracts for the sale of mummies and lands, accounts and letters, and miscellaneous documents. These papyri are often bilingual, sometimes accompanied with hieratic or Greek versions. Many of these papyri have been

translated by De Rongé, Chabas, Heath, Goodwin, Birch, and others. Many Greek papyri have been found belonging to the archives of the Serapeion, referring to the administration of that temple, the orations of Hyperides, and some of the books of Homer. At all times in the history of Egypt, libraries of papyri seem to have existed, and, under the Ptolemies, are said to have contained as many as 700,000 rolls.

Another class of ancient papyri, those of Pompeii and Herculaneum, are of considerable interest, as shewing the condition and arrangement of a Roman library. The papyri of Herculaneum are from 8½ to 12½ inches wide, and are rolled up in a cylindrical roll, *volumen*, upon a stick or inner roll, *bacillus, umbilicus*, having a stud at the end, *cornu*. They had their titles written on a strip, *lorum*, in red letters, and the writing was either on blind lines, or else on lines ruled with lead. About 1800 papyri were discovered at Herculaneum, in 1758, in the library of a small house, charred to a cinder, and some of these, by the greatest skill and care, have been unrolled by a very laborious process at Naples. Unfortunately, they have not answered the literary expectations formed of them, consisting of the works of philosophers of the Epicurean school, which the proprietor of the library seems to have collected. Some of the papyri were in Latin, and more difficult to unroll. Many of them have been published. They are only written on one side. When a small number were required, they were placed in a cylindrical bronze chest (*cista*), packed tightly in a perpendicular position, and were taken out single, and read by unrolling from one end. These papyri were of various prices; old ones like old books, being of immense value, but those containing the works of contemporary authors were not dearer, perhaps, than modern books. Many extensive private and public libraries existed in Greece and Rome, but all have perished except those exhumed from Herculaneum.

Wilkinson, "Man. and Cnst." iii. 62. 147, 188, v. 482; Winckelmann, II. Bd. i. 1; Chabas, "Pap. d'Harris" (Chalon, 1860); "Papyrus Hieratiques" (8vo. Chalon, 1868); "Voyage d'un Egyptien" (1866); Pleyte, "Papyrus de Turin" (1869-1874); "Cambridge Essays" (1868), p. 227; De Rongé, "Rev. Contemp." xxvii. p. 389; Devena, "Papyrus Judicione de Turin" (1869); "Trans. Soc. Bibl. Arch." (1874).

**PAPYRUS**, a genus of plants of the natural order *Cyperaceæ*, of which there are several species, the most important being the EGYPTIAN P. or *Papyrus* of the ancients (*P. antiquorum, Cyperus papyrus* of Linnaeus); a kind of sedge, 8 to 10 feet high; with a very strong, woody, aromatic, creeping root; long, sharp-pointed leaves; and naked, leaflets, triangular, soft, and cellular stems, as thick as a man's arm at the lower part, and at their upper extremity bearing a compound umbel of extremely numerous drooping spikelets, with a general involucle of 8 long filiform leaves, each spikelet containing 6-18 florets. By the ancient Egyptians it was called *papu*, from which the Greek *papyrus* is derived, although it was also called by them *biblos* or *detos*. The Hebrews called it *gome*, a word resembling the Coptic *gom*, or volume; its modern Arabic name is *Berdī*. So rare is the plant in the present day in Egypt, that it is supposed to have been introduced either from Syria or Abyssinia; but it has been seen till lately in the vicinity of the Lake Menzaleh, and specimens sent to England; and as it formerly was considered the emblem of Northern Egypt, or the Delta, and only grown there if introduced, it must have come from some country lying to the north of Egypt. It has been found in modern times in the neighbourhood of Jaffa, on the banks of the Anapus, in the pools of the Liane, near Syracuse, and in the vicinity of the Lake Thrasymenus. It is represented on the oldest Egyptian monuments, and as reaching the height of about ten feet. It was grown in pools of still water, growing ten feet above the water, and two beneath it, and restricted to the districts of Saïs and Sebennytus. The P. was used for many purposes both ornamental and useful, such as crowns for the head, sandals, boxes, boats, and cordage, but principally for a kind of paper called by its name. Its pith was boiled and eaten, and its root dried for fuel. The papyrus or paper of the Egyptians was of the greatest reputation in antiquity, and it appears on the earliest monuments in the shape of long rectangular sheets, which were rolled up at one end, and on which the scribe wrote with a reed called *kash*, with red or black ink made of an animal carbon. The process of making paper from the papyrus is described in the article **PAPER**. When newly prepared, it was white or brownish white and lissom: but in the process of time, those papyri which have reached the present day have become of a light or dark brown color, and exceedingly brittle, breaking to the touch. While

papyrus was commonly used in Egypt for the purposes of writing, and was, in fact, the paper of the period, although mentioned by early Greek authors, it does not appear to have come into general use among the Greeks till after the time of Alexander the Great, when it was extensively exported from the Egyptian ports under the Ptolemies. Fragments, indeed, have been found to have been used by the Greeks centuries before. It was, however, always an expensive article to the Greeks, and a sheet cost more than the value of a dollar. Among the Romans, it does not appear to have been in use at an early period, although the Sibylline books are said to have been written on it, and it was cultivated in Calabria, Apulia, and the marshes of the Tiber. But the staple was no doubt imported from Alexandria, and improved or adapted by the Roman manufacturers. So extensive was the Alexandrian manufactory, that Hadrian, in his visit to that city, was struck by its extent; and later in the empire, an Egyptian emperor (Flavian, 278 A.D.) is said to have boasted that he could support an army off his materials. It continued to be employed in the Eastern and Western Empire till the 12th c., and was used amongst the Arabs in the 8th; but after that period, it was quite superseded by parchment. At the later periods, it was no longer employed in the shape of rolls, but cut up into square pages, and bound like modern books.

As a matter of scientific interest, experiments on the manufacture of paper from the P. have been made in recent times by Landolina, Seyfarth, and others.—Another species of P. (*P. corymbosus* or *P. Pangorei*) is much used in India for making mats. See INDIAN GRASS MATTING.

PAR, or Parr, a small fish, also called BRANDING and FINGERLING in different parts of Britain, inhabiting rivers and streams, and at one time believed to be a distinct species of the genus *Salmo*, but now almost universally regarded as the young of the salmon. The question will be noticed in the article SALMON. It may here, however, be mentioned, that it is difficult to discriminate the young of different species of this genus. The par rises with extraordinary readiness to the artificial fly; and until it began to receive protection as the fry of the salmon, vast numbers were killed both by youthful and adult anglers.

PARA', or Belém, a thriving city and seaport of Brazil, capital of the province of the same name, stands on the east bank of the river Para, 80 miles from its mouth. Lat. 1° 28' s., long. 48° 28' w. The harbor is formed by an abrupt curve or inlet of the channel of the river, which is here 20 miles broad. Vessels of the largest size are admitted; the anchorage is roomy, safe, and easy of access. The streets are paved and macadamised; the houses, like those of most Brazilian towns, have whitened walls and red-tiled roofs. Among the principal buildings are the palace of the president, the cathedral, and the churches, all ample in size, and imposing in structure. There are also numerous public squares, a college, and a beautiful botanic garden. The city is supplied with water by water-cars that perambulate the streets. The "Amazon Navigation Company," a Brazilian association, has erected large workshops, coal depots, and wharfs; and steam navigation is rapidly extending. In 1865, the total number of ships which entered and cleared the port of P. was 96, with 39,709 tonnage; and in 1867, 180 of 55,798 tons. The exports in 1870 amounted in value to 7,643,395 dollars; 6,000,000 of which were for India-rubber. The imports are principally cotton manufactures, wheat and flour, cutlery and hardware, wool, gold and silverware, coins, and wine. The exports are India-rubber, coffee, sugar, raw cotton, hides, tobacco, diamonds, and cocoa. Pop. 35,000. P. is the mart through which passes the whole commerce of the Amazon and its affluents. The city was the seat of revolution during the whole of the year 1835, when a great number of lives were lost and houses destroyed, and grass grew in streets that previously had been the centre of business. It is only since the year 1849 that the city can be said to have fairly entered upon the path of orderly commercial progress; and since that period, its advance has been continuous and rapid.

PARA', an important province of the empire of Brazil, in the extreme north of the country, is bounded on the n. by Guiana and the Atlantic, on the e. by Maranhão and Goyaz, on the s. by Mato Grosso, and on the w. by Amazonas. Area, 4,000 square miles; pop. (1872) 280,000. It is one of the largest provinces of Brazil—having an area nearly twice the extent of Austria—is watered by the Amazon and its great affluents the Tapajos, Xingu, and Tocantins; and forms a portion of a district

—the Amazon Valley—which has been described by the most thorough explorer of this region as unequalled for richness of vegetable production and fertility of soil. The surface of the country is level, and consists of great plains, intersected by streams, and covered with primeval forests, and in some cases with rich pasture. The climate, though warm, is not unhealthy. The precious metals, with diamonds, iron, and coal, are found, but are not worked. The timber is valuable, and the chief crops raised upon the very limited area as yet brought under cultivation are coffee, rice, millet, and cotton.

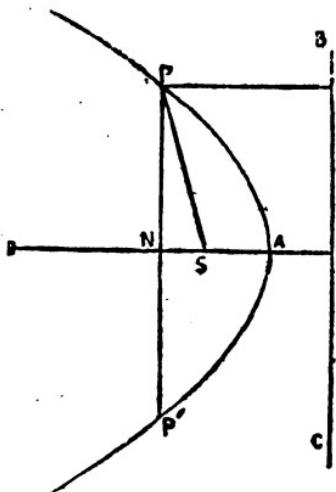
**PARA'**, the name of the south arm of the Amazon, forming an outlet for that river into the Atlantic, on the southern side of the island of Marajo (q. v.). It is 200 miles in length, is 20 miles broad opposite the city of Para, and is 40 miles broad at its mouth. Its most important affluent, and the source whence it draws, perhaps, the great mass of its volume of waters, is the Tocantins. Formerly, the name Para, which is said to signify “father of waters,” was applied in a general way to the river Amazon. At the time of the spring-tides, the bore dashes up the river with enormous force, forming a wave 15 feet high.

**PARA'**, a coin of copper, silver, or mixed metal, though most generally of copper, in use in Turkey and Egypt; it is the 40th part of a piastre, is divided into 8 aspers, and varies much in value, owing to the debased and complicated condition of the Turkish coinage. Pieces of 5 paras are also in use. The para is equal to about 1-18th of a penny sterling in Turkey, and 1-16th of a penny sterling in Egypt. See PIASTRE.

#### PARA GRASS. See PIASSABA.

**PARABLE** (*G. parabolé*, a comparison) was originally the name given by the Greek rhetoricians to an illustration avowedly introduced as such. In Hellenistic and New Testament Greek, it came to signify an independent fictitious narrative, employed for the illustration of a moral rule or principle. This kind of illustration is of Eastern origin, and admirable examples are to be found in the Old and New Testaments, particularly in the discourses of our Lord. It is no less interesting than curious to learn that many of Christ's parables, or at least much of his parabolic imagery, are to be found in the writings of Hillel, Shammai, and other great rabbis, as, for example, the parables of the Pearl of Great Price, the Laborers, the Lost Piece of Money, the Wise and Foolish Virgins, &c. Among modern writers, the German divine Krummacher (q. v.) has greatly distinguished himself in this species of composition. The parable differs from the Fable (q. v.) in the probability or verisimilitude of the story itself, and agrees with it in the essential qualities of simplicity and brevity. In the course of time, the word parable came to lose its significance of figurative speech, and to mean speech generally. From the *parabola* of the Latin Vulgate, came the medieval Latin *parabolare*, whence the modern French *parler* and *parole*. An excellent work on the parables of the New Testament—probably the best in the English language—is that by Archbishop Trench.

**PARABOLA**, one of the conic sections, is produced by a plane not passing through the vertex, which cuts the cone in a direction parallel to that of a plane touching the convex surface of the cone. A little consideration will show that a section so produced cannot be a closed curve, but its two branches, though continually widening out from each other, do not diverge so rapidly as in the Hyperbola (q. v.). The nearer the cutting plane is to that which touches the cone, the less do the two branches diverge; and when the two planes coincide, the branches also coincide, forming a straight line, which is therefore the limit of the parabola. It may otherwise be considered as a curve, every point of which is equally distant from a fixed straight line and a given point; the fixed straight line is called the *directrix*, and the given point the *focus*. Thus (see fig.) PAP' is a parabola, any point P in which is equally distant from the focus S and the directrix CB, or PS = PD. If, from S, a perpendicular, SE, be drawn to the directrix, and produced backwards, this line, AO, is the *axis* or *principal diameter* of the parabola, and the curve is symmetrical on both sides of it. As A is a point in the parabola, AS = AE, or the *vertex* of a parabola bisects the perpendicular from the focus to the directrix. All lines in a parabola which are parallel to the axis cut the curve in only one point, and are called *diameters*. All lines, such as PP', which cut the curve in



two points, are ordinates, and the diameter to which they are ordinates, is that one which bisects them; the portion of this diameter which is intercepted between the ordinate and the curve, is the corresponding abscissa. From the property of the parabola that  $PS = PD$ , the equation to the curve may be at once deduced; for  $PS - PD = EN$ , therefore  $PS^2$  (which =  $PN^2 + NS^2$ ) =  $EN^2$ ; hence  $PN^2 = EN^2 - NS^2 = (ES + SN)^2 - NS^2 = ES^2 + 2ES \cdot SN$  (since  $ES = 2AS^2 + 4AS \cdot SN - 4AS(AS + SN) = 4AS \cdot AN$ ); and calling  $PN$ , the semiordinate,  $y$ ;  $AN$ , the abscissa,  $x$ ; and  $AS$ ,  $a$ ; the equation to the parabola becomes  $y^2 = 4ax$ , where  $a$  (the distance of the vertex from the focus) remains the same for all points in the same curve. It is evident from the equation, as well as from the geometrical derivation of the parabola, that it must have two, and only two branches, and that the further it is extended the nearer its branches approach to the condition of straight lines parallel to the axis, though they never actually become so. The parabola has no asymptotes, like the hyperbola, but it possesses many properties which are common to it with that curve and the ellipse. In fact, the parabola is nothing more than an ellipse, whose major axis is infinitely long.

If parallel rays of light or heat fall upon the concave surface of a paraboloidal mirror, they are reflected to the focus, and conversely, if a light be placed in the focus of a paraboloidal reflector, its rays will be reflected in parallel directions, and would appear equally bright at all distances did light move without deviation, and unabsorbed. Also, if a body be projected in a direction not vertical, but inclined to the direction of gravity, it would, if undisturbed by the resisting force of the atmosphere, describe accurately a parabola whose axis is vertical, and whose vertex is the highest point reached by the body (see PROJECTILES).

The term **parabola** is used in analysis in a general sense, to denote that class of curves in which some power of the ordinate is proportional to a lower power of the abscissa. Thus, the curve we have just described, and which is distinguished as the **common** or **Apollonian parabola**, has the square of its ordinate proportional to its abscissæ; the **cubical parabola** has the cube of its ordinate proportional to its abscissæ; and the **semi-cubical parabola** has the cube of its ordinate proportional to the square of its abscissæ.

**PARABOLA'NI** (Gr. *parabolos*, a desperate person), a class of functionaries in the early church, by some writers reckoned as members of the clergy, and included in the ranks of the minor orders, but more probably religious associations, whose duty it was to assist the clergy, especially in the more laborious and the menial offices of religion or of charity. The etymology of the name is somewhat curious, being derived or applied from that of those desperate adventurers of the arena who hired themselves for the wild-beast fights of the amphitheatre. The chief duty of the parabolani was the tending of the sick, whether in ordinary disease, or in times of pestilence. By some, the association is believed to have originated at Alexandria, and perhaps to have been peculiar to that church; but although the parabolani were certainly very numerous at Alexandria, amounting to some 500 or 600, it is beyond all question that they were also enrolled in other churches. We find them at Ephesus, at the time of the council in 449. They held the same place in regard of ministrations to the living, that the *Foessores* of Rome or the *Kopulai* of the Greeks did in relation to the burial of the dead. The parabolani are made the subject of formal legislation by Theodosius the younger. At first they were subject to the Praefectus Augustalis, but a later decree placed them directly under the authority of the bishop.

The name *parabolani* must not be confounded with the epithet *parabolarius*, which the pagans applied to the Christian martyrs, from the recklessness with which they gave their lives for their faith.

**PARABOLOID**, a solid figure traced out by a Parabola (q. v.) revolving round its principal axis. Sections of this solid parallel to the principal axis are parabolas, and those perpendicular to it, circles. The term "paraboloidal," for which "parabolic" is frequently but improperly substituted, is applied either to bodies having the form of a paraboloid, or to concave surfaces which seem to have taken their peculiar hollow shape from the impress of a paraboloidal body.

**PARACELSIUS.** About the end of the 15th c. there lived in the small town of Marien-Einsiedeln, near Zurich in Switzerland, William Bombast von Hohenheim, a physician and chemist; he was married to the lady-superintendent of the hospital attached to the convent of Einsiedeln; they had an only son, Philip Aureolus Theophrastus, born, it is thought, about 1493. The name Paracelsus, by which he is now known, is a rude rendering into Greek and Latin of his patronymic. It seems doubtful if he ever attended any regular school, but he received from his father the rudiments of Latin, and whatever else he could teach. He soon took to roaming, and even pursued his travels into Asia and Africa. How he maintained himself during his pilgrimage is unknown; probably by necromancy and quack cures—that is, proclaiming he had certain specifics, and bargaining for the amount he was to receive if he performed a cure. He was a diligent chemist, investigating the processes of the preparation of metals, and making experiments as to their medicinal virtues; also to discover the philosopher's stone. As a chemist he lived with Sigismund Fugger, one of a family celebrated for its patronage of art and science. His cures, real or pretended, became noised abroad, and he was called to prescribe for all the great men of his day. When he was thirty-three, he boasted of having cured thirteen princes, whose cases had been declared hopeless. He was then at his zenith, and at the recommendation of Ecolampadius was appointed professor of physic and surgery at Basel. He commenced his academic career by publicly burning Galen's works, exclaiming Galen did not know as much as his shoe-latches. "Reading never made a physician," he said; "countries are the leaves of nature's code of laws—patients his only books." His class-room at first was full to overflowing, but was soon deserted, and he fell into habits of excessive intemperance; indeed his secretary asserts he was drunk every day; never undressed, and went to bed with his famous sword by his side, which he would draw, and flourish about the room. The reason of his departure from Basel was, that a certain dignitary, suffering from gout, in his agony sent for Paracelsus, and promised to give him 100 florins if he cured him. Paracelsus gave him three *laudanum* pills; the canon felt comfortable, and the doctor claimed his fee, but the churchman refused to pay. Paracelsus took him into court, but the judge decided against the professor, who lost his temper, and abused the legal functionary in such a manner that the matter was taken up by the town council, and ended in the expulsion of Paracelsus. He recommenced his wanderings. Whichever he went he excited the regular faculty to a state of violent hatred, not wholly undeserved. At Salzburg he had given offence in the usual way, and the result was, "he was pitched out of the window at an inn by the doctor's servants, and had his neck broken by the fall." This took place in 1541.

That a man whose life was such an incoherent medley should exert an influence for centuries after his death, may well be a matter of surprise, but he and the age were fitted for each other. He struck the weak point of the prevailing system of medicine; he appealed to the public as to whether it were not a false system that could only lead to failure, and he proposed a system of his own, which, though shrouded in absurdity and obscurity, inaugurated a new era of medicine. The prominent idea of his system is, that disease does not depend upon an excess or deficiency of bile, phlegm, or blood, but that it is an actual existence, a blight upon the body subject to its own laws, and to be opposed by some specific medicine. See the works of Paracelsus; also of Schulz (1831); Lessing (1839); Rademacher (1848); and Russell ("History and Heroes of Medicine," (1861).

**PARACHUTE** (Fr. *chute*, a fall), a machine invented for the purpose of retarding the velocity of descent of any body through the air, and employed by aéronauts as a means of descending from balloons. It is a gigantic umbrella, strongly made, and having the outer extremities of the rods, on which the canvas is stretched,

firmly connected by ropes or stays to the lower part of the handle. The handle of the parachute is a hollow iron tube, through which passes a rope connecting the balloon above with the car (in which are the aéronauts and their apparatus) beneath, but so fastened, that when the balloon is cut loose, the car and parachute still remain connected. When the balloon ascends, the parachute collapses like an umbrella; but when the balloon rope is severed, and the car begins to descend, the parachute is extended by the action of the air, and prevents the car from acquiring a dangerous velocity of descent: the final velocity in those cases where the machine is of a size proportioned to the weight it has to support, being no more than would be acquired by a person leaping from a height of between two and three feet. But the slightest derangement of the parachute's equilibrium, such as might be caused by a breath of wind, or the smallest deviation from perfect symmetry in the parachute itself, immediately produces an oscillatory motion of the car, having the apex of the parachute as a centre, and the oscillation becoming gradually greater and more rapid, the occupants of the car are in most cases either pitched out, or are along with it dashed on the ground with frightful force. This defect in the parachute has been attempted to be remedied in various ways, but hitherto without success. The first successful experiment with the parachute was made by Blanchard at Strasburg in 1787, and the experiment has been often repeated by Garnerin and others; very frequently, however, with fatal results.

The parachute was employed by Captain Boxer, R.N., as an essential part of his patent light-ball, for discovering the movements of an enemy at night, and was so arranged as to open up when the lighted ball had attained its greatest elevation, so as to keep it for a considerable period almost suspended in the air.

PARADE (from *parare*) signified in its original sense a prepared ground, and was applied to the courtyard of a castle, or to any enclosed and level plain. From the practice of reviewing troops at such a spot, the review itself has acquired the name of parade. In its modern military acceptation, a *parade* is the turning out of the garrison, or of a regiment in full equipment, for inspection or evolutions before some superior officer. It is the boast of British troops that their line and discipline are as perfect under an enemy's fire as on the parade ground.

PA'RADISE. See EDEN.

PARADISE, Bird of. See BIRD OF PARADISE.

PARADOS—another name for Traverse—is an intercepting mound, erected in various parts of a fortification for the purpose of protecting the defenders from a rear of ricochet-fire. See FORTIFICATION.

PA'RADOX (Gr. *para*, beside, or beyond, and *doxa*, an opinion), a term applied to whatever is contrary to the received belief. Cicero, in his book on paradoxes, states that the Stoicks called by this name all those unusual opinions, which contradict the notions of the vulgar. It follows from this that a paradox is not necessarily an opinion contrary to truth. There have been bold and happy paradoxes whose fortune it has been to overthrow accredited errors, and in the course of time to become universally accepted as truths. It is, perhaps, even one of the prerogatives of genius to bring such into the world, and thereby to alter the character of an art, a science, or a legislation; but this, the highest form of paradox, which is only another name for originality of thought, or for novelty of scientific discovery, is rare. The paradox which springs from a passion for distinction, and which, in its efforts to achieve it, despises good sense and the lessons of experience, is far more frequent. It may not be at bottom a positive error in thought, but it is so exaggerated in expression, that if taken literally it actually does mislead. This is the besetting sin of the brilliant and epigrammatic class of writers, abundant examples of which are to be found in modern French literature.

PA'RAFFIN is the name given to several closely-allied substances, which are composed of mixtures of polymeric hydrocarbons, of the oil-flint gas series (that is to say, of the formula  $C_{n+1}H_{2n}$ ), and are obtained from the dry distillation of wood, peat, bituminous coal, wax, &c. P. is particularly abundant in beech tar, but according to Reichenbach, to whom its name (which is formed from *parum affinis*, "little allied," in consequence of its resisting the action of the strongest acids and alkalies)

fe due, and who may be regarded as its discoverer; it is also found in the tar of both animal and vegetable substances. At ordinary temperatures paraffin is a hard, white, crystalline substance, devoid of taste or odor, and resembling spermaceti, both to the touch and in appearance. The paraffin obtained from wood fuses at about  $111^{\circ}$ , but the varieties obtained from other substances have considerably higher boiling-points. When carefully heated, it sublimes unchanged at a little below  $700^{\circ}$ . It dissolves freely in hot olive oil, in oil of turpentine, in benzol, and in ether, but it is only slightly soluble in boiling alcohol, and is quite insoluble in water. It does not burn readily in the air, unless with the addition of a wick, when it evolves so brilliant and smokeless a flame that it has been applied to the manufacture of candles, which rival those made of the finest wax. The main supply of the paraffin of commerce is obtained in this country, from the Boghead cannel-coal, and from the bituminous shale of West Calder. See NAPHTHA. A bituminous shale near Bonn supplies much of the continental demand.

**PARAFFIN OIL** is the term applied to the oily matter which is given off in large quantity in the distillation of Boghead cannel-coal. By rectification it may be separated into three portions, one of which remains liquid at very low temperatures, boils at about  $420^{\circ}$ , and is much used under a variety of names for illuminating purposes, while a mixture of the two less volatile portions (which may be regarded as composed of paraffin dissolved in a mixture of hydrocarbons of nearly the same composition as paraffin) is largely employed for the purpose of lubricating machinery, for which it is admirably adapted by its power of resisting the oxidising action of the atmosphere, and by its very slow evaporation. See NAPHTHA.

**PARAGUAY**, a republic of South America. Its frontiers, previous to the war of 1865–1870, were not well defined, but on its conclusion were fixed by treaty. P. now extends from  $23^{\circ}$  to  $27^{\circ} 30'$  s. lat., and from  $54^{\circ} 32'$  to  $68^{\circ} 40'$  w. long., forming the peninsula between the rivers Paraguay and Paraná. It is bounded n. and n.e. by Brazil, s.e. s., and s.w. by the Argentine Confederation, and n.w. by Bolivia. Its area previous to the war was about 103,148 square miles, and is now variously estimated at from 57,000 to 90,000 square miles. Before the war, the population was variously estimated at from 450,000 to 1,800,000, consisting of whites of Spanish descent, native Indians, negroes, and a mixture of these several races. In 1878, according to an official return, it had fallen to 221,079. A mountain-chain called Sierra Amambay, running in the general direction of from north to south, and bifurcating to the east and west towards the southern extremity, under the name of Sierra Maracayu, divides the tributaries of the Paraná from those of the Paraguay, none of which are very considerable, although they are liable to frequent and destructive overflows. The northern portion of P. is in general undulating, covered by low, gently-swelling ridges, separated by large grass plains, dotted with palms. There are mountains in the north-east and north-west corners. The southern portion is one of the most fertile districts of South America, consisting of hills and gentle slopes richly wooded, of wide savannahs, which afford excellent pasture-ground, and of rich alluvial plains, some of which, indeed, are marshy, or covered with shallow pools of water (only one lake, that of Ypacá, deserving special notice), but a large proportion are of extraordinary fertility and highly cultivated. The banks of the rivers Paraná and Paraguay are occasionally belted with forest; but, in general, the low lands are destitute of trees. The climate, for a tropical country, is temperate, the temperature occasionally rising to  $100^{\circ}$  in summer, but in winter being usually about  $45^{\circ}$ . In geological structure, the southern part belongs generally to the tertiary formation; the north and east presenting grey-wacke rocks in some districts. The natural productions are very varied, although they do not include the precious metals or other minerals common in South America. Much valuable timber is found in the forests, and the wooded districts situated upon the rivers possess a ready means of transport. Among the trees are several species of dye-wood, several trees which yield valuable juices, as the India-rubber and its cognate trees; and an especially valuable shrub, called the *Maté* (q. v.), or Paraguay tea-tree, which forms one of the chief articles of commerce, being in general use throughout La Plata, Chili, Peru, and other parts of South America. The tree grows wild in the north-eastern districts, and the gathering of its leaves gives employment in the season to a large number of the native population. Many trees

also yield valuable gums. Wax and honey are collected in abundance, as is also cochineal, and the medicinal plants are very numerous. The chief cultivated crops are maize, rice, coffee, cocoa, indigo, mandioc, tobacco, sugar-cane, and cotton. Nearly three-fourths of the land is national property, consisting partly of the lands formerly held by the Jesuit missions, partly of lands never assigned to individuals, partly of lands confiscated in the course of the revolutionary ordeal through which the country has passed. The national estates have, for the most part, been let out in small tenements, at moderate rents. Under the dictator Francia (1814—1840), agriculture made considerable progress, and the breed of cattle and horses was much improved, and the stock increased. The few manufactures are sugar, rum, cotton and woollen cloths, and leather. The commerce of the country is chiefly in the hands of the government, which holds a monopoly of the export of P. tea. In 1873, the total value of the exports amounted to £220,032, and the imports to £229,536. The chief exports were maté, tobacco, hides, and bark for tanning; imports, cotton goods, haberdashery, groceries, &c. Up till the war of 1863—1870, P. had no national debt, but the terrible losses then incurred compelled it in 1871—1872 to contract obligations amounting to upwards of £47,000,000. Three millions were contracted in England on the security of the public lands of P., estimated at upwards of £19,000,000; but the Foreign Loans Committee, 1875, reports that payment of interest and sinking fund has ceased since 1874. The military force, which, during the five years' war, was raised to 60,000 men, has now been reduced to 2000. The established religion is the Roman Catholic, the ecclesiastical head of which is the Bishop of Asuncion. Education is very widely diffused; and it is said that there are but few of the people who are not able to read and write.

The history of P. is highly interesting. It was discovered by Sebastian Cabot in 1526, but the first colony was settled in 1535 by Pedro de Mendoza, who founded the city of Asuncion, and established P. as a province of the viceroyalty of Peru. The warlike native tribe of the Guaranis, however, a people who possessed a certain degree of civilisation, and professed a dualistic religion, long successfully resisted the Spanish arms, and refused to receive either the religion or the social usages of the invaders. In the latter half of the 16th c., the Jesuit missionaries were sent to the aid of the first preachers of Christianity in P.; but for a long time they were almost entirely unsuccessful, the effect of their preaching being in a great degree marred by the profligate and cruel conduct of the Spanish adventurers, who formed the staple of the early colonial population. In the 17th c. the home government consented to place in their hands the entire administration, civil as well as religious, of the province; which, from its not possessing any of the precious metals, was of little value as a source of revenue: and in order to guard the natives against the evil influences of the bad example of European Christians, gave to the Jesuits the right to exclude all other Europeans from the colony. From this time forward the progress of civilisation as well as of Christianity was rapid. The legislation, the administration, and the social organisation of the settlement were shaped according to the model of a primitive Christian community, or rather of many communities under one administration; and the accounts which have been preserved of its condition, appear to present a realisation of the ideal of a Christian Utopia. On the expulsion of the Jesuits from P. in 1763, the history of which is involved in much controversy, the province was again made subject to the Spanish viceroys. For a time the fruits of the older civilisation maintained themselves; but as the ancient organisation fell to the ground, much of the work of so many years was undone; the communities lapsed into disorganisation, and by degrees much of the old barbarism returned. In 1776, P. was transferred to the newly-formed viceroyalty of Rio de La Plata; and in 1810 it joined with the other states in declaring its independence of the mother kingdom of Spain, which, owing to its isolated position, it was the earliest of them all to establish completely. In 1814, Dr Francia (q. v.), originally a lawyer, and the secretary of the first revolutionary junta, was proclaimed dictator for three years; and in 1817, his term of office was made perpetual. He continued to hold it till his death in 1840, when anarchy ensued for two years; but, in 1842, a national congress elected two nephews of the dictator, Don Alonso and Don Carlos Antonio López, joint consuls of the republic. In 1844, a new constitution was proclaimed, and Don Carlos was elected sole president, with dictatorial power, which he exercised till his death in 1862, when he was succeeded by his son, Don

**Francisco Solano Lopez**, whose name has become notorious in connection with the tragic struggle of 1865-1870, in which the Paraguayans made a heroic but unavailing fight against the combined forces of Brazil, the Argentine Confederation, and Uruguay. The war was brought to a close by the defeat and death of Lopez at the battle of Aquidabán, March 1st 1870. In June 1850, a congress voted a new constitution, which was proclaimed on the 25th Nov. It is modelled on that of the Argentine Confederation, the legislative authority being vested in a congress of 2 houses, and the executive in a president, elected for 8 years. P. may be now considered virtually a Brazilian protectorate, and its capital is occupied by Brazilian troops.

The central department, in which the capital, Asuncion, is situated, contains nearly one-third of the whole inhabitants; and the capital itself, 10,000 to 20,000. Asuncion is connected by railway with Paraguari. The inhabitants of the towns consist chiefly of whites, or of half-breeds, speaking Spanish. The native population of the provinces are chiefly Guaranis, speaking the Guarani language.

**PARAGUAY**, an important river of South America, an affluent of the Paraná (q. v.), rises in the Brazilian province of Mato Grosso, on a plateau of red sandstone, in lat.  $18^{\circ} 30'$  s., long. about  $55^{\circ} 50'$  w., 9535 feet above sea-level. The sources of the river are a number of deep lakes, and eight miles from its source, the stream already has considerable volume. Pursuing a south-west course, and after flowing through a level country covered with thick forests, the P. is joined from the west by the Jauru, in lat.  $16^{\circ} 30'$  s. It then continues to flow south through the Marsh of Xarayes, which, during the season when the stream rises, is an expansive waste of waters, stretching far on each side of the stream, and extending from north to south over about 200 miles. The river still pursues a circuitous but generally southward course, forming from  $20^{\circ}$  to  $22^{\circ}$  s. the boundary-line between Brazil and Bolivia, thence flowing south-south-west through the territories of Paraguay to its junction with the Paraná, in lat.  $27^{\circ} 17'$  s., a few miles above the town of Corrientes. Its chief affluents are the Cuyaba, Tacoury, Mondégo, and Apa on the left, and the Jauru, Pilcomayo, and Vermejo on the right. Except in the marshy districts, the country on both banks of the river is rich and fertile, and abounds in excellent timber. The entire length of the river is estimated at 1800 miles; it is on an average about half a mile in width, and is navigable for steamers to the mouth of the Cuyaba, 100 miles above the town of Corumbá. The waters of the P., which are quite free from obstructions, were declared open to all nations in 1852; and now Brazilian mail-steampers ply monthly between Monte Video and Cuyabá, on the river of the same name, one of the head-waters of the P.; and there are several lines of steamers between Buenos Ayres and Asuncion.

#### PARAGUAY TEA. See MATE.

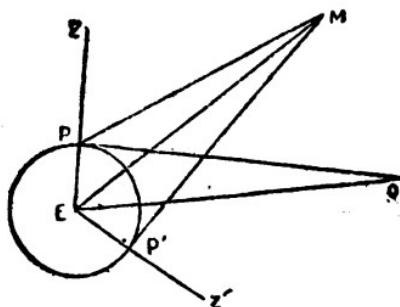
**PARAHIBA**, one of the most eastern maritime provinces of Brazil, bounded on the n. by Rio Grande do Norte, on the s. by Pernambuco, on the w. by Ceará, and on the e. by the Atlantic. Area, 31,500 sq. m.; pop. (1-72) 876,226. It is traversed by a river of the same name, by a number of smaller streams, and by mountainous ridges, between which are valleys, the soils of which are, for the most part, dry and sandy. Cotton of excellent quality, mandioc, and tobacco are grown; and cotton, sugar, and timber are exported. Capital, Parahiba (q. v.).

**PARAHIBA**, a seaport of Brazil, capital of the province, and situated on the river of the same name, about 10 miles from the sea. Besides the cathedral, it contains a number of religious houses, two colleges, and other educational institutions. In 1874, 106 vessels, of 34,683 tons, entered and cleared the port. Pop. 15,000.

**PA'RALLAX** is the apparent displacement of an object caused by a change of



place in the observer. When an object at M is looked at from P, it appears in line with some object, S; but after the observer has moved to E, M has apparently retrograded to a position in line with S'; this apparent retrogression is denominated *parallax*. The angle PME is called the "angle of parallax," or the "parallactic angle," and is the measure of the amount of parallax. To astronomers, the determination of the parallax of the heavenly bodies is of the utmost importance, for two reasons—first, from the necessity of referring all observations to the earth's centre, i. e., so modifying them as to make it appear as if they had been actually made at the earth's centre; and secondly, because parallax is our only means of determining the magnitude and distance of the heavenly bodies. The *geocentric* or *daily* parallax—as the apparent displacement of a heavenly body, due to its being observed from a point on the surface of the earth instead of from its centre, is called—is determined as follows: Let P and P' be two stations on the surface of the earth (fig. 2), E its



centre, M the object to be observed, and Z and Z' the zeniths respectively of the observers at P and P' (points which, if possible, should be on the same meridian exactly); then at P and P' let the zenith distances ZPM and Z'P'M, be observed simultaneously, and since the latitudes of P and P', and consequently their difference of latitude, or the angle PEP', is known, from these three the angle PMP' (the sum of the parallaxes at P and P') is at once found; and then, by a trigonometrical process, the separate angles or parallaxes PME and P'ME. When the parallax of M, as observed from P, is known, its distance from E, the centre of the earth, can be at once found. When the heavenly body is on the horizon, as at O, its parallax is at a maximum, and is known as the *horizontal* parallax. The geocentric parallax is of use only in determining the distances of those heavenly bodies at which the earth's radius subtends a considerable angle; and as the moon and Mars (when in opposition) are the only such bodies, the parallax of the other celestial bodies must be determined in a different manner. The parallax of the Sun (q. v.) is found by observation of the *transit* of Venus across his disk, a much more accurate method than that above described. The parallaxes of the other planets are easily determined from that of Mars.

In the case of the fixed stars, at which the earth's radius subtends an infinitesimal angle, it becomes necessary to make use of a much larger base-line than the earth's radius, and as the largest we can employ is the radius of the earth's orbit, it accordingly is made use of, and the displacement of a star, when observed from a point in the earth's orbit instead of from its centre, the sun, is called the *annual* or *heliocentric* parallax. Here the base-line instead, as in the former case, of being 4000 miles, is about 92,000,000 miles, and the two observations necessary to determine the parallactic angle are made from two points on opposite sides of the earth's orbit, at an interval as nearly as possible of half a year. Yet, notwithstanding the

enormous length of the base-line, it bears so small a proportion to the distances of the stars, that only in three or four cases have they been found to exhibit any parallactic motion whatever, and in no case does the angle of parallax amount to 1" (see STARS). The geocentric horizontal parallax of the moon is about 57' 4"; that of the sun, about 8' 6"; and of the double star, 61 Cygni, the heliocentric parallax has been determined by Bessel to be 7848", equivalent to about 15 millionths of a second of geocentric horizontal parallax. Parallax affects every observation of angular measurement in the heavens, and all observations must be corrected for parallax, or, in astronomical phrase, referred to the earth's centre before they can be made use of in calculation. The position of a body, when noted from the surface of the earth, is called its *apparent* position; and when referred to the centre, its *real* position.

PA'RALLEL FORCES are those forces which act upon a body in directions parallel to each other. Every body, being an assemblage of separate particles, each of which is acted on by gravity, may thus be considered as impressed upon by a system of parallel forces. If there be more than two parallel forces, the resultant of the whole is found by compounding the resultant of the first two with the third, thus obtaining a new resultant, which is similarly combined with the fourth force; and so on till the final resultant is found. The centre of gravity is only a special name for the point of application of the final resultant of a number of parallel forces.

PARALLELEPIPED (Gr.) frequently, but improperly written *Parallelopiped*, is a solid figure having six faces, the faces being invariably parallelograms, and any two opposite faces equal, similar, and parallel. If the faces are all squares, and consequently equal, the parallelepiped becomes a cube. The volume of a parallelepiped is found by multiplying the area of one face by its distance from the opposite one.

PARALLELOGRAM, in Mathematics, is a quadrilateral rectilineal figure which has its opposite sides parallel; the opposite sides are therefore equal, and so are the opposite angles. If one angle of a parallelogram be a right angle, all its angles are right angles, and the figure is then called a *rectangular parallelogram*, or shortly, a *rectangle*; and if at the same time all the sides are equal, the figure is a *square*, otherwise it is an *oblong*. If the angles are not right angles, but all the sides are equal, it is called a *rhombus*; and if the opposite sides only are equal, a *rhomboid*. The two lines which connect the opposite corners of a parallelogram are called its *diagonals*, each bisects the parallelogram, and they bisect each other; the sum of their squares also is equal to the sum of the squares of the sides of the parallelogram.

All parallelograms which have equal bases and equal altitudes are equal in area, whether they be similar in shape or not, and the area of a parallelogram is found by multiplying its base by the height.

#### PARALLELOGRAM OF FORCES. See COMPOSITION OF FORCES.

PARALLELS, in Military language, are trenches cut in the ground before a fortress, roughly parallel to its defences, for the purpose of giving cover to the besiegers from the guns of the place. The parallels are usually three, with zigzag trenches leading from one to another. The old rule used to be to dig the first at 600 yards distance, but the improvements in artillery have rendered a greater distance necessary; and at Sebastopol, the allies made their first trench 2000 yards from the walls. The third trench is very near to the besieged works, and from it saps and zigzag approaches are directed to the covert-way.—The bearing of parallels in the general conduct of a SIEGE will be found described under that head.

PARALLELS or Circles of Latitude are circles drawn round the surface of the earth parallel to the equator. They may be supposed to be the intersections with the earth's surface of planes which cut the earth at right angles to its axis. The greatest of these circles is the equator, which has the centre of the earth for its centre, the radius for its radius, and is equally distant at all points from each pole. It is evident that of the others, those next the equator are greater than those more remote, and that they become less and less till at the poles they vanish altogether. The radius of any one circle is evidently equal to the earth's radius multiplied into

the cosine of its latitude or distance from the equator. The rotary velocity of the earth's surface, which is about  $17\frac{1}{2}$  miles per minute at the equator, is only  $8\frac{1}{2}$  miles in lat.  $40^{\circ}$ , in lat.  $82\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  (the most northerly point yet reached) is only  $2\frac{1}{2}$  miles; and in lat.  $89\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$  (within 35 miles of the pole) is not more than 267 yards per minute.

The most important parallels of latitude are the *Tropics of Cancer* ( $23^{\circ} 28'$  n. lat.) and *Capricorn* ( $23^{\circ} 23'$  s. lat.), and the *Arctic* ( $66^{\circ} 32'$  n. lat.) and *Antarctic Circles* ( $66^{\circ} 32'$  s. lat.).

**PARALYSIS** (Gr. *a* loosing or relaxing), or *Palsy*, is a loss, more or less complete, of the power of motion; but by some writers the term is employed to express also loss of sensation. When the upper and lower extremities on both sides, and more or less of the trunk, are involved, the affection is termed *General Paralysis*. Very frequently only one-half of the body laterally is affected, the other side remaining sound; to this condition the term *Hemiplegia* is given. When the palsy is confined to all the parts below an imaginary transverse line drawn through the body, or to the two lower extremities, the condition is termed *Paraplegia*. When one part of the body, as a limb, one side of the face, &c., is exclusively attacked, the affection is known as *local palsy*. In some cases, the loss of sensation and the power of motion in the paralysed part is entire, while in others it is not so. In the former the paralysis is said to be *complete*, in the latter, *partial*. In most cases, but not invariably, sensibility and motion are simultaneously lost or impaired. When motion is lost, but sensation remains unimpaired, the affection has received the name of *akinesia* (Gr. *a*, not, and *kinesis*, motion). More rarely there is a loss of sensibility while the power of motion is retained; and to such cases the term *anesthesia* (Gr. *a*, not, and *anesthesia*, sensation) is applied. This affection occurs most frequently in the organs of sense; as in the tongue, for example, in which the sense of taste may be lost, without any defect of movement.

Paralysis is in most cases a mere symptom of disease existing in some other part than that apparently affected; as, for example, in the brain or spinal cord, or in the conducting nerves between either of these organs and the palsied organ. Sometimes, however, it is a purely local affection, depending upon a morbid condition of the terminal extremities of the nerves. The varieties in the condition of the brain and spinal cord which occasion paralysis are somewhat numerous; as, for example, congestion, hemorrhagic and serous effusion, softening, fatty degeneration, fibrinous exudation, suppuration, hydatids, various morbid growths, depressed bone from external violence, &c. It is highly probable, also, that palsy may sometimes result from mere functional disorder of the nervous centres—a view which is confirmed by the fact that a *post mortem* examination of a patient who has suffered from this affection sometimes fails to detect any apparent lesion. Paralysis may originate in a nervous trunk, if it is compressed by a tumor, or otherwise mechanically affected, or if it is the seat of morbid action tending in any way to disorganise it; or it may be due to an abnormal condition of the terminations of the nerves, which may be rendered unfit for receiving impressions either from the external world or from the brain by prolonged disease, by continuous or severe pressure, by exposure to cold, by disorganisation of their own tissue, or by the depressing action of various metallic poisons, especially lead.

We shall briefly notice the symptoms and causes of the most important forms of paralysis, before offering any remarks on the general principles of treatment. *Hemiplegia* (Gr. *hemi*, half, *plesio*, I strike) affects one lateral half of the body; and is that form of palsy to which the term *paralytic stroke* is commonly applied. The parts generally affected are the upper and lower extremities, the muscles of mastication, and the muscles of the tongue on one side. In a well-marked case the patient when seized falls to the ground, all power of motion in the affected arm and leg being lost. The palsy of the face which accompanies hemiplegia is usually quite distinct from the affection known as *facial palsy*, which is an affection of the facial nerve or *portio dura*. See **NERVOUS SYSTEM**. It is the motor branches of the fifth or trifacial nerve going to the muscles of mastication which are generally involved in hemiplegia, and consequently the cheek is flaccid and hangs down, and the angle of the mouth is depressed on the affected side. The tongue when protruded points towards the paralysed side, and there is often imperfect articulation, in consequence

of the lesion commonly affecting the hypoglossal nerve. Hemiplegia may arise from lesions of various kinds, as, for example, (1) from hemorrhage, or some other morbid change in the brain, in which case the palsy is on the side of the body opposite to the lesion, in consequence of the decussation or crossing over of nervous fibres from one side to the other that occurs at the upper part of the Spinal Cord (q. v.); (2) from spinal disease below the point of decussation just noticed; in this case the palsy, and the lesion causing it, are on the same side of the body. It is also sometimes associated with hysteria, epilepsy, and chorea, but in these cases it usually disappears in a few hours.

*Paraplegia* (Gr.) is usually confined to the two lower extremities, but the muscles of the lower part of the trunk and of the bladder and rectum are sometimes affected. There are at least two distinct forms of paraplegia, viz. (1) *Intrinsic Paraplegia* dependent on primary disease of the spinal cord or its membranes, and especially on Myelitis (q. v.); and (2) *Reflex Paraplegia*, i. e., paraplegia consequent on disease of the kidneys, bladder, urethra, prostate, womb, &c. These two forms of paraplegia differ in many of their phenomena, and the most important of these points of difference have been arranged in a tabular form by Dr Brown Squard in his "Lectures on Paralysis of the Lower Extremities," to which we must refer for the best information on this form of palsy. Paraplegia usually comes on slowly, with a gradual increase of its symptoms. The reflex form is, of course, by far the most favorable, as it usually abates spontaneously on the subsidence of the primary disease.

*Facial Palsy*, although locally affecting only a small part of the body, is a disorder of sufficient importance to require a definite notice. In this affection there is a more or less perfect loss of power over all the muscles supplied by the *portio dura*, or facial nerve. The following graphic account of the appearance of the patient is condensed from Dr Watson's "Lectures on the Practice of Physic." From one-half of the countenance all power of expression is gone; the features are blank, still, and meaningless; the eyelids apart and motionless. The other half retains its natural cast, except that, in some cases, the angle of the mouth on that side seems drawn a little awry, in consequence of the want of counterpoise from the corresponding muscular fibres of the palsied side. The patient cannot laugh or weep, or frown, or express any feeling or emotion with one side of his face, while the features of the other may be in full play, nor can he spit or whistle properly. One-half of the aspect, with its unwinking eye, its fixed and solemn gaze, might be that of a dead person; the other half is alive and merry. To those who do not comprehend the possible extent of the misfortune, the whimsical appearance of the patient is a matter of mirth and laughter; while, on the other hand, his friends imagine that he has had a stroke, and that he is in a very dangerous state. The nerve may be unable to discharge its duties in consequence of disease within the cavity of the skull, and in that case there is very serious danger; but in the great majority of cases the nervous function is interrupted in that part of the *portio dura* which lies encased in the temporal bone, or in the more exposed part which issues in front of the ear; and hence this form of palsy is generally unattended with any danger to life. It may arise from various causes. Sometimes it is the consequence of mechanical violence, sometimes of tumors pressing on it in the region of the parotid gland, and it very frequently arises from the mere exposure of the side of the face for some time to a stream of cold air.

It yet remains to notice certain kinds of paralysis which differ in either of their characters, or in their causes, from those which have been already described—viz., *Shaking Palsy*, or *Paralysis Agitans*; and the palsies induced by various poisons. *Shaking Palsy* has been defined as "involuntary tremulous motion, with lessened muscular power in parts not in action, and even when supported; with a propensity to bend the trunk forwards, and to pass from a walking to a running pace; the senses and intellect being uninjured." It is chiefly an affection of old age, and often goes no further than to cause an uncaring nodding and wagging of the head in all directions. Somewhat analogous to this form of palsy is that peculiar kind of trembling which is often noticed in persons who are much exposed to the vapor of mercury; *Mercurial Tremor*, as it is termed by the physicians, and *The Trembles*, as the patient usually calls it. It consists in a convulsive agitation of the voluntary muscles, especially when an attempt is made to cause them to act under the influence of the will; a patient with this affection walks with uncertain steps, his limbs trembling and dancing as if they had been hung upon wires. When sitting down he ex-

hibits little or no indication of his disease, but on rising he cannot hold his legs straight, nor direct them with precision; and in severe cases he falls to the ground if not supported. The arms are similarly agitated, and the tongue is usually so tremulous as to render the articulation hurried and unnatural. The disease is especially common in artisans employed in the gilding of metals, and particularly of silver, by means of heat; it is also frequent among the workers of quicksilver mines, in which the crude metal is purified by heat. The time required for the production of the disease varies extremely in different cases (according to Dr. Watson, from two years to five-and-twenty). The duration of the complaint is considerable; it may last two or three months, or longer, but it is seldom fatal.

The palsy arising from the absorption of lead has been already noticed in the article **LEAD-POISONING**.

A specific form of paralysis of the lower extremities, consequent on the use of flour from the beans of the *Lathyrus sativus*, is common in certain parts of India and in Thibet. The ripe bean is an ordinary article of food when made into flour, but it is generally used with wheat or barley flour; it is only when it exceeds one-twelfth part that it is at all injurious, and when it exceeds one-third that the paralysis sets in. Other species of *Lathyrus* have been known occasionally to induce similar symptoms in European countries.

We shall enter into no details regarding the treatment of hemiplegia and paraplegia, as the management of these serious affections should be exclusively restricted to the physician. When a patient has an attack of hemiplegia (or a *paralytic stroke*) all that should be done before the physician arrives is to place him in a horizontal position, with the head slightly raised, and to remove any impediments presented by the dress to the free circulation of the blood. Should the physician not arrive in an hour or two, it may be expedient to give the patient a sharp purge (half a scruple of calomel, followed in a few hours by a black draught, if he can swallow; and two drops of croton oil, mixed with a little melted butter, and placed on the back of his tongue, if the power of deglutition is lost), and without waiting for its action, to administer an injection (or clyster) consisting of half an ounce of oil of turpentine suspended (by rubbing it with the yolk of an egg) in half a pint of thin gruel; and cold lotions may be applied to the head, especially if its surface be hot. The question of blood-letting—the universal treatment a quarter of a century ago—must be left solely to the physician. It should, however, be generally known, that if the patient be cold and collapsed; if the heart's action be feeble and intermittent; if there be an anaemic state; if the patient be of advanced age; if there is evidence of extensive disease of the heart or arterial system; or lastly, if there is reason, from the symptoms, to believe that a large amount of hemorrhage has already taken place in the brain; these singly, and *a fortiori* conjointly, are reasons why blood should not be abstracted.

Facial palsy, unless the seat of the disease be within the cavity of the cranium, will usually yield in the course of a few weeks to cupping and blistering behind the ear of the affected side, purgatives, and small doses of corrosive sublimate (one-twelfth of a grain three times a day, combined with a little of the compound tincture of bark), which must be stopped as soon as the gums are at all affected. Exposure to cold air must be carefully avoided during treatment.

Little or nothing can be done to cure *Paralysis Agitans*. In the treatment of *Mercurial Tremor*, the first step is to remove the patient from the further operation of the poison, while the second is to remove the poison already absorbed into the system, which is effected by the administration of iodide of potassium. This salt combines with the metallic poison in the system, and forms a soluble salt (a double iodide of mercury and potassium), which is eliminated through the kidneys. Good food and tonics (steel or quinia, or the two combined) should be at the same time freely given.

The writer of this article has no personal knowledge of the treatment that should be recommended in the paralysis produced by the use of *Lathyrus sativus*, but cases are reported which seem to have been benefited by good diet, tonics, strychnia, and the application of blisters to the loins.

**PARAMA'RIBO**, the capital of Dutch Guiana, is situated on the western bank of the river Surinam, about 10 miles from its mouth, in  $5^{\circ} 46' \text{ N. lat.}$ , and  $55^{\circ} 15' \text{ W. long.}$  It forms a rectangle of nearly a mile and a half in length by three-quarters in breadth. The streets are broad, covered with shell-sand, and planted on both sides

with orange, lemon, tamarind, and other trees. Near the river, the houses, which are chiefly of wood, stand somewhat closely together, but in the remoter parts each is surrounded by its own garden. The rooms are wainscoted with the choicest woods, and elegantly furnished.

In approaching P. from the sea, Fort Zeelandia is first reached; then the Bureau of Finance and Court of Justice on the Government Plain, which is surrounded by stately cabbage-palms; the governor's house, with shady double avenue of tamarind-trees; and lastly, the business streets stretching along the river side. There are a Dutch Reformed, a Lutheran, Moravian; two Roman Catholic churches, and two synagogues. Fort Zeelandia has a large and beautiful barrack, with several roomy houses for the officers. P. has a neat, pleasant, and picturesque appearance, the white painted houses, with bright-green doors and windows, peeping out from the shady trees, and the river being thronged with the tent-boats and canoes which are constantly arriving and departing.

On 1st January 1875, the population amounted to 21,765. By royal decree of 6th February 1861, the flogging of slaves in the Netherlands West Indies was forbidden, except through officers appointed for the purpose, and the number of lashes was limited. This check, however, was frequently evaded, and the greatest barbarities practised, so that the feeling in favor of emancipation increased in the Netherlands, and a bill was passed, 8th August 1862, for emancipating the slaves on the 1st July 1863.

P. being the only port, except Nickerie Point, at the month of the Corentyn, enjoys a considerable trade. In 1874, the total arrivals in Dutch Guiana were 204 ships, measuring 26,472 tons, the departures 212, of 27,593 tons. By far the largest number were British. About a fourth part cleared at Nickerie, a very productive portion of the colony, in which sugar, molasses, and rum are manufactured in large quantities.

The climate of D. Guiana is not healthy. From this and other causes the deaths annually exceed the births. In 1874, there were 1548 births and 8364 deaths. Of the births, 1198 were not in wedlock. In Curagao, Aruba, St Martin, St Eustatius, and Saba, there were 1439 births and 658 deaths. Of the births, 1058 were illegitimate. During that year 14·5 coolies arrived in the colony, of whom 1384 were from British India. Among these laborers, the average death-rate was 13·85 per cent., and on three plantations 47·70; while that of the creoles averaged 5·70. Elephantiasis, Arابی and Lepra are fearfully prevalent among the black population of P. and neighborhood.

The maximum fall of rain is in May, the minimum in September and October. By observations made at five different points, during eight successive years, it was found that the quantity varies much, being smallest at Nickerie, in the west, and largest at Mountbouy in the east of the colony. The averages of the eight years, from 1847 to 1854, were, Nickerie, 66·70 inches; Groningen, on the river Suramaccu, 90·50; Paramaribo, 99·65; Gelderland, on the river Surinam, 103·25; and Mountbouy, 127·75. In Georgetown, British Guiana, the average fall is 100·50 inches.

The coast of Dutch Guiana is an alluvial deposit formed by the rivers and equatorial stream which flows eastwards. Further inland, the soil is diluvial loam, bearing the finest timber trees; and south of this line are extensive savannahs of white sand, stretching toward the hills and mountains of the interior, which are chiefly of gneiss and granite.

Exports (1874), 24,135,503 lbs. sugar, 2,435,483 lbs. cocoas, 127,460 lbs. cotton, 57,549 lbs. quassia-wood, 278,159 gallons molasses, 201,780 gallons rum, &c.

PARAMATTA is a light worsted twilled fabric for female dress. It was invented at Bradford, in Yorkshire, and has become an important manufacture of that place. The weft consists of combed merino wool, and the warp of cotton. It resembles in texture the Coburg and Orleans cloths.

PARAMATTA, a pleasantly situated town of New South Wales, stands near the west extremity of Port Jackson, on a small river of the same name, and is 15 miles by land west-north-west of Sydney, with which it is connected both by steamer and railway. The houses are mostly detached, and the streets are wide and regular, the principal one being about a mile in length. The institutions comprise church schools, an orphan and a lunatic asylum, and a prison. There was formerly a

servatory here; but it was removed to Sydney in 1858. "Colonial tweeds," "Paramatta cloths," and salt are manufactured. Pop. (1871) 6,03.

The town of P., formerly called Ito-hill, is, with the exception of Sydney, the oldest in the colony. The first grain raised in the colony was grown here, and the first grants of land made.

PARA'METER, or Latus Rectum, a term used in conic sections, denotes, in the case of the parabola, a third proportional to the abscissa of any diameter and its corresponding ordinate; in the ellipse and hyperbola, a third proportional to a diameter and its conjugate. The parameter of any diameter is, in the case of the parabola, the same as the double ordinate of that diameter which passes through the focus, and is four times as long as the distance between the diameter's vertex and the directrix. The term parameter was also at one time used to denote any straight line about a curve, upon which its form could be made to depend, or any constant in its equation, the value of which determined the individual curve; but its employment in this sense is now discontinued, except in the theory of homogeneous differential equations, where the constants, for the purpose of aiding the solution, are supposed to vary; and the method is consequently denominated the "Variation of the Parameters." In the application of this method to determine the orbital motions of the planets, the "seven necessary data" (see ORBIT) were called parameters, but for this the term "elements" is now substituted.

PARANA', a province in the south of Brazil, is bounded on the n. by the provinces of Sao Paulo, on the e. by the Atlantic, s.e. by Santa Catharina, s. by Rio Grande do Sul, w. by Paraguay and Matto Grosso. Area stated at 72,000 sq. m. Pop. (1872) 126,722, one sixth of whom are slaves. The capital is Curitiba, and previously to 1852 this province formed a territory called the Comarca of Curitiba, included in the province of Sao Paulo. It fully commenced its provincial career in 1853. The sea coast is indented by several bays, but the chief and almost the only port as yet is Paranagua. A line of mountains runs parallel to the coast at a distance of about 80 miles inland, and throws out spurs and branches westward. The streams flowing east from this water-shed, though numerous, are inconsiderable; while the rivers flowing westward, into the Parana (q. v.), which forms the western boundary of the province, are all about or upwards of 400 miles in length. The principal are the Paranapanema, Iavy, Piquery, and Yguassu. The climate is unusually healthy; the soil is fertile; and agriculture, rearing cattle and swine, and gathering *mâle* or Paraguay tea are the chief employments. The capital, Curitiba, has manufactures of coarse woollens, and with its agricultural surroundings has a pop. of 12,000.—The chief port, Paranagua, on a bay of the same name, is about 400 miles south-west of Rio de Janeiro. It contains about 3000 inhabitants, and exports *mâle* to the value of 1,000,000 dollars annually.

PARANA, an important river of Brazil, rises in the province of Minas Geraes, about 100 miles north-west of Rio de Janeiro. It flows west for upwards of 500 miles through the provinces of Minas Geraes and Sao Paulo. In the latter it is joined by the Parnaibha, after which its course alters, and it flows south-south-west to Candelaria. Passing this town, it flows west for 200 miles to its confluence with the Paraguay (q. v.), and then bending southward, passes Santa Fe, below which its channel frequently divides and encloses numerous islands. After passing Santa Fe, it rolls onward in a south-east direction, and unites with the Uruguay in forming the Rio de La Plata. Entire length about 2400 miles. It draws a number of considerable tributaries from the province of Parana (q. v.); and of the others, the chief are the Paraguay, Uruguay, Pardo, Tiete, and Parnaibha. For vessels drawing 16 feet it is navigable to Corrientes, upwards of 600 miles from its mouth.

PA'RAPET (Ital. *para-petto*, from *parar*, to protect, and *petta*, the breast), a wall raised higher than the gutter of a roof for protection; in military works, for defence against missiles from without (see FORTIFICATION); in domestic buildings, churches, &c., to prevent accident by falling from the roof. Parapets are of very ancient date. The Israelites were commanded to build "a battlement" round their flat roofs. In classic architecture, balustrades were used as parapets. In Gothic architecture, parapets of all kinds are used. In early work they are generally plain, but in later buildings they are pierced and ornamented with tracery, which is frequently

of elaborate design, especially in French Flamboyant work. Shields and little arcades are also used as ornaments to parapets; and the battlements of castles are imitated in the parapets of religious and domestic buildings.

**PA'RAPH** (Gr. *para*, beside, and *hapto*, to touch), an addition to the signature formed by a flourish of the pen, which, during the middle ages, constituted some sort of provision against forgery. Its use is not altogether extinct in diplomacy, and in Spain the paragraph is still a usual part of a signature.

**PARAPIHERNALIA** (Gr. *para*, beside, or beyond; *pherne*, dower) is a term borrowed from the Roman law to denote certain articles of personal adornment and apparel belonging to a married woman. According to the usual rule in the law of England, all the personal property of a woman becomes the property of her husband when the marriage takes place, unless there is a marriage settlement; but there is an exception as regards the trinkets and dress of the wife so far as suitable to her rank in life, and which she continues to use during the marriage. In such a case the property in these articles does not vest absolutely in the husband. He cannot bequeath them by his will to a third person, but if he gave them to the wife, he may pawn, or sell, or give them away, and they can be seized in execution to pay his debts, except so far as they constitute necessary clothing. And if he were to die insolvent, they may, except that part which is necessary clothing, be taken by the husband's creditors. If the paraphernalia were given, not by the husband but by a third party before or during marriage, then they are presumed to be given for the wife's separate use, and the husband or his creditors cannot in any way interfere with them. In the law of Scotland, the paraphernalia of a married woman include not merely personal clothing and trinkets, but articles of furniture, such as a chest of drawers. The husband there can neither pawn, nor pledge, nor give away the paraphernalia, nor can his creditors attach them either during his life or after his death.

**PA'RAPHRASE** (Gr. *para*, beside, and *phrazein*, to speak) is the name given to a verbal expansion of the meaning either of a whole book, or of a separate passage in it. A paraphrase consequently differs from Metaphrase, or strictly literal translation, in this, that it aims to make the sense of the text clearer by a lucid circumlocution, without actually passing into commentary. The versified passages of Scripture, forming part of the Psalmody of the Scottish Church, are popularly known as "the Paraphrases."

#### PARAPLEGIA. See PARALYSIS.

**PARĀS'ARA** is the name of several celebrated personages of ancient India, met with in the "Mahābhārata" (q. v.), the "Purāṇas" (q. v.), and other works. Of one personage of this name, the "Mahābhārata" relates that he was the son of S'akti, who was the son of the patriarch Vasiṣṭha. King Kalmāshapāda once meeting with S'akti in a narrow path in a thicket, desired him to stand out of the way. The sage refused; on which the Rāja beat him with his whip, and S'akti cursed him to become a Rākshasa, or demon. The Rāja, in this transformation, killed and ate S'akti, together with the other sons of Vasiṣṭha. S'akti, however, had left his wife, Adris'yanti, pregnant, and she gave birth to Parās'ara, who was brought up by his grandfather. When he grew up, and was informed of his father's death, he instituted a sacrifice for the destruction of all the Rākshasas, but was dissuaded from its completion by Vasiṣṭha and other sages. The same legend is referred to by the *Vishn'u-Purāṇa*, where P. is introduced as relating himself, part of this story, and adding that the saint Pulastya, one of the mind-born sons of Brahma, in reward of the clemency he had shewn even towards such beings as the Rākshasas, bestowed on him the boon of becoming the author of a compendium, or rather the compiler of the "Purāṇas," and of the "Vishn'u Purāṇa" in particular. "This tradition," Professor Wilson observes ("Vishn'u-Purāṇa," ed. Hall, vol. I. p. 10), "is incompatible with the general attribution of all the "Purāṇas" to Vyāsa; but it may perhaps point to a later recension when, to the native mind, Vyāsa would still remain the reputed author of the older "Purāṇas," although, of course, even this assumption has little claim to historical truth.—A P., probably different from the one named, is the author of a celebrated code of laws; he is mentioned by Yājavalkya in his standard work, and often quoted by the commentaries.—A

probably third P. is the reputed author of a Tantra (q. v.); and a fourth the author of an astronomical work.—*Paris'aras* (in the plural) designates the whole family to which the different *Paras'aras* belong.

PARASITA, or *Anoplura*, an order of insects, to all of which the name Louse is popularly given. All live as parasites on quadrupeds and birds. The characters of the order are noticed in the article LOUSE. It remains, however, to be added that the order is divided into two sections; in the first of which, *Pediculidea*, the mouth is small and quite suctorial; whilst in the second, *Nirmidea*, it is furnished with mandibles and hooked maxillæ. The species of the first section are found only on man and mammals; those of the second section, almost exclusively on birds, although one infests the dog. The *Nirmidea* shew much greater activity than the *Pediculidea*. When a bird dies, the bird-lice congregate near the beak, and seem disquieted, apparently anxious to change their abode.

PARASITE (Gr. from *para*, beside; *sitos*, food; one who eats with another; hence one who eats at the expense of another), a common character in the Greek comedies; a low fellow, who is ready to submit to any indignity, that he may be permitted to partake of a banquet, and who lives as much as possible at the expense of others.

PARASITIC ANIMALS are numerous. Some of them are Entozoa, and some are Epizoa. See these heads. They belong to different classes, and even to different divisions of the animal kingdom; all, however, are invertebrate. Many are of the division *Articulata*, and many of the division *Radinta*. Besides worms of various kinds, there are among parasites not a few crustaceans, as the Lernæans, &c., and not a few insects, as the Louse. These insects constitute the order *Parasita* or *Anoplura*. The characters of the order are noticed in the article LOUSE. It remains, however, to be added, that the order is divided into two sections—in the first of which, *Pediculidea*, the mouth is small and quite suctorial; whilst in the second, *Nirmidea*, it is furnished with mandibles and hooked maxillæ. The species of the first section are found only on man and mammals; those of the second section, almost exclusively on birds, although one infests the dog. The *Nirmidea* shew much greater activity than the *Pediculidea*. When a bird dies, the bird lice congregate near the beak, and seem disquieted, apparently anxious to change their abode. Some of the cirripods which live in the skin of large marine animals, as whales, can scarcely be regarded as parasitic animals, but rather bear to them a relation such as *Hipophytes* do to parasitical plants, not deriving their food from the animal on which they live. Tape-worms, ascarides, and other intestinal worms, do not directly draw sustenance from the animal in which they live, by extracting its juices, but they live at its expense, by consuming its food, after the food has undergone, in great part, the process of digestion.

PARASITIC DISEASES constitute one of the recognised orders of disease in Dr Farr's classification. See NOSOLOGY. In these diseases, certain morbid conditions are induced by the presence of animals or vegetables which have found a place of subsistence within some tissue or organ, or upon some surface of the body of man or of other animals. Even plants are not exempt from disorders of this nature (see PARASITIC PLANTS). The forms of animal life giving rise to parasitic diseases are described in articles ASCARIDES, CESTOID-WORM, ENTOZOA, EPIZOA, GUINEA-WORM, ITCH-INSECT, LOUSE, NEMATELMIA, STRONGYLUS, TAPEWORMS, TRICHINA, &c. With the vegetable structures which give rise to special diseases we are less accurately acquainted, in consequence of the limited knowledge of cryptogamic botany possessed by many writers who have recorded their experience of these cases. These parasites are either *fungi* or *algæ*, and are composed of simple sporules, germs, or cells, or of cells arranged in rows or groups, which are so minute as to require the microscope for their recognition. Fungi are the most numerous of all plants in regard to genera and species, and their growth is associated with serious injury both to animal and vegetable life. It is not, however, always easy to determine whether they are the direct cause of disease, or whether the diseased tissue has merely afforded a suitable nidus for their development. "It is certain," says Dr Aitken, who has entered more fully into this subject than any other English writer on the practice of medicine, "that whenever the normal chemical processes of nutrition are impaired, and the incessant changes between solids and fluids slacken, then, if

the part can furnish a proper soil, the cryptogamic parasites will appear. The soil they select is, for the most part, composed of epithelium or cuticle, acid mucus or exudation. Acidity, however, though favorable to their growth, is not indispensable, since some of the vegetable parasites grow upon alkaline or neutral ground, as on ulcerations of the trachea, or in fluid in the ventricles of the brain. Certain atmospheric conditions seem favorable to the occurrence of these vegetable parasites. For example, *Tinea tonsurans* may be quite absent for years in places such as workhouses, where it commonly exists, and then for several months every second or third child in the place gets the disease."

There is undoubted evidence from the observations and experiments of Devergie, Von Bärensprung, and others, that these parasitic diseases may be transmitted by contagion from horses, oxen, and other animals to man; while conversely, Dr Fox mentions an instance of a white cat which contracted the *mange* from *Tinea tonsurans* (ringworm of the scalp), which affected the children of the family to which it belonged—the fungus of the mange in the cat being the same fungus as that of *Tinea* in the human subject, viz., the *Trichophyton* (Gr. *tric*, (tric-), of a hair, and *phyton*, a plant).

The principal vegetable parasites associated in man with special morbid states are arranged by Aitken ("The Science and Practice of Medicine," 1863, 2d. edit. vol. i. i. p. 177) as follows: 1. The *Trichophyton tonsurans*, which is present in the three varieties of *Tinea toundae*—viz., *T. circinatus* (ringworm of the body), *T. tonsurans* (ringworm of the scalp), and *T. sycoia menti* (ringworm of the beard). 2. The *Trichophyton spiruloides*, which, together with the above, is present in the disease known as *Plica Polonica*. 3. The *Achorion Schönleinii* and *Puccinia favi*, which are present in *T. favosa*, known also as *Favus* (q. v.), and *Porrigo scutulata* (the honeycomb ringworm). 4. The *Microsporon mentagrophyte*, which is present in *Mentagra*. 5. The *Microsporon furfur*, which occurs in *Pityriasis versicolor*. 6. The *Microsporon Audouini*, which is present in *Porrigo decalvans*. 7. The *Myctoma* or *Chinyphie Carteri*, which gives rise to the disease known as the "fungus foot of India." &c. 8. The *Oidium alicans* of diphtheria and aphtha. 9. The *Cryptococcus Cerevisiae*, Yeast *P. ant.*, occurring in the urine and contents of the stomach, if there is saccharine fermentation. 10. The *Sarcina Gooderii*, or *Meristipodia ventriculi* (of Robin), found in vomited matters and in the urine. There are strong grounds, based partly on botanical and partly on clinical observation, for believing that the various fungi already described are mere varieties of two or more species in various phases of development.

We shall conclude this article with a brief notice of the most dangerous of all the parasitic diseases—the *Fungus Foot* or *Fungous Disease of India*. It occurs in many parts of India, and the north-east shores of the Persian Gulf. It is a disease which occurs among natives only, so far as has been yet observed, and is undoubtedly due to the presence of a fungus which eats its way into the bones of the foot and the lower ends of the tibia and fibula, penetrating by numerous fibrous canals through the tissue of the entire foot, and tending to cause death by exhaustion, unless amputation is performed in due time. Dr Carter has described three forms of this disease, in which both the symptoms and the fungoid material differ considerably from each other. A few remarks on the first of these forms will suffice as an illustration of parasitic disease. In this form, the bones of the foot and the lower ends of the leg-bones are perforated in every direction with roundish cavities, varying in size from that of a pea to that of a pistol-bullet, the cavities being filled with the fungoid matter. The surrounding muscles, and subsequently the tendinous and fatty structures, are converted into a gelatiniform mass, in consequence of which the foot presents a peculiar turgid appearance. Examined under the microscope, the fungoid mass is found to consist of short, beaded, tawny threads or filaments, arising from a common centre, and having at their tips large sporangia-like cells. For further information regarding this remarkable form of disease, the reader is referred to Dr Carter's paper in the fifth volume (new series) of the "Transactions of the Medical and Physical Society of Bombay," and to the Rev. M. J. Berkeley's account of his examination of the fungus, in the second volume of "The Intellectual Observer," p. 248.

Further notices of the parasitic diseases of the skin will be found in the articles **PITYRIASIS** (var. *versicolor*), **RINGWORM**, **SCALD-HEAD**, &c.

PARASITIC PLANTS are plants which grow on other plants, and derive subsistence from their juices; the plants which live parasitically on animal tissues being generally called Entop-sytes (q. v.), although the distinction between these terms is not always preserved. Epiphytes (q. v.) differ from parasitical plants in not subsisting on the juices of the plant which supports them, but merely on decayed portions of its bark, &c., or drawing all their nourishment from the air. Parasitical plants are numerous and very various; the greater number, however, and the most important, being small fungi, as Rust, Brand, Bunt, Smut, &c., the minute spores of which are supposed, in some cases, to circulate through the juices of the plants which they attack. Concerning some minute fungi, as the Mildews, it is doubted if they are truly parasitical, or if their attacks are not always preceded by some measure of decay. But among parasitic plants are not a few phenomena plants, some of which have green leaves; and some are even shrubby, as the Mistletoe, Loranthus, &c.; whilst the greater number have brown scales instead of leaves, as Dodder, Broom-rape, Lathraea, &c., and the whole of that remarkable order or class of plants called *Rhizanthem* or *Rhizogena*, of which the genus *Rafflesia* is distinguished above all other plants for the magnificence of its flowers. Some parasitic plants, as the species of Dodder, begin their existence by independent growth from the ground; but when they have found suitable plants to take hold of and prey on, the connection with the ground ceases. Not a few, as Broom-rape and Lathraea, are root-parasites, generally attaching themselves to the roots of trees or shrubs; whilst some, as the Eyebright (*Euphrasia officinalis*), Yellow Rattle (*Rhinanthus crista galli*), Cow-wheat (*Melampyrum arvense*), &c., are parasitical only occasionally and partially, and are chiefly found on neglected grass lands. Root-parasites generally attach themselves by means of little tubercles, which bury themselves under the bark.

PARATY', a seaport town of Brazil, in the Province of Rio de Janeiro, on the west coast of the Bay of Angra, 90 miles south-west of Rio de Janeiro city. It has extensive commerce, and numerous distilleries. Pop. said to be 10,000.

PARAY-LE-MONIAL, a town of Burgundy, department of Saône-et-Loire, celebrated for its Benedictine Abbey, founded in 973, which contains the tomb of Mary Margaret Acocque, the centre of recent pilgrimages by the confraternites of the Sacred Heart (q. v.). Pop. of town and commune (1872), 3888.

PAR'BUCKLE is a mode of drawing up or lowering down an inclined plane any cylindrical object, as a barrel or a heavy gun, without the aid of a crane or tackle. It consists in passing a stout rope round a post or some suitable object at the top of the incline, and then doubling the ends under and over the object to be moved. This converts the cast or gun into a pulley in its own behalf, and limits the pressure at each end of the rope to one-fourth the weight of the object moved, as felt on the incline. By hauling in the ends equally, the cask ascends, or rises *versâ*.

PAR'CÆ (from the root *par*, a part), the name given by the Romans to the goddesses of Fate or Destiny, who assigned to every one his "part" or lot. The Greek name, *Moiræ*, has the same meaning (from *meros*, a share). They are only once mentioned by Homer, who in every other instance speaks of Fate (*Molîra*) in the singular, and whose Fate was not a deity but a mere personification, the destinies of men being made by him to depend upon the will of the gods; whilst, according to the later Greeks and the Romans, the gods themselves were subject to the control of the P. or Moiræ. Hesiod, however, who is almost contemporary with Homer, speaks of three Fates, whom he calls daughters of Night—Clotho, the spinner of the thread of life; Lachesis, who determines the lot of life; and Atropos, the inevitable. They were usually represented as young women of serious aspect; Clotho with a spindle, Lachesis pointing with a staff to the horoscope of man on a globe, and Atropos with a pair of scales, or sun-dial, or an instrument to cut the thread of life. In the oldest representations of them, however, they appear as matrons, with staves or sceptres. They had places consecrated to them throughout all Greece, at Corinth, Sparta, Thebes, Olympia, &c.

PARCELS, in the law of England, is the technical word for the article in a conveyance describing the lands, &c. conveyed.

PARCENER. See COPARCENARY.

PARCHIM, a town of the grand-duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, stands on the

Elde, which is here divided into two arms, 23 miles south-east of Schwerin. It is very old, is irregularly built, surrounded by beautiful gardens, and has a gymnasium and two churches. Pop. (1871) 7976, employed in agriculture, in the manufacture of tobacco, cloth, leather, and brandy, and in weaving.

**PARCHMENT**, one of the oldest inventions of writing materials, was known at least as early as 500 years B.C. Herodotus speaks of books written upon skins in his time. Pliny, without good grounds, places the invention as late as 196 B.C., stating that it was made at Pergamos (hence the name *Pergamena*, corrupted into Eng. parchment) in the reign of Eumenes II, in consequence of Ptolemy of Egypt having prohibited the exportation of papyrus. Possibly the Pergamian invention was an improvement in the preparation of skins which had certainly been used centuries before. The manufacture rose to great importance in Rome about a century B.C., and soon became the chief material for writing on; and its use spread all over Europe, and retained its pre-eminence until the invention of paper from rags, which from its great durability proved a fortunate circumstance for literature.

There are several kinds of parchment prepared from the skins of different animals, according to their intended uses. The ordinary writing parchment is made from those of the sheep and of the she-goat; the finer kind, known as *vellum*, is made from those of very young calves, kids and lambs; the thick common kinds, for drums, tambourines, battledores, &c., from those of old he-goats and she-goats, and in Northern Europe from wolves; and a peculiar kind is made from asses' skins, the surface of which is enamelled. It is used for tablets, as blacklead writing can be readily removed from it by moisture. The method of making parchment is at first the same as in dressing skins for leather. The skins are limed in the lime-pit until the hair is easily removed. They are then stretched tightly and equally, and the flesh side is dressed as in currying, until a perfectly smooth surface is obtained. It is next ground by rubbing over it a flat piece of pumice-stone, previously dressing the flesh side only with powdered chalk, and slaked lime sprinkled over it. It is next allowed to dry, still tightly stretched on the frame. The drying process is an important one, and must be rather slowly carried on, for which purpose it must be in the shade. Sometimes these operations have to be repeated several times, in order to insure an excellent quality, and much depends upon the skill with which the pumice-stone is used, and also upon the fineness of the pumice itself. When quite dried, the lime and chalk are removed by rubbing with a soft lambskin with the wool on.

**PARCHMENT, Vegetable.** This remarkable substance was made known by Mr W. E. Gaine in 1854, and again by the Rev. J. Barlow in 1857. It resembles animal parchment so closely, that it is not easy to distinguish the difference. It is made from the water-leaf, or unsize paper, by immersing it only for a few seconds in a bath of oil of vitriol, diluted with one-half its volume of water. The exactness of this dilution is of the greatest importance to the success of the results. The dilute acid must not be used immediately after mixing, but must be suffered to cool to the ordinary temperature; without attention to these apparently trifling points, the operator will not succeed.

The alteration which takes place in the paper is of a very remarkable kind. No chemical change is effected, nor is the weight increased; but it appears that a molecular change takes place, and the material is placed in a transition state between the cellulose of woody fibre and dextrin. Vegetable parchment is in some respects preferable to the old kind, for insects attack it less, and it can be made so thin as to be used for tracing paper, and bears wet without injury. Messrs De la Rue have the credit of giving practical effect to the invention.

**PARDUBITZ**, a town of Austria, in Bohemia, 61 m. e. of Prague. It has copper, iron, and paper manufactures. P. was the headquarters of the king of Prussia, 7th June 1866. Pop. (1869) 7930.

**PARÉ**, Ambroise, a renowned French surgeon, and the father of modern surgery, was born about the beginning of the 16th c., at Laval, department of Mayenne, France. His father, who was a trunk-maker, was unable to afford him a literary education, and apprenticed him to a barber and surgeon. P., after a brief term of service, acquired such a fondness for surgery and anatomy, that, abandoning his master, he went to Paris to prosecute his studies. His means for doing so were

very limited; he could afford to obtain instruction from only the more obscure teachers; few books were within his reach, yet by dint of perseverance and the exercise of a rare discrimination, combined with the valuable practice in the Hôtel de Dien of Paris, he laid a solid foundation for future eminence. In 1536, P. was received as a master barb or-surgeon, and joined in this capacity the army of Marshal René de Monte-Jean, which was on the point of starting for Italy. During this campaign he improved the mode of treatment of gun-shot wounds, which had up to this time been of the most barbarous kind—namely, cauterisation with boiling oil. His reputation as well as his skill were greatly heightened during this campaign, and as he himself says: "If four persons were seriously wounded I had always to attend three of them; and if it were a case of broken arm or leg, fractured skull, or fracture with dislocation, I was invariably summoned." In 1539, he returned to Paris, whither his high renown had preceded him, and was received with distinction by the Royal College of Chirurgery, of which he was subsequently appointed president. On the war being renewed, he was again attached to the army, under the Vicomte de Ronan, afterwards under Antoine d' Bourbon, Duke of Vendôme. It was during this campaign, that he cured François, the second Duke of Guise, of the wound which conferred upon him the sobriquet of *Balafré*, and that he substituted ligature of the arteries for cauterisation with a red-hot iron after amputation. The idea of this mode of repressing hemorrhage had long been in existence, but he was the first to shew that it could safely be applied to practice. Many other important improvements in surgery were introduced by him at this time. In September 1552 he was appointed surgeon to King Henry II., and in the following year was taken prisoner at Hesdin; he was however released, in consideration of his having cured Colonel de Vandeville, after rejecting the brilliant offers made him by the Duke of Savoy to remain in his service. Returning to Paris, honors were showered upon him; and though he was ignorant of Latin, the *conditio sine qua non* of a liberal education at that time, no hesitation was shewn in conferring upon him learned titles and degrees. He attended Francis II. on his death-bed, and continued to hold the office of king's surgeon to his successors, Charles IX. and Henry III. The former of these monarchs, whose life had been gravely threatened by an injury inflicted by his physician Portail, and who had been preserved by P., testified for him the greatest esteem, and saved him during the massacre of St. Bartholomew by locking him up in his own chamber. During the latter part of P.'s life, he was much employed in the publication of his various writings, and suffered considerable annoyance from the envious spirit displayed towards him by his professional brethren, who showered obloquy upon him for having, as they said, "dishonored science by writing in the vulgar tongue." P. died at Paris, December 22, 1590. His writings have exercised a great influence on the practice of surgery in all countries to which they have penetrated, and are held of the highest authority on the subject of gun-shot wounds. The first complete edition of them appeared at Lyon in 1552, and the last, edited by M. Malgaigne, at Paris (1840-1841, 8 vols.). Besides these there are 8 Latin editions, and more than 15 translations into English, Dutch, German, &c. As an instance of his great popularity in the army, it may be mentioned that the soldiers of the garrison of Metz, of their own accord, gave him a triumphal reception on his entering that town.

PAREGORIC, or Paregoric Elixir (from the Gr. *parēgoricos*, soothing), the Compound Tincture of Camphor of the London, and the Camphorated Tincture of Opium of the British Pharmacopœia, consists of an alcoholic solution of opium, benzoic acid, camphor, and oil of anise, every fluid ounce containing two grains each of opium and benzoic acid, and a grain and a half of camphor. This preparation is much used both by the profession and the public. In doses of from one to three drachms, it is an excellent remedy for the chronic winter-cough of old people, the opium diminishing the bronchial secretion and the sensibility of the pulmonary mucous membrane, while the benzoic acid and oil of anise act as stimulating expectorants. It has also been found useful in chronic rheumatism.

PAREIRA-BRA'VA. See CISSAMPELOS.

PARELLA (Fr. *parelle* or *perelle*), a name often given to some of those crassaceous lichens which are used to produce Archil, Cudbear, and Litmus; but which

more strictly belongs to one species, *Lecanora parella*, resembling the Cudbear Lichen, but with somewhat plaited warty crust, and shields (*apothecia*) having a concave disk of the same color as the thick tumid even border. Like the Cudbear Lichen—to which it is far superior in the quality of the dye-stuff obtained from it—it grows on rocks in mountainous districts both in Britain and on the continent of Europe, being particularly abundant in Auvergne and other parts of France.

PARE'NCHYMA. See CELLULAR TISSUE.

**PARENT AND CHILD.** The legal relation between parent and child is one of the incidents or consequences of the relation of husband and wife, and flows out of the contract of marriage. The legal is to be distinguished from the natural relation, for two persons may be by the law of nature parent and child, while they are not legally or legitimately so. Hence a radical distinction exists between natural or illegitimate and legitimate children, and their legal rights as against their parents respectively are very different. Legitimate children are the children of two parents who are recognised as married according to the laws of the country in which they are domiciled at the time of the birth; and according to the law of England, if a child is illegitimate at the time of the birth, nothing that can happen afterwards will ever make it legitimate, the maxim being "once illegitimate always illegitimate"—a maxim which, as will be stated, has some exceptions in Scotland. In treating of the laws affecting the mutual relation of parent and child, the laws of England and Ireland, which differ from the laws of Scotland in material respects, will first be stated.

1. *As to Legitimate Children.*—These laws relate first to the liability of the parent to maintain the child, and the rights of the child in the event of the parent's death. As regards the maintenance of the child, it is somewhat singular that, according to the law of England, there is no duty whatever on the parent to support the child, and consequently no mode of enforcing such maintenance. The law of nature was probably considered sufficient to supply the motives which urge a parent to support the child, but the municipal law of England has not made this duty compulsory. This defect was to some extent remedied when what is called the Poor-Law was created by statute in the reign of Elizabeth, by which law parents and children are compellable to a certain small extent, but only when having the pecuniary means to do so, to support each other, or rather to help the parish authorities to do so. But apart from the Poor-Law statutes, there is no legal obligation on the parent to support the child, nor on the child to support the parent. Hence it follows, that if the child is found in a destitute state, and is taken up, fed, clothed, and saved from starvation by a stranger, such stranger cannot sue the parent for the expense, or any part of it, however necessary to the child's existence. In order to make the father liable for maintenance, there must in all cases be made out against him some contract, express or implied, by which he undertook to pay for such expense; in other words, the mere relationship between the parent and child is not of itself a ground of liability. But when the child is living in the father's house, it is always held by a jury or court that slight evidence is sufficient of, at least, an implied promise by the father to pay for such expenses. As, for example, if the child orders clothes or provisions, and the father sees these in use or in process of consumption, it will be taken that he assented to and adopted the contract, and so will be bound to pay for them. So if a parent put a child to a boarding-school, very slight evidence of a contract will be held sufficient to fix him with liability. Nevertheless, in strictness of law, it is as necessary to prove a contract or agreement on the part of the parent to pay for these expenses as it is to fix him with liability in respect of any other matter. When it is said that a parent is not compellable by the common law to maintain his child, it must, at the same time, be observed that if a child is put under the care and dominion of an adult person, and the latter wilfully neglect or refuse to feed or maintain such child, whereby the child dies or is injured, such adult will incur the penalties of misdemeanor; but this offence does not result from the relationship of parent and child, and may arise between an adult and child in any circumstances, as where a child is an apprentice or servant. The change as to the liability of parents to maintain their children, created by the Poor-Laws amounts merely to this, that if a person is chargeable to the parish, that is, not able to work as well as

destitute, and if the overseers or guardians are bound to support him or her, then the parish authorities may reimburse themselves this outlay, or part of it, by obtaining from justices of the peace an order commanding the parent or child of such pauper to pay a certain sum per week towards the relief. This is, however, only competent when the relative is able to pay such sum, and in all cases, the sum is of necessity very small. Not only parents, but grand-parents, are liable under the Poor-Law Act to the extent mentioned. Another provision in the Poor-Law and other kindred acts is, that if a parent runs away and deserts his children, leaving them destitute and a burden on the parish, the overseers are entitled to seize and sell his goods, if any, for the benefit and maintenance of such children; and if the parent, so deserting the children, is able by work or other means to support them, such parent may be committed to prison as a rogue and vagabond. Not only, therefore, is a parent during life not bound to maintain his or her child (with the above exceptions), but also after the parent's death the executors or other representatives of the parent, though in possession of funds, are not bound. It is true that if the parent die intestate, both the real and personal property will go to the children; but the parent is entitled if he choose, to disinherit the children, and give away all his property to strangers, provided he execute his will in due form, which he may competently do on death-bed if in possession of his faculties.

Another important point of law, affecting the mutual relation of parent and child, is the right of the parent to the custody of the child. At common law it is the father who has the right to the custody of the child until majority at least, as against third parties, and no court will deprive him of such custody except on strong grounds. Whenever the child is entitled to property, the Court of Chancery so far controls his parental right, that if the father is shewn to act with cruelty, or to be guilty of immorality, a guardian will be appointed. A court of common law also has often to decide in cases of children brought before it by *habeas corpus*, when parties have had the custody against the father's will. In such cases, if the child is under fourteen, called the age of nurture, and the father is not shewn to be cruel or immoral, the court will order the child to be delivered up to him; but if the child is above fourteen, or, as some say, above sixteen, the court will allow the child to choose where to go. So the father is entitled by his will to appoint a guardian to his children while they are under age. The mother had, at common law, no right as against the father to the custody of the children, however young; but under a statute of 36 and 37 Vict. c. 12, she is entitled to the custody of the child while under sixteen years of age, or rather she is entitled to apply to the Court of Chancery for leave to keep the children while under that age, provided she is unobjectionable in point of character; and access may be allowed to the father or guardian. If the parents separate by agreement, no stipulation will be enforced which is prejudicial to the child. In case of divorce or judicial separation, the Court of Divorce has power to direct who is to have the custody of the children.

2. *Illegitimate Children*.—It has been already stated that, at common law, the parent of a legitimate child is not bound to maintain it, and this is equally true of an illegitimate child—i. e., child born not in wedlock. In strictness of law, an illegitimate child has no father, which means practically that in case of the death of the father without making a will, the law will not treat such child as entitled to the ordinary legal rights of a legitimate child—i. e., to a share of the father's property. The child is not legally related to the father in this sense. With regard to the mother, she also is not bound to maintain her child according to the common law; but the Poor-Law Acts have made an important qualification of her rights and duties. As between the father and mother of the child, the law is this: The father is not bound even by the Poor-Laws to maintain the child, and the parish officers cannot now institute any proceeding whatever against him for this purpose; but the mother can, to a certain extent, enforce against him a contribution toward's the child's maintenance and education, or the guardians may do so. It is entirely discretionary on the mother to take any proceeding against the father, but if she chooses she can do so; and the first step is to go before a justice of the peace, and obtain a summons of affiliation. The father is thus cited before the magistrate, and if the mother swears that he is the father of the child, and is corroborated in some material part of this statement by a third party, the magistrate may make an order against the father to pay the expenses of lying-in, and

a weekly sum not exceeding five shillings till the child attains the age of sixteen. The mother may make this application either a few months before the birth, or within twelve months after the birth; and even after that time, provided she can prove that the putative father paid her some money on account of the child within such twelve months. The putative father, in these cases, is a competent and compellable witness. The utmost, therefore, that the father can be made to contribute towards the child's maintenance is only a portion of the whole, the chief burden being thrown on the mother, who is assumed to be the more blameable party. Though she is not bound by the common law to maintain her child, yet the Poor-Laws make her liable to maintain the child till it attains sixteen; and not only is she bound, but any man who marries her is also by statute bound to support all her illegitimate (and also legitimate) children till they attain sixteen. The result is, that illegitimate children under sixteen are better provided for by the present state of the law than legitimate children, inasmuch as the mother is positively bound to support her illegitimate child, and only to a less extent her legitimate child. As regards the custody of illegitimate children, the mother is the party exclusively entitled, for the father is not deemed, in point of law, to be related to such child. Yet if the father has, in point of fact, obtained the custody of such child, and the child is taken away by fraud, the courts will restore the child to his custody, so as to put him in the same position as before. Though illegitimate children will not succeed to the father's property in the event of his dying without a will, there is nothing to prevent him making his will in their favor, provided he expressly name and identify them, and not leave it to them by the description of "his children," which in point of law they are not.

*Scotland.*—The law of parent and child in Scotland differs materially from the law of England and Ireland. In Scotland, a child may be born a bastard, and yet if the parents afterwards marry, this will legitimise the child, and give the child the right to succeed to the father's property. A difficulty sometimes arises where, before the father and mother of a bastard marry, the father has had a legitimate family by another woman, in which case it is held that the bastard, though oldest in point of age, does not take precedence of the legitimate children. The law of Scotland also differs from that of England as regards the obligation of parent and child to maintain each other. There is a legal obligation on both parties to maintain each other if able to do so, and either may sue the other for aliment at common law; but this obligation extends only to what may be called subsistence money, and does not vary according to the rank of the party. Thus an earl is bound to pay no more for the aliment of his son than any other father. As regards all maintenance beyond mere subsistence, the law does not materially differ from that of England, and a contract must be proved against the father before he can be held liable to pay. The legal liability as between parent and child is qualified in this way by the common law, that if a person has both a father and a child living and able to support him, then the child is primarily liable, and next the grandchild, after whom comes the father, and next the grandfather. Not only are parent and child liable to support each other while the party supporting is alive, but if he die, his executors are also liable; and this liability is not limited by the age of majority, but continues during the life of the party supported. Such being the common law of Scotland, it was scarcely necessary, as in England, for the Poor-Law to supply any defect; but the Scotch Poor-Law supplements the common law, by imposing a penalty on a father or mother (though not *vice versa*) who neglects to support a child. Another advantage which a Scotch child has over an English child is, that the father cannot disinherit it—at least so far as concerns his movable property; and even in case of heritable property, the rights of the child were so protected, that unless the father made away with his heritable property sixty days before his death, or while in sound health, it was too late to prejudice his heir-at-law; this rule was, however, abolished in 1870 by 34 and 35 Vict. c. 51. This was called the Law of Death-bed (q. v.); but as regards the father's movable property, he cannot by any will he can make at any time of his life deprive the children of one-third, or, if their mother is dead, of one-half of such property. This is called the children's right to Legitim (q. v.), a right which they can vindicate, whatever may be their age when the father dies. With regard to the custody of children in Scotland, the rule is, that the father is entitled to the custody as between him and the mother; but if

Court of Session has power to regulate the custody in case the children are entitled to property, and the father is of an immoral or cruel character; and the court will also interfere to allow to the mother access to the children at certain times and seasons. Another important difference between a Scotch and English child is this, that whereas in England the father or guardian, or the Court of Chancery, has power to control the custody of the person of the child to a certain extent, until the child attains the age of 21, in Scotland such power entirely ceases when the child attains the age of 14 or 12, according as such child is male or female. At the age of 14, a boy, and at 12, a girl, in Scotland, is entire master or mistress of his or her movements, and can live where he or she pleases, regardless of any parent or court. They can marry at that age at their own uncontrolled discretion, and act in all respects with the same freedom as adults. As regards the disposition of their property there are some restrictions, but as regards the disposal of their persons there are none, after the ages of 14 and 12 respectively.

2. *Illegitimate Children.*—The law of Scotland as to illegitimate children also differs in some respects from that of England. Both the father and mother of a bastard are bound by law to support such child, and the obligation transmits to the personal representatives of the father or mother. Moreover, by the Poor-Law statute both are liable to a penalty for neglecting to support the child. The mother of illegitimate children is entitled to their custody till the age of ten, if daughters, and if sons, till the age of seven; but the limit is not clearly defined. If the father support the child after the above age, he is entitled to the custody. The mother does not apply to a magistrate for a summons of affiliation in order to fix the paternity; but she may bring an action of filiation and alimony, in which the question of paternity is settled. The father may be judicially examined, and is a competent witness; and it is usual for the court to decree an alimony, varying from £4 per annum against laborers, up to £10 against persons in better circumstances. In Scotland, as in England, the father of a bastard child is not deemed related, in point of law, to such child; and if he desires to provide for such child, it must be done by deed or will, in which the child is identified, and not merely described under the general designation of "child," which he is not.

**PARENTHESIS**, a term originally Greek, and signifying *insertion* or *intercalation*, is in composition a clause, or part of a sentence or argument, not absolutely essential to the sense, but generally serving either for explanation or confirmation, sometimes chiefly for rhetorical effect. A parenthesis is usually included between the marks ( ), instead of which the dash (—) at the beginning and end of the parenthesis is frequently but improperly employed.

**PA'RIAH DOG.** See CUR.

**PA'RIAN.** See POTTERY.

**PARIAN CHRONICLE.** See ARUNDEL MARBLES.

**PA'RIAS** is the name given to the lowest class of the population of India—to that class which, not belonging to any of the castes of the Brahminical system, is shunned even by the lowest Hindu professing the Brahminical religion, as touching a Paria would render him impure. The P. seem to belong to a negro race, as appears from their short woolly hair, flat nose, and thick lips; they are, besides, of short stature, and their propensities are of the coarsest kind. Despised by the Hindus, and ill used by the conquerors of India, they have, in some parts of India, gradually sunk so low that, to judge from the description which is given of their mode of living by different writers, it is scarcely possible to imagine a more degraded position than that which is occupied by these miserable beings.

**PA'RIDAÆ AND PARUS.** See TIT.

**PARING AND BURNING** consists in cutting off the surface of the soil in thin slices, which are then dried and burned. This is the most effectual way of reclaiming peat and other waste land, the surface of which is matted with coarse plants, difficult of decay. It is also applied advantageously to cold clay soils, apt to produce rank weeds and coarse grasses, which are to be broken up after lying for some time in grass. The ashes of the plants, consisting of potash and other salts, act as a powerful manure; while the clay being reduced to the state of brick-dust, both improves the texture of the soil, and acts as an absorbent for retaining moisture and

nutritive gases, and giving them out to the roots of growing plants. On thin light soils the operation is rarely advisable, for much of the scanty volatile vegetable matter is dissipated; however if care is taken to make the turfs merely smoulder without flame, so that the plants are rather charred than burned, it is doubtful whether more dissipation takes place than if the plants were ploughed down, and allowed slowly to decay. The plot to be reclaimed should, if necessary, be dried by stone or tile drains; and all large stones grubbed up, and carted or conveyed off upon sledges. The paring is to be done, if possible, in the months of April and May, in order to have the most favorable part of the year for drying the parings well before burning. There are ploughs specially made for paring, with a very flat share; but the best method is to employ the *breast-plough* or *paring-spade*, as the surface is in most cases very irregular, and it is desirable to have the slices very thin. The parings should be burned directly they are sufficiently dry, as, after lying a month or six weeks, they begin to unite with the ground, and imbibe moisture from the young grass vegetating beneath them. Sometimes they can be burned as they lie, without being collected into heaps; and in this way, the fire, in consuming the liny side, which is undermost, chars the surface of the soil at the same time. If burned in heaps, the heaps should be very small, in order to secure a good black ash, instead of the hard lumps of red ash produced by large fires. The weeds or refuse organic matters are thus only charred, instead of being entirely burned away; whilst the mineral matters are left in a soluble state instead of being reduced, as is too apt to be the case where the operation is carelessly conducted, into an insoluble semi-vitrified slag. To attain these desirable results a smouldering fire must be maintained, by keeping the outside layer of rods so close as to prevent the fire from kindling into flame. The ashes should be spread, care being taken to clear the bottoms of the heaps well out, so that the first crop may be free from patches. The cost of thus paring, burning, and spreading is about £1 per acre.

**PARIS**, a genus of plants of the small endogenous or dictyogenous natural order *Trilliaceæ*, of which one species, *P. quadrifolia*, called **HERB PARIS**, is not uncommon in moist shady woods in some parts of Britain. It is rarely more than a foot high, with one whorl of generally four leaves, and a solitary flower on the top of the stem, followed by a berry. The berry is reputed narcotic and poisonous, but its juice has been employed to cure inflammation of the eyes. The root has been used as an emetic.

**PARIS**, also called **ALEXANDER**, was, according to Homer, the second son of Priam and Hecabe, sovereigns of Troy. His mother dreamed during her pregnancy that she gave birth to a firebrand, which set the whole city on fire, a dream interpreted by Aescus or Cassandra to signify that P. should originate a war which should end in the destruction of his native city. To prevent its realisation, Priam caused the infant to be exposed upon Mount Ida by a shepherd named Agelaus, who found him, five days after, alive and well, a she-bear having given him suck. Agelaus brought him up as his own son, and he became a shepherd on Mount Ida, distinguishing himself by his valor in protecting the other shepherds from their enemies—whence his name, Alexander, “the defender of men.” An accident having re-united his parentage, old Priam became reconciled to his son, who married Oenone, daughter of the river-god Cebren. But his mother’s dream was to come true for all that. He was appealed to, as umpire, in a strife which had arisen among the three goddesses, Hera (Juno), Athene (Minerva), and Aphrodite (Venus), as to which of them was the most beautiful, the goddess Eris (Strife) having revengefully flung among them, at a feast to which she had not been invited, a golden apple (of discord) inscribed *To the Most Beautiful*. Each of the three endeavored to bribe him. Hera promised him dominion over Asia and wealth; Athene, military renown and wisdom; Aphrodite, the fairest of women for his wife—to wit, Helene, the wife of the Lacedæmonian king, Menelaus. P. decided in favor of Aphrodite, hence the animosity which the other two goddesses displayed against the Trojans in the war that followed. P. now proceeded to seek Helene, whom he carried away from Lacedæmon in her husband’s absence. “The rape of Helen” is the legendary cause of the Trojan war, on account of which P. incurred the hatred of his countrymen. He deceitfully slew Achilles in the temple of Apollo. He was himself wounded by a poisoned arrow, and went to Mount Ida to be cured by Oenone, who possessed great

powers of healing; but she avenged herself for his unfaithfulness to her by refusing to assist him, and he returned to Troy, and died. He was often represented in ancient works of art generally as a beardless youth, of somewhat effeminate beauty.

**PARIS** (the ancient *Lutetia Parisiorum*), the metropolis of France, is situated in  $48^{\circ} 50'$  n. lat., and  $2^{\circ} 20'$  e. long., on the Seine, about 110 miles from its mouth. The population of the city was, in 1866, 1,799,980; in 1869, 1,875,000; and in the spring of 1872, 1,799,260. Its circumference is upwards of 25 miles. It lies in a hollow, about 200 feet above the level of the sea, and is surrounded by low hills, which in their highest ranges to the north only attain an elevation of 290 or 300 feet, as at Montmartre and Belleville. These hills, which are separated by narrow vallées or plateaux, as those of St Denis to the north, Ivry to the east, Montrouge to the south, and Grenelle to the south-west, are encircled at a distance of from two to five miles by an outer range of heights, including Villejuif, Mennon, St Cloud, and Mont-Valérien, the highest point in the immediate vicinity of the city. The Seine, which enters P. in the south-east at Bercy, and leaves it at Passy in the west, divides the city into two parts, and forms the two islands of La Cité and St Louis, which are both covered with buildings.

The earliest notice of P. occurs in Julius Caesar's "Commentaries," in which it is described under the name of Lutetia, as a collection of mud huts, composing the chief settlement of the Parisii, a Gallic tribe, conquered by the Romans. The ruins of the Palatium Thermarum (Palais des Thermes), and of ancient altars, aqueducts, and other buildings, shew that even in Roman times the town extended to both banks of the Seine. Lutetia began in the 4th c. to be known as Parisia, or P., from the Celtic tribe of the Parisii, to whom it belonged. In the 6th c. P. was chosen by Clovis as the seat of government; and after having fallen into decay under the Carolingian kings, in whose time it suffered severely from frequent invasions of the Northmen, it finally became in the 10th c. the residence of Hugh Capet, the founder of the Capetian dynasty, and the capital of the Frankish monarchy. From this period, P. continued rapidly to increase, and in two centuries it had doubled in size and population. In the middle ages, P. was divided into three distinct parts—La Cité, on the islands; the Ville, on the right bank; and the Quartier Latin, or University, on the left bank of the river. Louis XI. did much to enlarge P., and to efface the disastrous results of its hostile occupation by the English during the wars under Henry V. and Henry VI. of England; but its progress was again checked during the war of the last of the Valois, when the city had to sustain several sieges. On the accession of Henri IV. of Navarre, in 1589, a new era was opened to Paris. The improvements commenced under his reign were continued under the minority of his son, Louis XIII. Louis XIV. converted the old ramparts into public walks or boulevards, organised a regular system of police, established drainage and sewerage works, founded hospitals, alms-houses, public schools, scientific societies, and a library, and thus gave to P. a claim to be regarded as the focus of European civilisation. The terrible days of the Revolution caused a temporary reaction. The improvement of P. was recommenced on a new and grander scale under the first Napoleon, when new quays, bridges, markets, streets, squares, and public gardens were created. All the treasures of art and science which conquest placed in his power were applied to the embellishment of P., in the restoration of which he spent more than £4,000,000 sterling in twelve years. His downfall again arrested progress, and in many respects P. fell behind other European cities.

Renovation of various sorts was recommenced under Louis-Philippe; but as lately as 1834, much of the old style of things remained; the gutters ran down the middle of the streets, there was little underground drainage from the houses, oil-lamps were suspended on cords over the middle of the thoroughfares, and, except in one or two streets, there were no side-pavements. It was reserved for Napoleon III. to render P. the most commodious, splendid, and beautiful of modern cities. When he commenced his improvements, P. still consisted, in the main, of a labyrinth of narrow, dark, and ill-ventilated streets. He resolved to pierce broad and straight thoroughfares through the midst of these, to preserve and connect all the finest existing squares and boulevards; and in lieu of the old houses pulled down in the heart of the town, to construct, in a ring outside of it, a new city in the most approved style of modern architecture. With the assistance of Baron Haussman, the Prefect of the Seine, his schemes were carried out with rare energy and good taste.

Two straight and wide thoroughfares, parallel to and near each other, crossed the whole width of Paris from north to south through the Cité; a still greater thoroughfare was made to run the whole length of the town, north of the Seine, from east to west. The old boulevards were completed so far as to form outer and inner circles of spacious streets—the former chiefly lying along the outskirts of the old city, the latter passing through and connecting a long line of distant suburbs. In the year 1867, when the international exhibition was opened, P. had become in all respects the most splendid city in Europe; and in that year it was visited by upwards of a million and a half of foreigners. Many further improvements were then contemplated. New botanical and zoological gardens were to be formed; the museums and class-rooms of the Jardin des Plantes were to be rebuilt; an underground railway was to be formed, crossing P. from east to west; Montmartre was to be levelled, and the Seine was to be deepened up to Grenelle, the point where it leaves the town; and there a harbor was to be formed for sea-going ships, which was to convert P. into a *port de mer*. Financial and political difficulties were, however, at hand (see FRANCE), and these great schemes had to be postponed. The siege of P. by the Germans, which lasted from 19th September 1870 to 28th January 1871, caused much less injury to the city than might have been expected—it was reserved for a section of the Parisian population to commit an act of Vandalism without a parallel in modern times. On the 18th of March, the Red Republicans, who had risen against the government, took possession of Paris. On the 27th March, the Commune was declared the only lawful government. Acts of pillage and wanton destruction followed. On the 15th of May, the column erected to the memory of Napoleon and the Great Army, in the Place Vendôme, one of the principal squares of P., was solemnly pulled down as "a monument of tyranny." The government troops under Marshal MacMahon attacked the insurgents, and kept them from doing further mischief. The former succeeded in entering Paris on the 20th of May, and next day the Communists began systematically to set fire with petroleum to a great number of the chief buildings of P., public and private. The fire for a time threatened to destroy the whole city. It raged with the greatest fury on the 24th, and was not checked until property had been lost to the value of many millions sterling, and historical monuments were destroyed which never can be replaced. The horror inspired by the Commune for a time drove the wealthy classes from Paris, and it was feared that it would lose its prestige as a European capital. This, however, has not proved to be the case. In the autumn of 1878, all the private houses burnt had been rebuilt—the monuments only partially injured had been restored, and the streets and public places were as splendid and gay as in the best days of the Empire. There remained, however, to recall the Commune, the blackened ruins of the Tuilleries, the Hôtel de Ville, and two or three other buildings to which we are about to refer.

The Seine, in passing through P., is spanned by 28 bridges. The most celebrated and ancient are the Pont Notre-Dame, erected in 1500, and the Pont-Neuf, begun in 1578, completed by Henri IV, in 1604, and thoroughly renovated in 1852. This bridge, which crosses the Seine at the north of the Ile-de-la-Cité, is built on 12 arches, and abuts near the middle on a small peninsula, jutting out into the river, and planted with trees, which form a background to the statue of Henri IV, on horseback, which stands in the central open space on the bridge. Among the other bridges, the handsomest are the Pont de la Concorde, 160 yards long, built in 1787—1790; the Pont du Carrousel, Pont d'Austerlitz, and the Pont d'Jéna, both of the time of the First Empire; and the Pont des Invalides, Pont de l'Alma, and Pont de Solférino—all handsome structures, adorned with military and naval trophies, commemorative of events and victories connected with the Second Empire. These bridges all communicate directly with the spacious quays, planted with trees, which line both banks of the Seine, and which, together with the Boulevards, give special characteristic beauty to the city. Although the most ancient quays—as those des Augustins and de la Mégisserie—date from the 14th c., the greater part of these magnificent embankments, measuring 12 miles in extent, is due to the first Napoleon and the late emperor.

Before speaking in detail of the streets, boulevards, and places or squares of P., it is proper to mention that the private houses as well as the public buildings are built of a light-colored kind of limestone, easily wrought and carved ornamentally. With this material, they are reared in huge blocks, rising to a height of six or seven

stories; each floor constituting a distinct dwelling; access to all the floors in a feme-  
ment being gained by a common stair, which is usually placed under the charge of a  
porter at the entrance. Very frequently, the tenements surround an open quadran-  
gle, to which there is a spacious entry, the gate of which is kept by a porter for the  
whole inhabitants of the several stairs. In these respects, therefore, P. differs en-  
tirely from London; for instead of extending rows of small brick buildings of a  
temporary kind over vast spaces, the plan consists of piling durable houses on the  
top of each other, and confining the population to a comparatively limited area. In  
the great new streets which were formed in the time of the late emperor, this general  
plan has been adhered to, but with this difference, that instead of being narrow and  
crooked, they are wide and straight. Among the finest of them are the Rue de  
Rivoli, two miles in length, the Rue de la Paix, the Rue du Faubourg St Honoré,  
and the Rue Royale. The Boulevards, which extend in a semicircular line on the  
right side of the Seine, between the nucleus of the city and its surrounding quarters,  
present the most striking feature of Paris life. In all the better parts of the city  
they are lined with trees, seats, and little towers called *Vespasiennes*, covered with  
advertisements. Restaurants, cafés, shops, and various places of amusement suc-  
ceed one another for miles, their character varying from the height of luxury and  
elegance in the western Boulevard des Italiens, to the homely simplicity of the  
eastern Boulevards Beaumarchais and St Denis. Among the public squares or  
places, the most noteworthy is the Place de la Concorde, which connects the  
Gardens of the Tuilleries with the Champs-Elysées, and embraces a magni-  
ficent view of some of the finest buildings and gardens of Paris. In the centre  
is the famous obelisk of Luxor, covered over its entire height of 73 feet with hiero-  
glyphics. It was brought from Egypt to France, and in 1836 placed where it now  
stands. On the site of this obelisk stood the revolutionary guillotine, at which per-  
ished Louis XVI., Marie Antoinette, Philippe Egalité, Danton, Robespierre, and a  
host of other victims. Of the other squares, the following are some of the most  
handsome: the Place du Carrousel, between the Tuilleries and Louvre; the Place  
Vendôme, already referred to, with Napoléon's Column of Victory; the Place de la  
Bastille, where once stood that famous prison and fortress; the Place Royale, with  
its two fountains and a statue of Louis XIII.; the Place de l'Hôtel de Ville, for-  
merly Place de la Grève, for many ages the scene of public executions, and the spot at  
which some of the bloodiest deeds of the Revolution were perpetrated. The Porte  
St Martin and Porte St Denis, which were erected by Louis XIV. to commemorate  
his victories in the Low Countries, and are adorned with bas-reliefs representing  
events of these campaigns, mark the ancient limits of the most turbulent quarters  
of the Paris of the past; while the Arc de l'Etoile, begun by Napoleon in 1806, and  
completed in 1836 at a cost of more than £400,000, may be said to form the extreme  
western boundary of the aristocratic quarters. This arch, which bounds the  
Champs-Elysées, has a total height of 162 feet, and a breadth of 137. It is profusely  
adorned with bas-reliefs and alto-reliefs, representing victories of Napoleon,  
which were injured during the bombardment of Paris, but which have since under-  
gone a complete restoration. The great streets which radiate from the Arc de  
Triomphe were among the most magnificent of those constructed during the recent  
improvements, and they still form the finest quarter of Paris. A great avenue  
runs east from it to the Palace of the Tuilleries, in the heart of the city.

The Palace of the Tuilleries (q. v.) was begun in 1566 by Catherine de' Medici, and enlarged by successive monarchs, while used as a royal residence, until it formed a structure nearly a quarter of a mile in length, running at right angles to the Seine. To the east of the Tuilleries, at a distance of more than a quarter of a mile, was erected the palace of the Louvre, forming a square of 576 feet by 538 feet, remarkable, especially the eastern façade, for its architectural beauty. The Louvre long since ceased to be a royal residence, and has been converted into a public mu-  
seum of antiquities. It was connected with the Tuilleries by a great picture gallery overlooking the Seine, and 1456 feet in length. North of the picture gallery, and between the two palaces, lay the Place du Carrousel, into the northern side of which, at the accession of Napoleon III., there intruded a mass of poor and narrow streets. One of the emperor's earliest improvements was to remove these buildings, and connect the Tuilleries and Louvre on the northern side, throwing them into one vast building, forming the most magnificent palatial structure in the world. The Tuille-

ries continued to be occupied as the residence of the imperial family; but the Louvre proper formed a series of great galleries filled with pictures, sculptures, and collections of Egyptian, Greek, and Roman antiquities. The Communists attempted to burn the whole pile, but fortunately only succeeded in destroying the Tuilleries (now being restored) and the north-western corner of the Louvre. The library of the Louvre, with its contents, was burned, but the rest of the building and its priceless treasures were saved. A large sum was voted by the government for the restoration of the Louvre, and this work was at once undertaken and carried forward with the utmost despatch. North of the injured part of the Louvre is the Palais Royal (q. v.), the most valuable part of which, fronting the Rue St Honoré, was set fire to by order of the Commune in 1871. The Palace of the Luxembourg, on the south side of the Seine, was built by Marie de' Medici in the Florentine style. It contains many magnificent rooms, some of which have been employed as picture galleries for the works of modern artists. The Luxembourg was formerly the House of the Peers, but since 1871 it has been used as the Hôtel de Ville. On the north bank of the Seine, opposite the Island of the Cité, is the site of the Hôtel de Ville, which, before its destruction by the Commune, was one of the most magnificent buildings in Paris. It was the residence of the Prefect of the Seine, who held a sort of court there, and it included all the offices for the transaction of the municipal business of Paris. It was commenced under Francis I., but had been trebled in extent by recent additions. The statues and rich ornaments with which it was decorated have been almost entirely destroyed, but the building is now (1877) more than half rebuilt in the style of its predecessor. Not far from the Hôtel de Ville, on the northern bank of the Cité, stands the Palais de Justice, a vast building, also set fire to by the Commune; some parts of it date from the fourteenth century, and others are modern. It is the seat of some of the courts of law, as the Court of Cassation, the Imperial Court, the Tribunals of the First Appeal and of Police. The old palace was not much injured by the fire; but the new portion which was constructed during the reign of Napoleon III., and much admired for its architecture, was left in ruins. Within the precincts of this palace are the Sainte Chappelle, and the noted old prison of the Conciergerie, in which Marie Antoinette, Danton, and Robespierre were successively confined.

The Conciergerie, just mentioned, in which prisoners are lodged pending their trial, constitutes one of the eight prisons of P., of which the principal is La Force. The Nouveau Bicêtre is designed for convicts sentenced to penal servitude for life; St Pélago receives political offenders, St Lazare is exclusively for women, the Madelonnettes for juvenile criminals, and Chichy for debtors.

The number of the institutions of benevolence is enormous. The largest of the numerous hospices or alms-houses is La Salpêtrière, probably the largest asylum in the world, extending over 78 acres of land, and appropriated solely to old women, 1300 of its 4500 inmates being insane patients; Bicêtre, with nearly 3600 beds, receives only men. The Hospice des Enfants Trouvés, or Foundling Hospital, provides for the infants brought to it till they reach the age of maturity, and only demands payment in the event of a child being reclaimed. The Crèches, or public nurseries, first established in 1844, of which there are now 18, receive the infants of poor women for the day at the cost of 20 centimes. Besides institutions for the blind, deaf and dumb, convalescents, sick children, &c., P. has 17 general and special hospitals. Of these the oldest and most noted are the Hôtel Dieu, receiving annually 13,000 patients; La Charité, and La Pitié.

The chief institutions connected with the University of France, and with education generally, are still situated in the Quartier Latin. The Sorbonne (q. v.), a large building erected by Cardinal Richelieu for the faculties of the old university of Paris, contains lecture-halls and class-rooms, and an extensive library open to the public. There degrees are granted by the University of France in the faculties of science, letters, and theology, and gratuitous public lectures are delivered, which are attended by a large number of students. Near the Sorbonne is the Collège de France, where gratuitous lectures are also delivered by eminent scholars and men of letters. The Ecole Polytechnique, the School of Medicine and the School of Law, the Observatory, and the Jardin des Plantes, with its great museum of natural history, lecture-rooms, and botanical and zoological gardens, are situated in the same quarter of Paris. The principal of the public libraries are those of the Rue Richelieu, now called the Bibli-

Bibliothèque Nationale, which contains more than 1,300,000 volumes, 150,000 manuscripts, 5000 portfolios of engravings, and a great collection of coins and medals (see LIBRARIES), which originated in a small collection of books placed by Louis XL in the Louvre. No city on this side of the Alps is richer than P. in fine-art collections, and among these the museums at the Louvre stand pre-eminent. The Palais des Beaux-Arts is used as an exhibition of art, manufactures, and architectural models. The Hôtel Cluny, connected underground with the Palais des Thermes, in addition to its being in itself a most interesting monument of medieval art, contains curious relics of the arts and usages of the French people, from the earliest ages of their history to the Renaissance period. The Mint deserves notice for the perfection of its machinery. The Gobelins, or tapestry manufactory, may be included under the fine arts, as the productions of its looms are all manual, and demand great artistic skill. The Conservatoire des Arts et Métiers, in the Rue St Martin, contains a great collection of models of machinery, and class-rooms for the instruction of workmen in all departments of applied science. The Palace of Industry, built in 1854 for the Universal Exhibition, now forms a permanent exhibition of the products of Algeria. It forms an immense parallelogram in the Champs Elysée.

Among the parish churches of P. (upwards of 60 in number), the grandest and most interesting, in an historical point of view, is the cathedral of Notre-Dame, which stands on a site successively occupied by a pagan temple and a Christian basilica of the time of the Merovingian kings. The present building was constructed between the 12th and 15th centuries; and in its present state of restored magnificence, it may rank as one of the noblest species of Gothic architecture. St-Germain-des-Prés, which is probably the most ancient church in P., was completed in 1163; St Etienne du Mont and St Germain l'Anxerrois, both ancient, are interesting—the former for its picturesque and quaint decorations, and for containing the tomb of St Geneviève, the patron saint of P.; and the latter for its rich decorations and the frescoed portal, restored at the wish of Margaret of Valois. The Sainte Chapelle, built by St Louis in 1245—1248, for the reception of the various reliques which he had brought from the Holy Land, is one of the most remarkable buildings in Paris, profusely decorated in all parts with brilliantly colored materials. Its present beauty is entirely due to the restorations completed by the late emperor at a cost of £50,000. It was threatened by the Commune, but saved. Among modern churches are the Madeleine, built in imitation of a Greek temple, and gorgeous with gildings, frescoes, carvings, marbles, and statuary; and the Pantheon, which was begun as a church, but converted by the Constituent Assembly of republican France into a temple dedicated to the great men of the nation—it was restored to the church by the late emperor, and rededicated to St Geneviève; Notre-Dame de Lorette, erected in 1823, a flagrant specimen of the meretricious taste of the day; and St Vincent de Paul, completed in 1844, somewhat less gaudy and more imposing in style; &c. Among the few Protestant churches, l'Oratoire is the largest and the best known.

P. abounds in theatres and places of amusement suited to the tastes and means of every class. The leading houses, as the Opéra Théâtre Français—chiefly devoted to classical French drama—Odéon, Théâtre Italien, &c., receive a subvention from government, and all are under strict police supervision. The new opera-house, completed in 1875, is a wonderfully magnificent building, costing, exclusive of the site, £1,120,000. Cheap concerts, equestrian performances, and public balls, held in the open air in summer, supply a constant round of gaiety to the burgher and working classes at a moderate cost, and form a characteristic feature of P. life; while, in addition to the noble gardens of the various imperial palaces, the most densely-crowded parts of the city have public gardens, shaded by trees, and adorned with fountains and statues, which afford the means of health and recreation to the poor. Beyond the fortifications to the west of P. is the Bois de Boulogne, converted by the late emperor from a wood covered with stunted trees into one of the most beautiful gardens in Europe. That part of it which skirted the fortifications was cut up and destroyed during the siege, but since then it has been replanted, and is now as attractive to visitors as it has ever been.

P. has three large and twelve lesser cemeteries, of which the principal one is Père-la-Chaise, extending over 200 acres, and filled in every part with monuments erected to the memory of the countless number of celebrated persons who have been

buried here. The Morgue is a building in which the bodies of unknown persons who have met with a violent death are placed, and which, if not claimed within three days, are buried at the public expense. The southern parts of the city are built over beds of limestone, rich in fossils, which have been so extensively quarried as to have become a mere network of vast caverns, which in some cases scarcely afford sufficient support to the houses above. These quarries were first converted in 1784 into catacombs, in which are deposited the bones of the dead, collected from the ancient cemeteries of Paris.

P. was surrounded, under Louis-Philippe, with fortifications extending 30 miles round, and costing £5,500,000 sterling; and, in addition to these, 16 detached forts have been erected at definite distances from one another. The Champ-de-Mars is a vast sandy plain near the Quai d'Orsay, on which reviews and other military displays and national festivals are held. Close to it stands the Ecole Militaire, founded in 1752, and used as barracks for infantry and cavalry, of which it can accommodate 10,000 men, with space for 800 horses. The Hôtel des Invalides, founded in 1670 for disabled soldiers, is situated on the left bank of the river. The crypt of the church contains the sarcophagus, hewn from a huge block of Russian granite, in which lie the remains of Napoleon, deposited there in 1840.

P. is divided into 20 arrondissements. The prefect of the Seine is the chief of the municipal government, and is appointed by the government. There is a large municipal council, chosen by popular election. Each arrondissement has a maire and two assistant councillors. The prefect of police is at the head of the civic guard or gendarmeries, the fire-brigade, and the sergents deville or city police, who are armed with a sword. The cleaning, sewerage, and water supplies of P. are under the charge of the prefect. P. is now abundantly supplied with pure and wholesome water; since 1854, the length of vaulted sewers has been doubled, and now amounts to upwards of 250 miles. The same may be said in regard to the paving of the city, and the street lighting is now adequately effected by means of some 15,000 gas-lights. In 1818, public slaughter-houses, or abattoirs, were established at different suburbs, where alone animals are allowed to be slaughtered. Large cattle-markets are held near the licensed *Abattoirs* (q. v.). There are in the heart of the city numerous *halles*, or wholesale, and *marchés*, or retail markets. The principal of these is the Halles Centrales, near the church of St. Eustache, covering nearly 20 acres. Among the older markets, the Halle aux Vins, in which 500,000 casks of wine can be stowed, and the Marché aux Fleurs, are perhaps the most interesting.

For an account of P., see "Le Nouveau Paris," by Labédolière; "Paris Illustré en 1870," by Ad. Joanne (Paris, 1870 and 1871); and Morlac's "Paris sous la Commune" (Paris, 1871). A great work, which was to include all the principal documents connected with the history of P., was commenced during the late empire, under the supervision of M. Hansmann. Seven large quarto volumes had appeared when the work was interrupted by the events of 1871.

**PARIS BASIN**, the collective name of the beds of Eocene age, which rest in a hollow of the chalk in the district around Paris, where they occupy an oblong area measuring 180 miles in greatest length from north to south, and 90 miles in breadth from east to west. The different sections into which the series has been divided are given under *Eocene* (q. v.). The beds are chiefly remarkable for the rich harvest of organic remains which they supplied to Cuvier, and which led to the foundation of the modern science of Paleontology. The strata from which these were principally obtained consist of a series of white and green marls with subordinate beds of gypsum; they are largely developed at Montmartre, where the gypsum has been extensively quarried for the manufacture of plaster of Paris. The fossils consist of land and fluviatile shells, fresh-water fish and crocodiles, and the bones of birds and quadrupeds, besides a few land-plants, among which are some palms. The mammals, of which about 50 species have been described, belong to the order *Pachyrhynchida*. The Paris Basin has for some time almost ceased to supply the remains of vertebrate animals.

**PARIS**, Matthew, the best Latin chronicler of the 18th c., was born about 1195, and in 1217 entered the Benedictine monastery of St Albans. After the departure of Roger of Wendover, in 1235, P. was chosen to succeed him as annalist of the monastery. He discharged his functions with veracity and boldness, in consequence

of which he greatly displeased some of his contemporaries. The principal external incident of his life was his voyage to Norway, whither he was invited by King Hakon, to repair the financial disorders in the Benedictine monastery of Holm. P. landed at Bergen, 10th July 1248, was courteously received by the Norwegian monarch, and settled the business about which he came in a satisfactory manner. After his return to England, he stood high in the favor of Henry III., who used to converse with him in the most familiar manner, and from whose lips he derived not a little of the information that makes his "Chronicle" so valuable. He had also a wide circle of influential friends and acquaintances among the clergy, from whom he obtained materials for his work. His death occurred in 1259. P. had a great reputation in his day for his virtues and abilities. He was considered a universal scholar, and is said by his laudatory biographers to have been versed in mathematics, poetry, oratory, divinity, history, painting, and architecture. One thing about him long kept his memory green in the hearts of his countrymen—he was a patriotic Englishman, and though a sincere Catholic (like all good men of his age), yet he loved his country better than the pope, and wrote so fiercely against the encroachments of the court of Rome in ecclesiastical matters, that his "Chronicle" became, in after times, a great favorite with the Reformers. P.'s principal work is his "Historia Major," which begins with the Norman Conquest, and extends to the year of the author's death. It was continued by William Rishanger, also a monk of St Albans, till the death of Henry III. in 1272. The first edition was published at London by Archbishop Parker, in 1571, and was reproduced at Zürich in 1608; later and more complete editions are those of London in 1640—1641, and in 1684. The only portion of the "Historia Major," however, which is properly the work of P., is that extending from 1285 to 1259; the previous part being nearly a transcription from the "Flores Historiarum," attributed to Roger of Wendover, whence some critics have supposed that P. is really the author of that work too. But this opinion is strenuously contested by the most recent editor of the "Flores Historiarum," the Rev. H. O. Coxe (4 vols. 1841—1842). Translations both of P.'s Chronicle and that of Roger of Wendover have been published by Bohn in his Antiquarian Library. The British Museum, and the library of Corpus Christi College at Cambridge, contain manuscript abridgments of the "Historia Major," made by P. himself, and entitled "Chronica Majora Sancte Albani;" a second abridgment is known as the "Historia Minor." Other works of P.'s are "Duorum Offarum Merciorum Regum Vitæ;" "Viginti trium Abbatum, S. Albani Vitæ;" and "Additamenta," being explanatory additions to his "Historia Major."

PA'RISH (Gr. *paroikia*, habitation, from *para*, near, and *oikos*, I dwell; Lat. *parochia*), the district assigned to a particular church, where the inhabitants of the district may attend at public worship, and receive the sacramental or other ministrations of the clergy. The name originally seems to have been interchangeable with *dæcæsis*, "diocese," and to have been applied to the district subject to the spiritual jurisdiction of a bishop; and, on the other hand, at a later period, *dæcæsis* was sometimes used to signify a parochial church or district. The distribution into parishes appears to be comparatively modern. Originally, all the clergy were (in the opinion of the Episcopalian church) but coadjutors of the bishop, and served in his church, at which all the faithful assembled. At Alexandria, and afterwards at Rome, a number of minor churches were opened (called at Rome *tituli*), which were served by clergy, originally not permanently attached to them, but sent from the principal or bishop's church, but in progress of time fixed permanently in the charge. This, however, was not common; and we find churches, with clergy permanently attached, much earlier in rural districts than in cities. The institution does not appear to have become general till the 9th or 10th century. In England, the first legislation on the subject occurs in the laws of Edgar, about 970. The parochial division of districts seems in great measure to have followed the civil distribution into manors, or other feudal divisions of territory; and it is probable that it is to the same state of things we owe the practice of lay patronage, the priest officiating in a manorial church being chosen, with the bishop's consent, by the lord of the manor. The parochial revenue, however, by no means followed the same rules which now prevail. At first, all ecclesiastical income, from whatever district, was carried into a common fund, which was placed at the disposal of the bishop, and was generally divided into four parts—for the bishop, for the clergy, for the poor, and for the

church. By degrees, however, beginning first with the rural parishes, and ultimately extending to those of the cities, the parochial revenues were placed at the disposal of the parish clergy (subject to the same general threefold division, for the clergy, for the poor, and for the church); and in some places an abusive claim, which was early reprobated, arose upon the part of the lord of the manor to a portion of the revenue. Properly, a parish has but one church; but when the district is extensive, one or more minor (*succursal*) churches, sometimes called "chapels of ease," are permitted.

In the law of England, a parish is an important subdivision of the country, for purposes of local self-government, most of the local rates and taxes being confined within that area, and to a certain extent self-imposed by the parties who pay them. The origin of the division of Eng'land into parishes is not very clearly ascertained by the authorities. Some have asserted that the division had an ecclesiastical origin, and that a parish was merely a district sufficient for one priest to attend to. But others have asserted that parishes had a civil origin long anterior to ecclesiastical distinctions, advantage being merely taken to ingraft these on so convenient an existing subdivision of the country; and that a parish was a subdivision of the ancient hundred, known as a *vill* or *town*, and through its machinery, the public taxes were anciently collected. Hobart fixes the date of the institution of civil parishes in 1179, and his account has been generally followed. Much difficulty has occasionally arisen in fixing the boundaries of parishes. Blackstone says the boundaries of parishes were originally ascertained by those of manors, and that it very seldom happened that a manor extended itself over more parishes than one, though there were often many manors in one parish. Nevertheless, the boundaries of parishes are often intermixed, which Blackstone accounts for by the practice of the lords of adjoining manors obliging their tenants to appropriate their tithes towards the officiating minister of the church, which was built for the whole. Even in the present day, these boundaries often give rise to litigation, and the courts have always decided the question according to the proof of custom. This custom is chiefly established by the ancient practice of perambulating the parish in Rogation-week in each year. See **PERAMBULATION**. There are some places as to which it is uncertain whether they are parishes or not, and hence it has been usual to call them *reputed* parishes. There are also places called extra-parochial places, which do not belong to any parish, such as forest and abbey lands. In these cases, the persons inhabiting were not subject to the usual parochial rates and taxes, and other incidents of parochial life. But in 1857, a statute was passed which put extra-parochial places upon a similar footing to parishes, by giving power to justices, and in some cases to the Poor-law Board, to annex them to adjoining parishes, after which they are dealt with in much the same way as other places. One of the chief characteristics of a parish is, that there is a parish church, and an incumbent and churchwardens attached to it, and by this machinery the spiritual wants of the parishioners are attended to. These several parish churches, and the endowments connected therewith, belong in a certain sense to the nation, and the incumbents are members of the Established Church of England, and amenable to the discipline of the bishops and the spiritual courts. The private patronage, or right of presenting a clergyman to an incumbency, is technically called an advowson, and is generally held by an individual as a saleable property, having a market value. The patron has an absolute right (quite irrespective of the wishes of the parishioners) to present a clerk or ordained priest of the church of England to a vacant benefice, and it is for the bishop to see to his qualifications. The bishop is the sole judge of these qualifications, and if he approves of them, the clerk or priest is instituted and inducted into the benefice, which ceremony completes his legal title to the fruits of the benefice. The incumbents of parish churches are called rectors, or vicars, or perpetual curates, the distinction being chiefly founded on the state of the tithes. When the benefice is full, then the freehold of the church vests in the rector or person, and so does the churchyard; but he holds these only as a trustee for the use of the parishioners. There are certain duties which the incumbent of the parish church is bound by law to perform for the benefit of the parishioners. He is bound, as a general rule, to reside in the parish, so as to be ready to administer the rites of the church to them. See **NON-RESIDENCE**. The first duty of the incumbent is to perform public worship in the parish church every Sunday, according to the

form prescribed by the Book of Common Prayer, which is part of the statute-law of England. He must adhere strictly to the forms and ceremonies, and even to the dress prescribed by the Book of Common Prayer and Canons. The incumbent is also bound to baptise the children of all the parishioners, and to administer the rite of the Lord's Supper to the parishioners not less than three times each year. The incumbent is also bound to allow the parishioners to be buried in the churchyard of the parish, if there is accommodation, and to read the burial-service at each interment. He is also bound to marry the parishioners on their tendering themselves, and complying with the marriage acts, within the parish church and during canonical hours, and it is said he is liable to an action of damages if he refuse. In respect of burials and marriages, certain fees are frequently payable by custom; but unless such a custom exists, no fee is exigible for performance of these duties. In many cases, where one church had become insufficient for the increased population, the old parish has been subdivided under the Church Building Acts, the first of which was passed in 1818, into two or more ecclesiastical districts or parishes, for each of which a new church was built, and an incumbent appointed. The incumbents in these ecclesiastical parishes have generally been provided for by the incumbent of the mother-parish or by voluntary benefactors, and by the aid of pew-rents. But these ecclesiastical parishes, so far as the poor and other secular purposes are concerned, make no change on the old law. Another incident of the parish church is, that there must be churchwardens appointed annually, who are accordingly leading parochial officers, and whose duty is partly ecclesiastical and partly civil. Their civil duties consist chiefly in this, that they must join the overseers in many of the duties arising out of the management of the poor, and incidental duties imposed by statute. But their primary duty is to attend to the repair and good order of the fabric of the church. The common law requires that there should be two churchwardens, one of whom is appointed by the incumbent, and the other is chosen by the parishioners in vestry assembled, but sometimes this rule is varied by a local custom. This appointment and election take place in Easter-week of each year. In electing the people's churchwarden, there is often much local excitement, and it is common to poll the parish, all those who pay poor-rates being entitled to vote, the number of votes varying according to the rent, but no person having more than six votes. See CHURCHWARDENS; CHURCH RATES.

The next most important business connected with the parish is that which concerns the poor, the leading principle being, that each union is bound to pay the expense of relieving its own poor. See OVERSEERS; GUARDIAN; POOR.

Another important feature of the parish is, that all the highways within the parish must be kept in repair by the parish, i. e., by the inhabitants who are rated to the poor. For this purpose, the inhabitants of each parish, in vestry assembled, appoint each year a surveyor of highways, whose duty it is to see that the highways are kept in good repair; and he is authorised, by the General Highway Act, to levy a rate on all the property within the parish. The office of a surveyor of highways is, like those of churchwarden, overseer, and guardian, a compulsory and gratuitous office. When a highway is out of repair, the mode of enforcing the repair is by summoning the surveyor of highways before justices, to shew cause why he has not repaired the road; and if the facts are not disputed, the justices either fine him, or order an indictment to be laid against the inhabitants of the parish. This indictment is tried, and the expense of it is defrayed out of the highway-rate, which is subsequently made. The highways of each parish being thus exclusively under the control of the ratepayers and their officers, it happened that great inequality prevailed in the standard of repairs which each parish set up for itself. This led to the late Highway District Acts, first passed in 1862, the object of which is to enable the justices of the peace of the district to combine several parishes into one district, and thus secure more uniformity in the repairs of the highways. A way-warden is now appointed to represent each parish at the Highway Board, instead of the old high-way surveyor; but the expenses of maintaining the highways is still ultimately paid by the parish in which they are situated, the only change being, that the expenses are ordered to be incurred by the Highway Board, instead of the parochial officer.

The above duties in reference to the parish church, the poor, and the highways, are the leading duties attaching to the parish as a parish; but over and above these,

many miscellaneous duties have been imposed on the parish officers, particularly on the overseers and churchwardens, which will be found specified under the head of **OVERSEERS**. In nearly all cases where the parish, as a parish, is required to act, the mode in which it does so is by the machinery of a vestry. A vestry is a meeting of all the inhabitant householders rated to the poor. It is called by the churchwarden, and all questions are put to the vote. Any ratepayer who thinks the majority of those present do not represent the majority of the whole parishioners, is entitled to demand a poll. At these meetings, great excitement often prevails, especially when there existed church-rates. Wherever a parish improvement is found to be desirable, the vestry may meet, and decide whether it is to be proceeded with, in which case they have powers of rating themselves for the expense. Such is the case as to the establishment of baths and wash-houses, watching, and lighting. Returns are made of all parish and local rates to parliament every year. The parish property, except the goods of the parish church, which are vested in the churchwardens, is vested in the overseers, who hold and manage the same, requiring the consent of the Poor-law Board in order to sell it. Of late, a statute has authorised benefactors to dedicate greens or playgrounds to the inhabitants of parishes, through the intervention of trustees.

In Scotland, the division into parishes has existed from the most ancient times, and is recognised for certain civil purposes relative to taxation and otherwise, as well as for purposes purely ecclesiastical. The Court of Session, acting as the Commission of Tehnids, may unite two or more parishes into one; or may divide a parish, or disjoin part of it, with consent of the heritors (or landholders) of a major part of the valuation; or apart from their consent, if it be shewn that there is within the disjoined part a sufficient place of worship, and if the Titulars of Tehnids (q. v.), or others who have to pay no less than three-fourths of the additional stipend, do not object. By Act 7 and 8 Vict. c. 44, any district where there is an endowed church may be erected into a parish *quoad sacra*, for such purposes as are purely ecclesiastical. Endowed Gaelic congregations in the large towns of the Lowlands may similarly be erected into parishes *quoad sacra*.

The principal application of the parochial division for civil purposes relates to the administration of the poor-law. Under the old system the administrators of the poor-law were the kirk-session in county parishes, and the magistrates, or certain managers selected by them, in burghal parishes. The Act 8 and 9 Vict. c. 88, which remodelled the poor-law of Scotland, retained the old administrative body so long as there was no assessment; but, on a parish being assessed, substituted for it a new one, consisting in rural parishes of the owners of heritable property of £20 yearly value, of the magistrates of any royal burgh within the bounds of the kirk-session, a certain number of members chosen by the persons assessed; and in burghal parishes of members, not exceeding 30, chosen by the persons assed, four members named by the magistrates, and not above four by the kirk-session or sessions. The Board of Supervision may unite two or more parishes into a combination for poor-law purposes. There is not the same extensive machinery for parochial self-government that exists in England. The burden of supporting the fabric of the church falls on the heritors, and there are no churchwardens. Highways are not repairable by the parish, and there are no elections of surveyors or way-wardens. The meeting of the inhabitants in vestry, which so often takes place in England, is unknown in Scotland, and hence the ratepayers do not interest themselves so much in local affairs. Many of the duties which in England are discharged by parochial officers, are in Scotland discharged by the sheriff-clerk, a county officer. The system of having a Parish School (q. v.) in every parish (a system extended by the Education Act of 1872) has long prevailed in Scotland, though unknown in England till the year 1870.

**PARISH CLERK.** in England, is an officer of the parish of some importance, his duty being to lead the responses during the reading of the service in the parish-church. He is appointed by the parson, unless some other custom of a peculiar kind exists in the parish. He must be 20 years of age, and has his office for life, but is removable by the parson for sufficient cause. By the statute 7 and 8 Vict. c. 59, a person in holy orders may be elected a parish clerk. Under some of the Church Building Acts governing the new churches built in populous parishes, he is annually

appointed by the minister. The salary of the parish clerk is paid out of the church-rate.

**PARISH SCHOOL.** In England, prior to the recent Education Act, there was no such thing as a parish school—that is, a school existing for the benefit of the parishioners, endowed by the state, or supported by taxes on the parishioners. Every school beyond charity schools was more or less voluntary in its character, and endowed, if at all, by private benefactors. In Scotland, however, it was essential that in every parish there should be a parish school, for a statute of 1696 made it compulsory on the heritors—i. e., the chief proprietors—to provide a school-house, and to fix a salary for the teacher. If the heritors neglected to supply a school-house, the presbytery was empowered to order one at the expense of the heritors. The schoolmaster's salary was fixed according to a certain proportion, half of the rate or cess being paid by the landlord, and half by the tenant. In 1803, a statute was passed to regulate the salaries, and to give a right to the schoolmaster to have a house and garden. The office was further regulated by a later act, 24 and 25 Vict. c. 107. The salary was fixed to be from £35 to £70 per annum, to be varied and fixed by the heritors and ministers of the parish, in the case of future vacancies. The qualification of the schoolmaster consisted in passing an examination conducted by the examiners of parochial schoolmasters, who were professors of the universities, who made regulations as to the time and mode of examination. For this purpose, Scotland was divided into four districts, each in connection with one of the Scotch universities. When examined, the person obtained a certificate of fitness from these examiners. The schoolmaster, who had formerly, before admission to office, been required to sign the Confession of Faith and the formula of the Church of Scotland, and to profess that he would submit to its government and discipline, had by this act merely to make a declaration that he would not, in his office, endeavor, directly or indirectly, to teach or inculcate opinions opposed to the divine authority of the Holy Scriptures, or to the doctrines contained in the Shorter Catechism, agreed upon by the Assembly of Divines at Westminster, and approved by the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland, and that he would not exercise the functions of his office to the prejudice or subversion of the Church of Scotland as by law established. In case of misconduct, the Presbytery might complain to the Secretary of State, who would institute a commission to inquire and report, and to censure, suspend, or deprive such schoolmaster accordingly. The sheriff of the county was made the sole judge of charges of immorality, or cruel or improper treatment of the scholars, offences formerly cognizable by the Presbytery; and the heritors and minister might permit or require him to resign, and allow him a retiring allowance. Notwithstanding all these improvements, however, it continued to be apparent that the system of parish schools, however well adapted to Scotland at the Revolution, had fallen behind the requirements of the country, when the population had tripled, and large manufacturing villages and towns had sprung up in rural districts. But for denominational and other schools, vast numbers of children would have been left without the rudiments of education. By the Education (Scotland) Act, 35 and 37 Vict. c. 62 (1872), the parish schools were placed under the management of the School Board of each parish, the jurisdiction of heritors, ministers, and church courts was abolished, and every school under the management of the School Board was declared to be equally a parish school. Teachers in office before the act are not to be prejudiced by its provisions; those whom the School Boards appoint are to have such salaries assigned them as the Boards think fit, and to hold office at pleasure of the Board.

**PARK** (*Fr. parc*), a term still employed in some parts of Britain, in its original sense, to denote a field or enclosure, but more generally applied to the enclosed grounds around a mansion, designated in Scotland by another term of French origin, *policy*. The park, in this sense, includes not only the lawn, but all that is devoted to the growth of timber, pasture for deer, sheep, cattle, &c., in connection with the mansion, wherever pleasure-walks or drives extend, or the purpose of enjoyment prevails over that of economical use. **Public parks** are those in the vicinity of towns and cities, open to the public, and intended for their benefit. An increase of public parks is a pleasing feature of the present age, and not a few towns enjoy parks recently bestowed by wealthy persons somehow connected with them.

**PARK**, Mungo, a celebrated African traveller, was the son of a Scottish farmer, and was born 10th September 1771 at Fowlshill near Selkirk. He studied medicine in Edinburgh, and afterwards went to London, where he obtained the situation of assistant-surgeon in a vessel bound for the East Indies. When he returned in 1793, the *African Association* of London had received intelligence of the death of Major Houghton, who had undertaken a journey to Africa at their expense. P. offered himself for a similar undertaking, was accepted, and sailed from England 22d May 1795. He spent some months at the English factory of Pisania on the Gambia in making preparations for his further travels, and in learning the Mandingo language. Leaving Pisania on the 2d of December he travelled eastward; but when he had nearly reached the place where Houghton lost his life, he fell into the hands of a Moorish king, who imprisoned him, and treated him so roughly, that P. seized an opportunity of escaping (1st July 1796). In the third week of his flight, he reached the Niger, the great object of his search, at Sego (in the kingdom of Bambara), and followed its course downward as far as Silla; but meeting with hindrances that compelled him to retrace his steps, he pursued his way westwards along its banks to Bannuakoe, and then crossed a monotonous country till he came to Kamalia, in the kingdom of Mandingo (14th September), where he was taken ill, and lay for seven months. A slave-trader at last conveyed him again to the English factory on the Gambia, where he arrived 10th June 1797, after an absence of nineteen months. He published an account of his travels after his return to Britain, under the title of "Travels in the Interior of Africa" (Lond. 1799), a work which at once acquired a high popularity. He now married and settled as a surgeon at Peebles, where, however, he did not acquire an extensive practice; so that, in 1805, he undertook another journey to Africa, at the expense of the government. When he started from Pisania, he had a company of 45, of whom 86 were European soldiers; but when he reached the Niger in August, his attendants were reduced to seven, so fatal is the rainy season in those regions to Europeans. From Sansanding on the Niger, in the kingdom of Bambara, he sent back his journals and letters in November 1805 to Gambia; and built a boat, in which he embarked with four European companions, and reached the kingdom of Housea, where he and they are believed to have been murdered by the natives, or drowned as they attempted to sail through a narrow channel of the river. The fragments of information and other evidence picked up among the natives by Claperton and Lander (q. v.), strongly confirm this view of the fate of P. and his companions. An account of P.'s second journey was published at London in 1815. P.'s narratives are of no inconsiderable value, particularly for the light which they throw upon the social and domestic life of the negroes, and on the botany and meteorology of the regions through which he passed; but he was unfortunately cut off before he had determined the grand object of his explorations—the discovery of the course of the Niger.

**PARK OF ARTILLERY** is the whole train of great guns with equipment, ammunition, horses, and gunners for an army in the field. It is placed in a situation whence rapid access can be had to the line of the army in any part; and at the same time where the divisions of the force can easily mass for its protection. The horses of the park are picketed in lines in its rear.

**PA'RKA**, the name given by Fleming to a fossil from the Old Red Sandstone, about which there has been considerable difference of opinion. The quarrymen call them "berries," from their resemblance to a compressed raspberry. They were compared by Fleming to the panicles of a *Juncus*, or the globose head of a *Sparagnum*. Lyell thinks they resemble the egg-cases of a *Natica*, while Mantell suggested that they were the eggs of a batrachian. The opinion now most generally entertained is that they are the eggs of the *Pterygotus*.

**PARKER**, a family of distinction in the annals of the British navy. The founder of the family was **SIR HUGH PARKER**, an alderman of London, who received a baronetcy in 1681.—His grand-nephew, **SIR HYDE PARKER**, commanded the British fleet in the action off the Dogger Bank, 5th August 1781, in which three Dutch ships were destroyed, and the rest of the Dutch fleet compelled to retreat into harbor. In 1788, he was appointed to the command of the British fleet in the East Indies; but the ship in which he sailed thither was lost, with all on board.—His second son, **SIR HYDE PARKER**, distinguished himself in the American war; blockaded the Dutch

harbor with a small squadron in 1782; commanded the British fleet in the West Indies in 1795; and in 1801 was appointed to the chief command of the fleet which was sent to the Baltic to act against the armed coalition of the three northern states of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark. He had no share in the battle of Copenhagen, in which Nelson engaged contrary to his orders; but by his appearance before Carlscrona, he compelled the neutrality of Sweden; and he was on the point of sailing for Cornstadt, when the news of Paul's death put an end to hostilities.—His kinsman, SIR WILLIAM PARKER, was also British admiral of high repute for his skill and bravery, and contributed to some of the great victories of the close of the last century.—SIR PETER PARKER, who was born in 1716, and died in 1811, with the rank of admiral of the fleet, served with distinction during the Seven Years' and the American wars; and in 1782 brought the French admiral, De Grasse, a prisoner to England, for which he received a baronetcy.—SIR WILLIAM PARKER, born in 1781, commanded the frigate *Amazon* in 1806, and took, after a hard battle, the French frigate *La Belle Poule*, belonging to the squadron of Admiral Linois; and in 1809 captured the citadel of Ferrol. In 1841, he succeeded to Admiral Elliot in the command of the fleet in the Chinese seas during the first Chinese war. He took possession of Chusan, Ningpo, and Shapu; forced the entrance of the Tang-tee-kiang; and arrived under the walls of Nanking, where the treaty of peace was agreed upon. For these services he received a baronetcy in 1844. He was afterwards appointed to the command of the fleet in the Mediterranean, and exerted himself, although in vain, to mediate between the Neapolitan government and the insurgent Sicilians. In autumn 1849, he sailed to the Dardanelles, at the request of Sir Stratford Canning (now Lord Stratford de Redcliffe), to support the Porte against the threatening demands of Austria and Russia concerning political fugitives; and in January 1850 he compelled the Greek government, by a blockade of their ports, to comply with the demands of Britain. Named in 1851 Admiral of the Blue, he resigned the command of the Mediterranean fleet to Admiral Dundas, was created Admiral of the White in 1858, Admiral of the Red in 1858, and Rear-admiral of the United Kingdom in 1862. He died in 1866.

PARKER, Matthew, the second Protestant Archbishop of Canterbury, was born at Norwich, August 6, 1504, studied at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, and was ordained a priest in 1527. At the university, he was a distinguished student, especially of the Scriptures and of the history of the church, even to antiquarian minuteness; yet, in spite of his strong leaning to the past, he was from an early period favorably disposed towards the doctrines of the Reformation, and lived in close intimacy with some of the more ardent reformers. In 1533, he was appointed chaplain to Queen Anne Boleyn, who thought very highly of him, and not long before her death, exhorted her daughter Elizabeth to avail herself of P.'s wise and pious counsel. In 1535, he obtained the deanery of the monastic college of Stoke-Clare in Suffolk—*Roman Catholicism*, it must not be forgotten, being still the professed religion of the land, for Henry had not yet formally broken with the pope—and here the studious clerk continued his pursuit of classical and ecclesiastical literature, and at the same time set himself to correct the prevailing decay of morals and learning in the church, by founding a school in the locality for the purpose of instructing the youth in the study of grammar and humanity. Here, too, he appears for the first time to have definitely sided with the reforming party in the church and state, the sermons which he preached containing bold attacks on different Catholic tenets and practices. In 1538, P. took the degree of D.D.; and in 1544, after some minor changes, became master of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, which he ruled admirably. Three years later, he married Margaret Harlstone, the daughter of a Norfolkshire gentleman. It was probably about this time that he drew up his defense of the marriage of priests, entitled "De Conjugio Sacerdotum." In 1552, he was presented by King Edward VI. to the canonry and prebend of Covington, in the church of Lincoln. On the accession of Queen Mary, he refused to conform to the re-established order of things, and was (like many others of the new school of divines) deprived of his preferments, and even obliged to conceal himself. It does not appear, however, that he was eagerly sought after by the emissaries of Mary; for he was no fanatic or iconoclast, but, on the contrary, though sincerely attached to the common Protestant doctrines, very unwilling to disturb the framework of the church. P. spent at least some portion of his compulsory seclusion from public life

in the enlargement of his "De Conjugio Sacerdotum," and in translating the Psalms into English metre. The death of Mary, and the accession of Elizabeth, called him from that learned retirement of which he seems to have been sincerely fond. Sir Nicholas Bacon, now Lord-keeper of the Gr. at Seal, and Sir William Cecil, Secretary of State, both old Cambridge friends, knew what a solid and sure judgment, what a moderate and equitable spirit, and above all, what a thorough faculty for business, ecclesiastical and secular. P. had, and by their recommendation he was appointed by the queen, archbishop of Canterbury. The consecration took place in Lambeth chapel, December 17, 1559.

The subsequent history of Archbishop Parker, it has been justly remarked, "is that of the Church of England." The difficulties that beset him were very great. Elizabeth herself was much addicted to various "popish" practices, such as the idolatrous use of images, and was strongly, we might even say, violently, in favor of the celibacy of the clergy. She went so far as to insult P.'s wife on one occasion. But his greatest anxiety was in regard to the spirit of sectarian dissension within the bosom of the church itself. Already the germs of *puritanism* were beginning a to spring up, and there can be no doubt that their growth was fostered by the despotic caprices of the queen. P. himself was manifestly convinced that if ever Protestantism was to be firmly established in the land at all, some definite ecclesiastical forms and methods must be sanctioned; to secure the triumph of order over anarchy, and so he vigorously set about the repression of what he thought a mutinous individualism incompatible with a catholic spirit. That he always acted wisely or well, cannot be affirmed; he was forced, by virtue of his very attitude, into intolerant and inquisitorial courses, and as he grew older, he grew harsher, the conservative spirit increasing with his years. To forbid "prophesying," or meeting for religious discourse, was something very like persecution, though probably enough something very like treason to the church was talked in these pious convivialities. Fuller (who must have his pun, however bad) says of him: "He was a Parker indeed, careful to keep the fences." Yet it must not be forgotten that it is to P. we owe the "Bishops' Bible," undertaken at his request, carried on under his inspection, and published at his expense in 1568. He had also the principal share in drawing up the "Book of Common Prayer," for which his skill in ancient liturgies peculiarly fitted him, and which strikingly bears the impress of his broad, moderate, and unsectarian intellect. It was under his presidency, too, that the "Thirty-nine Articles" were finally reviewed and subscribed by the clergy (1562). P. died May 17, 1575.

Among other literary performances, P. published an old "Saxon Homily on the Sacrament," by *Ælfric* of St Albans, to prove that Transubstantiation was not the doctrine of the ancient English church; edited the histories of Matthew of Westminster and Matthew Paris (q. v.); and superintended the publication of a most valuable work, "De Antiquitate Britannica Ecclesie," probably printed at Lambeth in 1572, where the archbishop, we are told, had an establishment of printers, engravers, and illuminators. He also founded the "Society of Antiquaries," and was its first president; endowed the university of Cambridge, and particularly his own college, with many fellowships and scholarships, and with a magnificent collection of MSS. relating to the civil and ecclesiastical condition of England, and belonging to nine different centuries (from the 8th to the 16th). Of this collection, Fuller said that it was "the sun of English antiquity before it was eclipsed by that of Sir Robert Cotton."

**PARKER, Theodore**, an American clergyman and scholar, was born at Lexington, Massachusetts, August 24, 1810. His grandfather was captain of a militia company at the battle of Lexington, his father was a farmer and mechanic, and his own boyhood was spent at the district school, on the farm, and in the workshop. At the age of 17, he taught a school, and earned money to enter Harvard College in 1830. During his collegiate course, he supported himself by teaching private classes and schools, and studied metaphysics, theology, Anglo-Saxon, Syriac, Arabic, Danish, Swedish, German, French, Spanish, and modern Greek. Entering the divinity class, at the end of his collegiate course, he commenced to preach in 1836, was an editor of the "Scriptural Interpreter," and settled as Unitarian minister at West Roxbury in 1837. The naturalistic or rationalistic views which separated him from the more conservative portion of the Unitarians, first attracted wide notice, in consequence of an ordination sermon, in 1841, on "The Transient

and Permanent in Christianity." The contest which arose on the anti-supernaturalism of this discourse, led him to further develop his theological views in five lectures, delivered in Boston, and published (1841) under the title of "A Discourse of Matters Pertaining to Religion," which was followed by "Sermons for the Times." Failing health induced him to make an extended tour in Europe. In 1845, he returned to Boston, preached to large audiences at the Melodeon, and wrote for the "Dial," "Christian Register," "Christian Examiner," and "Massachusetts Quarterly." He became also a popular lecturer, and was active and earnest in opposition to slavery, the Mexican war, and the Fugitive Slave Law, for resisting which, by more than words, he was indicted. In the midst of his work, he was attacked, in 1859, with bleeding from the lungs, and made a voyage to Mexico, where he wrote his "Experience as a Minister," whence he sailed to Italy, where he died at Florence, May 10, 1860. His works, consisting chiefly of miscellanies, lectures and sermons, have been collected and published in America and England, in which his peculiar views in theology and politics are sustained with great force of logic and felicity of illustration. His learning was equal to his energy and philanthropy, and his influence was also great. His library of 3,000 volumes he bequeathed to the Boston Free Library. See P.'s "Life and Correspondence," by Weiss (1864).

PA'RKESENINE, the name given to a substance introduced for manufacturing purposes by Mr Parkes of Birmingham. It is a combination of various vegetable ingredients, the number and proportions of which differ according to the qualities required to be given to the substance. Parkesine was first shewn in quantity at the International Exhibition of 1862. The basis is almost any vegetable fibre—such as cotton or flax waste, old rags, &c. The inflammable nature of these fibres is subdued by the addition of certain mineral neutral salts—sulphates, tungstates, &c. Naphtha is used as a solvent. Another component is oil, animal or vegetable, which may or may not be hardened by chloride of sulphur. The inventor has not made public the exact mode in which the various ingredients are combined; but it appears that the elasticity mainly depends on the oil, and the non-inflammability on the kind of neutral salt employed.

In a paper read before the Society of Arts on the subject of Parkesine, and in a discussion which followed the reading, it was stated that this substance is not affected by sea-water; it does not soften, like gutta-percha, by heat; it is a good insulator of electricity, even at a temperature of 212° F.; it may be made either opaque or transparent, plain or colored; it will make a very strong joint after fracture; it will resist most of the common acids; its tensile strength is greater than that of india-rubber or gutta-percha. In its hard form the surface can be so treated as to imitate marble, tortoiseshell, amber, or malachite. It may be moulded, pressed, turned, sawn, planed, carved, rolled, engraved, inlaid, or polished, according to the consistency given to it in the course of manufacture; or it may be made thin enough to use, when melted, as a varnish or protective coating or waterproofing. Among the many articles into which it may be fashioned, are included spinners' rolls and bobbins, knife-handles, combs, brush-backs, shoe-soles, umbrella and parasol handles, buttons, bookbinding, tubes, galvanic-battery cells, waterproof fabrics, surgical implements, and telegraphic insulators.—It is probable that the eventual success of compositions such as this will mainly depend on the price at which the material can be supplied per pound, compared with the prices of gutta-percha and india-rubber, the two substances which it is mainly intended to imitate or supersede. The supply of these two is wholly dependent on the sap of certain forest trees in torrid climates; the mode of obtaining the sap is recklessly wasteful; and it is not yet known how far a continuance of the supply can be relied on.

PARKHURST, John, an English biblical scholar, the second son of John Parkhurst, Esq., of Catesby, in Northamptonshire, was born in June 1728, educated at Rugby and at Clare Hall, Cambridge, where he took his degree of M. A. in 1752, and in 1753 published "A Serious and Friendly Address to the Rev. John Wesley, in Relation to a Principal Doctrine advanced and maintained by him and his Assistants." The doctrine assailed in P.'s pamphlet was the favorite Wesleyan doctrine of "Assurance." In 1762 appeared his principal work—indeed the only thing that has preserved his name—"A Hebrew and English Lexicon, without points, adapted to

the Use of Learners." P. kept mending this Hebrew lexicon all his life. It was a very creditable performance for its time, and long continued to be the standard work on the subject among biblical students in this country; but it is disfigured by its fanciful etymologies, partly the result of his having (like many other divines of his time) adopted the irrational and presumptuous theories of Hutchinson (q. v.), and is now entirely superseded by the works of Gesenius, Ewald, and other critical scholars. P. also wrote a treatise (1787) against Dr Priestley, to prove the divinity and pre-existence of Jesus Christ. He died at Epsom, in Surrey, March 21, 1797.

PARKINSONIA, a genus of plants of the natural order *Leguminosæ*, sub-order *Cæsalpiniæ*.—*P. aculeata* is a West Indian shrub or small tree, which, when in flower, is one of the most splendid objects in the vegetable kingdom. It has pinnated leaves, with winged leaf-stalk, and large yellow flowers spotted with red. It is furnished with strong spines, and is often used for hedges, whence it is called the Barbadoes Flower Fence. It is now common in India. The bark yields a beautiful white fibre, which, however, is not very strong; but it has been suggested that it might be found suitable for paper-making.

PARLEY, in Military Language, is an oral conference with the enemy. It takes place under a flag of truce, and usually at some spot—for the time neutral—between the lines of the two armies.

PARLIAMENT (Fr. *parlement*, from *parler*, to talk), the supreme legislature of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The word was first applied, according to Blackstone, to general assemblies of the states under Louis VII. in France about the middle of the 12th c.; but in that country it came eventually to be the designation of a body which performed certain administrative functions, but whose principal duties were those of a court of justice.

The origin of the Parliament of England has been traced to the Saxon great councils of the nation, called "Wittena-gemote," or meeting of wise men. These had, however, little in common with the parliaments of a later date: among other points of difference, they had a right to assemble when they pleased without royal warrant. Even under the Norman kings, the Great Council formed a judicial and ministerial as well as a legislative body, and it was only gradually that the judicial functions were transferred to courts of justice, and the ministerial to the privy council—a remnant of the judicial powers of parliament being still preserved in the appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords. Under the Norman kings, the council of the sovereign consisted of the tenants-in-chief of the crown, who held their lands *per baroniam*, lay and ecclesiastic. It was the principle of the feudal system that every tenant should attend the court of his immediate superior; and he who held *per baroniam*, having no superior but the crown, was bound to attend his sovereign in the Great Council or Parliament. In the charter of King John, we for the first time trace the germ of a distinction between the peerage and the lesser nobility, the archbishops, bishops, abbots, earls, and greater barons being required to attend by a writ addressed to each, and the other tenants-in-chief by a general summons by the sheriffs and bailiffs. Baronial tenure originally made a man a baron or lord of parliament. When the offices or titles of Earl, Marquis, or Duke were bestowed on a baron, they were conferred by royal writ or patent, and at length barony came also to be conferred by writ instead of by tenure. During the 18th c., the smaller barons were allowed, instead of personally attending the national council, to appear by representatives; but the principle of representation seems first to have been reduced to a system when permission was also given to the municipalities, which, as corporations, were chief tenants of the crown, to appear by representatives. It is not quite clear when the division of parliament into two Houses took place; but when the representatives of the minor barons were joined by those of the municipalities, the term Commons was applied to both. The Lower House was early allowed to deal exclusively with questions of supply; and seems, in the reign of Richard II., to have established the right to assign the supplies to their proper uses. As the Commons became more powerful, they came to insist on the crown redressing their grievances before they would vote the supplies. The influence of parliament was on the increase during the Tudor period, while the reign of the Stewarts was characterised by a struggle for supremacy between the parliament and the crown, each striving to acquire the control of the military force of the country. The power

the different estates came to be more sharply defined at the Revolution of 1688. Nineteen years later, on the Union with Scotland, the Parliament of England was merged into that of Great Britain.

In its early history, prior to the War of Independence, the Parliament of Scotland had probably not been very unlike that of England; it assembled without warrant, and consisted of bishops, earls, priors, abbots, and barons. At the close of the 13th c., the constitutional history of Scotland diverges from that of England. The addition of the burghs to the national council seems to date from the beginning of the 14th c., but it was not till much later that the lesser barons began to be exempted from attendance. The first act excusing them belongs to the reign of James I., and allows them to choose representatives called Speakers, two for each county, excepting some small counties, which were to have but one, the expenses of the representatives being defrayed by the constituency. The Scottish Parliament was never, like the English, divided into two Houses; all sat in one hall, and though it consisted of three estates, a general numerical majority of members was considered sufficient to carry a measure. The greater part of the business was transacted by the Lords of the Articles, a committee named by the parliament at the beginning of each session, to consider what measures should be passed; and whatever they recommended was generally passed without discussion. It was never held indispensable that the parliament should be summoned by the crown, and it has even been thought that the royal assent to the measures carried was not absolutely essential. The parliament which carried the Reformation had no royal sanction. The Union was adjusted by commissioners for each country selected by the crown, and passed first, after strong and protracted opposition, in Scotland, and afterwards more easily in England.

By the act of union with Ireland in 1800 (Act 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 67), the Irish Parliament was united with that of Great Britain as the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The Parliament of Ireland had been originally formed on the model of that of England about the close of the 13th c., but it was merely the very small portion of Ireland occupied by the English settlers that was represented, which, as late as the time of Henry VII., hardly extended beyond the counties of Dublin, Louth, Kildare, and Meath, and constituted what was called the Pale. It was only for the last few years of its existence that the Irish Parliament was a supreme legislature; the English Parliament having, down to 1783, had power to legislate for Ireland. By one of the provisions of Poyning's Act, passed in 1495, no legislative proposals could be made to the Irish Parliament until they had received the sanction of the king and council in England. Act 23 Geo. III. c. 28 gave the Irish Parliament exclusive authority to legislate for Ireland, and the abuse of this power so obstructed the machinery of government, as to render the Union of 1800 matter of necessity.

The power of parliament is, according to Sir Edward Coke, so transcendent and absolute, that it cannot be confined either for persons or causes within any bounds. All remedies which transcend the ordinary courts of law are within its reach. It can alter the succession to the throne, the constitution of the kingdom and the constitution of parliament itself. It has its own law, to be learned from the rolls and records of parliament, and by precedents and experience. One of the most thoroughly established maxims of this law is, that whatever question arises concerning either House of Parliament ought to be discussed and adjudged there, and not elsewhere. The House of Lords will not allow the Commons to interfere in a question regarding an election of a Scotch or Irish peer; the Commons will not allow the Lords to judge of the validity of the election of a member of their House, nor will either House permit courts of law to examine such cases. The authority of parliament extends to British colonies and foreign possessions. In the ordinary course of government, however, parliament does not make laws for the colonies. For some the Queen in Council legislates; others have legislatures of their own, which propound laws for their internal government, subject to the approbation of the Queen in Council; but these may be repealed and amended by parliament.

The constituent parts of parliament are the sovereign, the House of Lords, and the House of Commons. In the sovereign is vested the whole executive power: the crown is also the fountain of justice, from whence the whole judicial authority flows. To the crown is intrusted the permanent duty of government, to be fulfilled in ac-

cordance with the law of the realm, and by the advice of ministers responsible to parliament. The sovereign is also invested with the character of the representation of the majesty of the state. The sovereign's share in the legislature includes the summoning, proroguing, and dissolving of parliament. Parliament can only assemble by act of the sovereign; in but two instances have the Lords and Commons met of their own authority—viz., previously to the Restoration of Charles II., and at the Convention Parliament summoned at the Revolution of 1688; and in both instances it was considered necessary afterwards to pass an act declaring the parliament to be a legal one. Though the queen may determine the period for assembling parliament, her prerogative is restrained within certain limits. She is bound by statute (16 Chas. II. c. 1; and 6 and 7 Will. and Mary c. 2) to issue writs within three years after the determination of a parliament; and the practice of voting money for the public service by annual enactments, renders it compulsory for the sovereign to meet parliament every year. Act 48 Geo. III. c. 90 provides that the sovereign shall assemble parliament within fourteen days, whenever the militia shall be drawn out and embodied in case of apprehended invasion and rebellion; and a similar proviso is inserted in Act 15 and 16 Vict. c. 50, in case the present militia force should be raised to 120,000 men, and embodied. The royal assent is necessary before any measure can pass into law. The crown, as the executive power, is charged with the management of the revenues of the state, and with all payments for the public service; it is therefore the crown that makes known to the Commons the pecuniary necessities of the government, without which no supplies can be granted. The sovereign's prerogative also includes the sending and receiving of ambassadors, entering into treaty with foreign powers, and declaring war or peace. All the kings and queens since the Revolution have taken an oath at their coronation "to govern according to the statutes in parliament agreed on, and the laws and customs of the same." The sovereign is further bound to an adherence to the Protestant faith, and the maintenance of the Protestant religion as established by law. By the Bill of Rights (1 Will. and Mary c. 2, s. 6), and the Act of Settlement (12 and 13 Will. III. c. 2, s. 2) a person professing the popish religion, or marrying a papist, is incapable of inheriting the crown, and the people are absolved from their allegiance. This exclusion is further confirmed by the Act of Union with Scotland; and in addition to the coronation oath, every king or queen is required to take the declaration against the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church prescribed by 90 Chas. II. c. 2, either on the throne in the House of Lords in the presence of both Houses, at the first meeting of the first parliament after the accession, or at the coronation, whichever event shall first happen. The sovereign is bound by similar sanctions to maintain the Protestant religion and Presbyterian church government in Scotland.

The province of the Houses of Parliament is to legislate with the crown, to provide supplies, to exercise a supervision over the ministers of the crown and all other functionaries, and to advise the sovereign on matters of public moment. The Upper House, from its hereditary and aristocratic character, is a check on the popular branch of the legislature and on hasty legislation.

The House of Lords may originate legislative measures of all kinds, except money-bills. Acts of grace and bills affecting the rights of peers must originate in this House. In its judicial capacity, defined by the Appellate Jurisdiction Act, 1876, it forms a court of final appeal from Her Majesty's Court of Appeal in England, from the Court of Session, Scotland, and the superior courts of law and equity of Ireland. It has a judicature in claims of peerage and offices of honor under reference from the crown. Since the union with Scotland and Ireland, it has had the power of deciding disputed elections of representative peers. It tries offenders impeached by the House of Commons, and members of its own body on indictment found by a grand jury. The House of Lords is composed of lords spiritual and temporal. According to a declaration of the House in 1672, the lords spiritual are only lords of parliament and not peers, a distinction which seems not to have been known in ancient times. They consist of 2 archbishops and 24 bishops for England, who are said to have seats in virtue of their temporal baronies. (By the act of 1869, the Irish Church, which formerly sent 4 bishops, is no longer represented.) The Bishop of Sodor and Man has no seat in parliament, and on Manchester being made a see in 1847, it was arranged that one other bishop should be in the same position,

according to a rotation not including the bishops of London, Durham, and Winchester, so as not to increase the number of the lords spiritual. The lords temporal consist of—1. The peers of England, of Great Britain, and of the United Kingdom, of whom there were, in 1876, 5 princes of the royal blood, 21 dukes, 17 marquises, 109 earls, 24 viscounts, and 232 barons. The number of the peers of the United Kingdom may be increased without limit by new creations at the pleasure of the sovereign. 2. Sixteen representatives chosen from their own body by the peers of Scotland for each parliament. As no provision was made at the Union for any subsequent creation of Scottish peers, the peerage of Scotland consists exclusively of the descendants of peers existing before the Union. By order of the House of Lords, an authentic list of the Scottish peers was entered on the roll of peers on 12th February 1708, to which all claims since established have been added; and in order to prevent the assumption of dormant and extinct peerages by persons not having right to them, statute 10 and 11 Vict. c. 52, provides that no title standing in the roll, in right of which no vote has been given since 1800, shall be called over at an election without an order of the House of Lords. 3. Twenty-eight representatives of the Irish peerage, elected for life. Most peerages are still hereditary. Life peerages were in early times not unknown to the constitution; but in 1558, Her Majesty having created Lord Wensleydale a peer for life, the House of Lords decided he could not sit and vote. But in 1876, peers to sit as members of the House while they held the office of Lords of Appeal in Ordinary—i. e., for judicial business, but on ceasing to act as judges to be peers no longer—were created by statute. The House has also power to call to its assistance in legal and constitutional questions the judges of the Supreme Court of Judicature of all the four divisions, who advise what should be done. The House has power also to sit for judicial business during the prorogation of parliament. The votes of spiritual and temporal lords are intermixed, and the joint majority determine every question; but they sit apart on separate benches—the place assigned to the lords spiritual being the upper part of the House on the right hand of the throne. A lord may, by license from the sovereign, appoint another lord as his proxy to vote for him in his absence; but a lord spiritual can only be proxy for a lord spiritual, and a lord temporal for a lord temporal, and no member of the House can hold more than two proxies at the same time. Proxies cannot vote in judicial questions or in committees of the whole House. There are other rules and restrictions incident to the right of vote by proxy; a Lords' committee in 1867 reported that the practice of using proxies should be discontinued, but no alteration to the rules was agreed to. Peerages are lost by attainer for high treason. Neither the issue of the body of the person attainted, nor, on their failure, the descendants of the person first called to the dignity, will be admitted to it without a removal of the attainted. But where the attainted person is tenant in tail-male, with a remainder in tail-male to another, the dignity becomes vested in the remainder man on failure of the issue of the person attainted. A peerage, whether by patent or writ, is forfeited by attainer for high treason; attainer for felony forfeits a peerage by writ, not one by patent. An attainted peerage cannot be restored by the crown, only by an act of parliament.

The House of Commons, besides its general power to introduce legislative measures, has the sole right to originate bills levying taxes, or affecting the public income and expenditure, and to examine into the validity of elections to its own body. The question whether it has any control over the rights of electors was the subject of a memorable contest between the Lords and Commons in 1704, in the cases of Ashby and White, and of the "Aylesbury men" ("Hatsell's Precedents," vol. iii.), a contest ended by the queen proroguing parliament. When inquiring into the conflicting claims of candidates for seats in parliament, the Commons have an undoubted power to determine whether electors have the right to vote. The House of Commons has the right to expel or commit to prison its own members, and to commit other persons who offend by breach of its privileges, contempt of its authority, disobedience of its orders, or invasion of its rights; but this power is limited to the duration of the session. Expulsion does not, however, create any disability to serve again in parliament. The House of Commons has also the power of impeaching offenders, who, however, are tried at the bar of the House of Lords.

The number of members of the House of Commons has varied greatly at different times. In the reign of Edward I. it seems to have been 255; in

that of Edward III., 250; and of Henry VI., 300. In the reign of Henry VIII., 27 members were added for Wales, and 4 for the county and city of Chester; 4 were added for the county and city of Durham in the reign of Charles II: Between the reign of Henry VIII. and that of Charles II., 180 new members were added by the granting of royal charters to boroughs which had not previously returned representatives. Forty-five members were assigned as her proportion to Scotland at the Union, and 100 to Ireland, making the whole number of members of the House of Commons of the United Kingdom 658. The Reform Acts of 1832, 2 Will. IV. c. 45 for England, 2 and 3 Will. IV. c. 65 (amended by 4 and 5 Will. IV. c. 88, and 5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 78) for Scotland, and 2 and 3 Will. IV. c. 88 for Ireland, while leaving unaltered the whole number of members of the House of Commons, made great changes in the distribution of their seats. Fifty-six boroughs in England and Wales were entirely disfranchised; 30 which had previously returned two members were restricted to one; while 42 new boroughs were created, of which 22 were each to return two members, and 20 a single member. Several small boroughs in Wales were united to elect one member. Four members were assigned to the city of London, 2 to each of the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, and 1 to 133 cities and boroughs. The number of members for Scotland was increased from 45 to 53, 30 being county and 23 borough members, some of the latter representing several combined boroughs. The number of members for Ireland was increased from 100 to 105, 64 representing counties, 34 cities and boroughs, and 2 the University of Dublin. Further extensive changes in the distribution of seats were made by the recent Reform Acts of 1867 and 1868, 30 and 31 Vict. c. 102 for England, and 31 and 32 Vict. c. 48 for Scotland. The English act deprived of its second member each borough of less than 10,000 inhabitants, and altogether disfranchised seven boroughs, giving 45 seats for re-distribution, of which 25 were given to the larger counties, 11 to new boroughs, 8 to boroughs already represented, and one to the University of London. The Scotch act united the counties of Selkirk and Peebles into one constituency; gave a member to the universities of Edinburgh and St Andrews, and another to the universities of Glasgow and Aberdeen, a second member to each of the counties of Lanark, Ayr, and Aberdeen, and to the town of Dundee, and a third member to Glasgow; and constituted Hawick, Galashiels, and Selkirk into a new district of boroughs; the seven new seats required being provided for by a further disfranchisement of small English boroughs. The Irish Reform Act, 31 and 32 Vict. c. 49, made no change in the distribution of seats. The whole number of 658 seats was thus left unaltered, but the disfranchisement of two English and two Irish boroughs for bribery has since reduced the number to 652, which are thus distributed:

|                        | Counties. | Boroughs. | Universities. | Total. |
|------------------------|-----------|-----------|---------------|--------|
| England and Wales..... | 187       | 295       | 5             | 487    |
| Scotland.....          | 32        | 26        | 2             | 60     |
| Ireland.....           | 64        | 39        | 2             | 105    |
|                        | 283       | 360       | 9             | 652    |

In English counties, prior to the act of 1832, the electoral qualification was founded on the holding of freehold property of the yearly value of 40s.: by that act every person who at the date was seized for his own life and that of another, or for any lives whatever, of a 40s. freehold, or who might be seized subsequently to the act if in occupation, or who might come into such freehold estate by marriage, marriage-settlement, devise, or promotion to any benefice or office, could still vote as a freeholder; but a person not included in these classes, acquiring a freehold subsequently to the act, had only the franchise when it was of the clear yearly value of £10, which value was reduced to £5 by the act of 1867. Copyholders holding an estate of £10 a year, leaseholders of that value whose leases were originally granted for 60 years, leaseholders of £50 with 20 years' leases, and tenants at will occupying lands or tenements paying a rent of £50, had the franchise under the act of 1832; and the act of 1867 reduced the franchise of copyholders and leaseholders from £10 to £5, and the occupation franchise from £50 to £12. In boroughs, the old qualification varied according to local usage, and some of the ancient rights, as that of freemen, were retained in 1832, when the franchise was bestowed on all occupiers

of houses of £10 yearly value. The act of 1867 extended the borongh franchise to all occupiers of dwelling-houses who have resided for 12 months on the 31st of July in any year, and have been rated to the poor-rates as ordinary occupiers, and have, on or before the 20th July, paid such rates up to the preceding 5th January, and to lodgers who have occupied for the same period lodgings of the annual value, unfurnished, of £12. In Scotland, the old county qualification consisted in being iuseft in lands or superiorities holding directly of the crown of 40s. old extent (see *VALUATION*), or £400 Scots valued rent: and the Scotch act of 1832 reserved the rights of persons then on the roll of freeholders, or entitled to be put on it, and extended the franchise to all owners of property of the clear yearly value of £10, and to certain classes of leaseholders. By the act of 1868, the county franchise was further extended to proprietors of lands of £5 yearly value, and occupiers of the rateable value of £20. The Scottish burghal franchise had, prior to 1832, been vested in the town-councils: the act of 1832 substituted a £10 household franchise, and that of 1868 conferred the franchise on all occupiers of houses paying rates.

By the Irish Reform Act of 1832, various classes of freeholders were invested with the county franchise, to whom were added, by 18 and 14 Vict. c. 69, occupiers of land rated for the poor-rate at a net annual value of £12, and persons entitled to estates in fee, or in tail, or for life, of the rated value of £5. The Irish borough qualification was nearly the same as the English, but the above-mentioned statute of Victoria added to the constituency the occupiers of lands and prenises rated at £8. The act of 1868 made no change in the county qualification, but gave the borough franchise to occupiers of houses rated at £4, and of lodgings of the annual value of £10 unfurnished. Certain disqualifications exist from exercising the franchise on the grounds of infamy, alienage, conviction of felony, and the holding of government offices. Peers cannot vote. In the universities of Cambridge and Oxford, the constituency consists of the doctors and masters of arts; in Dublin, of the fellows, scholars, and graduates of Trinity College. In London University, the graduates form the constituency; in the Scotch universities, the chancellor, the members of the university court, the professors, and the members of general council. Under the acts of 1867 and 1868, in London, where four members are returned, each elector has only three votes; and in Glasgow, which returns three members, each elector has but two votes.

The Reform Acts of 1832 introduced a system of registration of voters for the three divisions of the United Kingdom. In England, lists of voters are prepared by the overseers of each parish, and on certain days courts are held by barristers appointed by the chief-justice and the senior judge of each summer circuit to revise these lists, when claims may be made for persons omitted, and objections offered to names standing on the list. If an objection be sustained, the name is struck off the list, there being an appeal from the decision of the revising barrister to the Court of Common Pleas. In Scotland, a register of persons entitled to vote is made up annually in counties and boronghs in terms of the Registration of Voters (Scotland) Act, 24 and 25 Vict. c. 23, which register is printed, and may be had for a small price. Voters are thus put on the roll without trouble to themselves, and, in point of fact, without their consent. Enrolment, however, may be challenged, in which case objections are heard and determined by the sheriffs, subject (under the act of 1868) to appeal to a tribunal composed of three judges of the Court of Session. The registration system of Ireland introduced by the Reform Act resembles that of England; and by 16 and 17 Vict. c. 58, provision is made for the annual revision of the list of voters for the city of Dublin.

A property qualification of £600 a year in candidates for counties, and £300 in candidates for boronghs, which had previously existed in England and Ireland, was left untouched in 1831, but has been abolished by 21 and 22 Vict. c. 26. Scotch peers, though not representative peers, are disqualified from sitting in the House of Commons. Irish peers may represent any constituency in Great Britain, but not in Ireland. A disqualification is also attached to judges (except the Master of the Rolls), clergymen of the Established Church of any of the three kingdoms, Roman Catholic priests, revenue officers, persons convicted of treason and felony, and aliens even when naturalised, unless the right have been conceded in express terms. Sheriffs cannot sit for their own counties, and government contractors are disqualified, a disqualification which does not extend to contractors for government loans. A member becoming bankrupt is incapacitated from sitting or voting.

When a new parliament has to be assembled, the Lord Chancellor, by order of the sovereign, directs the Clerk of the Crown to prepare and issue, under the Great Seal, writs to the sheriffs of counties, both for the counties and the boroughs. A sheriff, on receiving the writ for a county, appoints a day for the election, and by the practice prior to the Ballot Act, 1872 (35 and 36 Vict. c. 88), on the day fixed, he proclaimed the writ. If no more candidates were then proposed than were to be elected, he declared them duly elected; if there was opposition, a show of hands was asked, and the sheriff declared who had the majority. If a poll was demanded by the opposite party, the election was adjourned. The electors of each district voted at their several polling-places, and at the termination of the poll, the return was transmitted to the sheriff, who proclaimed the successful candidate. In borough elections in England and Ireland, the sheriff, on receiving the writ, issued his precept to the returning officer of the municipality, who superintended the election; in Scotland, the sheriff himself superintended the borough as well as the county elections. The names of the persons elected, both in counties and boroughs, were returned by the sheriff to the Clerk of the Crown. The candidates are now nominated by a writing signed by two electors, as proposer and seconder, and eight others as consenting, and delivered to the returning officer; if on expiry of an hour from the time fixed, there are more candidates than vacancies, the election is adjourned, and a poll taken. The vote is given by Ballot (q. v.), and the result announced by the returning officer, and returned to the Clerk of the Crown in Chancery. Vacancies occurring after a general election are supplied by new writs issued by authority of the House. When it is determined that a writ should be amended, the Clerk of the Crown is ordered to attend the House, and amend it accordingly.

A member of the House of Commons cannot, in theory, resign his seat; but on the acceptance of any office of profit under the crown, his election is, by an act of Queen Anne, declared void, and a new writ issues, he being, however, eligible for re-election. By the Reform Act of 1867, members who already hold certain offices do not vacate their seats on the acceptance of certain other offices enumerated, the list seemingly comprehending all offices usually held by members. The resignation of office is held not to be complete until the appointment of a successor; and on the resumption of office, the seat is held not to have been vacated. A first commission in the army or navy vacates a seat; subsequent commissions do not do so. A member wishing to resign usually applies for the stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds (q. v.).

**Privilege.**—Both Houses of Parliament possess extensive privileges for the maintenance of their authority and the protection of individual members. Some of these privileges have well-defined limits; others are so vague in their extent as occasionally to lead to conflicts between parliament and the courts of law. The privilege of speech is claimed of the sovereign by the Speaker of the House of Commons at the opening of every new parliament. At the same time, any member using offensive expressions may be called to the bar to receive a reprimand from the Speaker; or, if the offence be grave, may be committed for contempt, in which case he is sent either to the Tower or to Newgate. Persons not members of the House may also be committed for breach of privilege, and no one committed for contempt can be admitted to bail, nor can the cause of commitment be inquired into by the courts of law. The publication of the debates of either House has repeatedly been declared a breach of privilege; but for a long time back this privilege has been practically waived, except where the reports are false and perverted. Publication of the evidence before a select committee previously to its being reported is punished as a breach of privilege. Libellous reflections on the character and proceedings of parliament, or of members of the House, come under the same category, as also does assaulting or threatening a member. Wilful disobedience to the orders of the House is punishable as a breach of privilege; but if orders be given beyond the jurisdiction of the House, their enforcement may be questioned in a court of law. The offer of a bribe to, or its acceptance by a member is a breach of privilege; so also is any interference with the officers of the House in the execution of their duty, or tampering with witnesses who are to be examined before the House, or a committee of the House. Members of both Houses are free from arrest or imprisonment in civil matters, a privilege which is permanent in the case of peers, extending also to peeresses, whether by creation or marriage (though the latter lose it by subse-

quently marrying a commoner), and to peers and peeresses of Scotland and Ireland, whether representatives or not. It continues in the case of members of the House of Commons during the sitting of parliament, for 40 days after each prorogation, for 40 days prior to the day to which parliament is prorogued, and for a reasonable time after a dissolution. Witnesses summoned to attend before parliament or parliamentary committees, and other persons in attendance on the business of parliament, are also protected from arrest. Protection is not claimable from arrest for any indictable offence. Counsel are protected for any statements that they may make professionally.

*Meeting of a New Parliament.*—On the day appointed for the meeting of a new parliament, the members of the two Houses assemble in their respective chambers. In the Lords, the Lord Chancellor acquaints the House that "her Majesty, not thinking it fit to be personally present here this day, had been pleased to cause a commission to be issued under the Great Seal, in order to the opening and holding of the parliament." The Lords Commissioners, being in their robes, and seated between the throne and woolsack, then command the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod to let the Commons know that the "Lords Commissioners desire their immediate attendance in this House to hear the Commission read." Meantime, in the Lower House, the Clerk of the Crown in Chancery has delivered to the Clerk of the House a list of the members returned to serve; and on receiving the message from Black Rod, the Commons go up to the House of Lords. The commission having been read in presence of the members of both houses, the Lord Chancellor opens the parliament by stating "that her Majesty will, as soon as the members of both Houses shall be sworn, declare the causes of her calling this parliament; and it being necessary that a Speaker of the House of Commons should first be chosen, that you, gentlemen of the House of Commons, repair to the place where you are to sit, and there proceed to the appointment of some proper person as your Speaker, and that you present such person whom you shall so choose here to-morrow at o'clock, for her Majesty's royal approbation." The Commons immediately withdraw, and, returning to their own House, proceed to elect a Speaker.

Till a speaker be elected, the clerk acts as Speaker, standing and pointing to members as they rise to speak, and then sitting down. If only one candidate be proposed for the office, the motion, after being seconded, is supported by an influential member, generally the leader of the House of Commons; and the member proposed, having expressed his sense of the honor meant to be conferred on him, is called by the House to the chair, to which he is led by his proposer and seconder. If another member be proposed and seconded, a debate ensues; and at its close, the clerk puts the question, that the member first proposed "do take the chair of the House as Speaker." If the House divide, he directs one party to go into the right lobby, and the other into the left, and appoints two tellers for each. If the majority be in favor of the member first proposed, he is led to the chair; if not, a similar question being put regarding the other member, and answered in the affirmative, he is conducted to the chair. The Speaker-elect expresses his thanks for the honor conferred on him, and takes his seat; on which, the mace is laid on the table, where it is always placed during the sitting of the House with the Speaker in the chair. He is then congratulated by some leading member, and the House adjourns. The next day, the Speaker-elect, on the arrival of Black Rod, proceeds with the Commons to the House of Lords, where his election is approved by the Lord Chancellor. He then lays claim, on behalf of the Commons, to their ancient rights and privileges, which being confirmed, he retires with the Commons from the bar. Nearly the same forms are observed on the election of a new Speaker, when a vacancy occurs by death or resignation in the course of the session.

The members of both Houses then take the oath prescribed by law. See **OATH; ABJURATION**. In the Upper House, the Lord Chancellor first takes the oath singly at the table. The Clerk of the Crown delivers a certificate of the return of the Scottish representative peers, and Garter King-at-arms the roll of the lords temporal, after which the lords present take and subscribe the oath. Peers who have been newly created by letters-patent present their patents to the Lord Chancellor, are introduced in their robes between two other peers of their own dignity, preceded by Black Rod and Garter, and conducted to their places. The same ceremony is observed in the case of peers who have received a writ of summons—a formality neces-

sary when a member of the Lower House succeeds to a peerage ; otherwise his seat does not become vacant. A bishop is introduced by two other bishops without the formalities observed with temporal lords. Peers by descent have a right to take their seats without introduction ; peers by special limitation in remainder have to be introduced. In the Commons, the speaker first subscribes the oath, standing on the upper step of the chair, and is followed by the other members. Members on taking the oath are introduced by the Clerk of the House to the Speaker. Members returned on new writs in the course of the session, after taking the oath, are introduced between two members. They must bring a certificate of their return from the Clerk of the Crown. On the demise of the crown, the oaths must be taken anew in both Houses.

When the greater part of the members of both Houses have been sworn, the causes of calling the parliament are declared by the sovereign either in person or by commission. In the former case, the Queen proceeds in state to the House of Lords, and commands Black Rod to let the Commons know "that it is her Majesty's pleasure that they attend her immediately in this House." Black Rod proceeds to the House of Commons, and formally commands their attendance, on which the Speaker and the Commons go up to the bar of the House of Lords, and the queen reads her speech, which is delivered to her by the Lord Chancellor kneeling on one knee. Of late years the practice has been revived of the Lord Chancellor reading the royal speech in the Queen's presence. When parliament is opened by commission, the sovereign not being personally present, the Lord Chancellor reads the royal speech to both Houses. Immediately after the royal speech is read, the house is adjourned during pleasure ; but both Houses are resumed in the afternoon, for the purpose of voting an address in answer to the speech from the throne. In each House it is common to begin business by reading some bill *pro forma*, in order to assert the right of deliberating without reference to the immediate cause of summons. The royal speech is then read, and an address moved in answer to it. Two members in each House are chosen by the ministry to move and second the address. The preparation of the address is referred to a select committee ; it is twice read, may be amended, and when finally agreed on, it is ordered to be presented to her Majesty.

*Adjournment, Prorogation, and Dissolution.*—Adjournment of parliament is but the continuance of the session from one day to another. Either House may adjourn separately on its own authority, with this restriction, introduced by Act 39 and 40 Geo. III c. 14, that the sovereign, with advice of the privy council, may issue a proclamation appointing parliament to meet within not less than 14 days, notwithstanding an adjournment beyond that period. On reassembling, the House can again take up business which was left unfinished. A prorogation differs from an adjournment in this respect, that it not merely suspends all business, but quashes all proceedings pending at the time, except impeachments by the Commons, and appeals and writs of error in the Lords. William III. prorogued parliament from 21st October to 23d October 1689, in order to renew the Bill of Rights, regarding which a difference had arisen between the two Houses that was fatal to its progress. It being a rule that a bill of the same substance cannot be introduced twice in the same session, a prorogation has sometimes been resorted to, to enable a second bill to be brought in. Parliament can only be prorogued by the sovereign ; and this may be done by having her command signified in her presence by the Lord Chancellor to both Houses, by writ under the Great Seal, by commission, or by proclamation. Till recently, a proclamation for the prorogation of parliament from the day to which it stood summoned or prorogued to another day, was followed by a writ or commission ; but by 30 and 31 Vict. the royal proclamation alone prorogues parliament, except at the close of a session.

Parliament comes to an end by dissolution. This dissolution may be by the will of the sovereign expressed in person or by her representatives. Having been first prorogued, it is dissolved by a royal proclamation, and by the same instrument it is declared that the chancellor of Great Britain and chancellor of Ireland have been respectively ordered to issue out writs for calling a new parliament. By 6 Anne c. 37, a parliament was determined six months after the demise of the crown ; but by the Reform Act of 1867, the parliament in being at any future demise of the crown shall not be determined by such demise, but shall continue as long as it would otherwise have continued unless dissolved by the crown. Were the power of dis-

solving the parliament not vested in the executive, there would be a danger of its becoming permanent, and encroaching on the royal authority, so as to destroy the balance of the constitution. An example of this danger is shewn in the Long Parliament to which Charles I. conceded that it should not be dissolved till such time as it dissolved itself. If the Houses of Parliament encroach on the executive, or act factiously or injudiciously, the crown may, by a dissolution, bring their proceedings to an end, and appeal to the people by sending the members of the House of Commons to give an account of their conduct to their constituents.

There was originally no limit to the duration of a parliament except the will of the sovereign. By 6 Will. and Mary, c. 2, the continuance of a parliament was limited to three years, a term afterwards extended by 1 Geo. I. c. 88, to seven years. The same act of William and Mary enacts that parliament shall assemble once in three years at the least; but the practice of granting the Mutiny Act and the Budget for a year only, makes it necessary that it should assemble annually.

*Conduct of Business.*—Each House is presided over by its Speaker. The Speaker of the House of Commons does not take part in a debate, offer his opinion, or vote on ordinary occasions; but, in case of equality, he has a casting vote: his duty is to decide all questions which relate to order, putting the matter at issue in a substantive form for the decision of the House, if his own decision is not assented to. He explains any doubts that may arise on bills. He determines the precedence of members rising to address the House. He examines witnesses at the bar. At the close of the session, he addresses the sovereign on presenting the money-bills passed during the session for the royal assent. He nominates the tellers on a division, and makes known the votes to the House. He may commit members to custody during the pleasure of the House, a confinement which terminates with the close of the session. When a vacancy occurs by death, he signs the warrant to the Clerk of the Crown to make out the writ for the election of a new member. He audits the accounts of the receiver of fees, and directs the printing of the votes and proceedings of the House. The Lord Chancellor, or Lord Keeper of the Great Seal, is the Speaker of the House of Lords; in his absence, the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means takes the chair. The Speaker is not, as in the Lower House, charged with the maintenance of order, or the decision who is to be heard, which rest with the House itself. The Chairman of Ways and Means of the House of Commons as Deputy-speaker, performs the Speaker's duties in his absence. The chief officers of the House of Lords are the Clerk of the Parliaments, who takes minutes of the proceedings of the House; the Gentleman Usher of the Black Rod, who, with his deputy, the Yeoman Usher, is sent to desire the attendance of the Commons, executes orders for committal, and assists in various ceremonies; the Clerk-assistant; and the Sergeant-at-arms, who attends the Lord Chancellor with the mace, and executes the orders of the House for the attachment of delinquents. The chief officers of the Commons are the Clerk of the House, the Sergeant-at-arms, the Clerk-assistant, and Second Clerk-assistant.

Each House has its *Standing Orders*, or regulations, adopted at different periods, relating partly to internal order, partly to certain preliminaries required in the introduction of bills and promulgation of statutes. A standing order endures till repealed (or "vacated," as it is called in the Upper House); but each House is also in the practice of agreeing to certain orders or *resolutions* of uncertain duration declaratory of its practice, which are considered less formally binding than standing orders.

The House of Lords usually meets at 5 p.m.; the Commons at a quarter before 4, except on Wednesdays and other days specially appointed for morning sittings. In the Lords, the Chancellor, as Speaker, sits on the woolsack. A standing order, which is never enforced, requires the Lords to take place according to precedence. Practically the bishops sit together on the right hand of the throne; the members of the administration on the front bench on the right hand of the woolsack adjoining the bishops, and the peers who usually vote with them occupy the other benches on that side. The peers in opposition are ranged on the opposite side, and those considered politically neutral occupy the cross benches between the table and the bar. In the House of Commons, the front bench on the right hand of the chair is reserved for the ministry, and called the Treasury Bench, the front bench on the opposite side being occupied by the leaders of the opposition. By ancient custom

and orders of both Houses, rarely enforced, strangers are excluded while the Houses are sitting.

Prayers are read before business is begun—in the House of Lords by a bishop; in the House of Commons by the chaplain. Every member is bound to attend the House—i.e., the Lower House, personally; in the Upper personally, or by proxy; but in ordinary circumstances, this obligation is not enforced. The House of Lords may proceed to business when three peers are present; in the Commons, forty members are required to constitute a House for the despatch of business. The Speaker counts the house at four; and if that number be not then present, or if it be noticed, or appear on a division, that fewer than forty members are present, the House is adjourned. A call of the House is an expedient to secure attendance on important occasions; when it is made, members absent without leave may be ordered to be taken into custody. When matters of great interest are to be debated in the Upper House, the Lords are "summoned."

To make a motion, or, more properly, to *move the House*, is to propose a question, and notices of motions should be given on a previous day. The Commons are in the practice of setting apart Mondays, Wednesdays, Thursdays, and Fridays for considering *orders of the day*, or matters which the House had already agreed to consider on a particular day, and to reserve Tuesdays for motions. Government orders take precedence of others on all order days except Wednesdays, which are generally reserved for the orders of independent members. Notices of motions are by a standing order not allowed to be given for any period beyond the four days next following on which motions are entitled to precedence. Questions of privilege may be considered without previous notices, and take precedence both of other motions and orders of the day. A motion may be accompanied by a speech, and must in the Lower House be seconded, otherwise there is no question before the House. In purely formal motions this rule is not observed, and an order of the day may be moved without a seconder. A seconder is not required in the House of Lords. A motion in the Commons must be reduced to writing by the mover, and delivered to the Speaker, who, when it has been seconded, puts it to the House; it cannot then be withdrawn without leave of the House. In the Lords, when a motion has been made, a question is proposed "that the motion be agreed to." When an amendment is proposed to a question, the original motion cannot be withdrawn till the amendment has been either withdrawn or negatived. An amendment is properly such an alteration on a motion by striking out or adding words, or both, as may enable members to vote for it who would not have done so otherwise.

A question may be evaded or superseded in four ways: 1. By adjournment. Any member in possession of the House may move "that the House do now adjourn." The House may also be adjourned, even while a member is speaking, on its being noticed that there are fewer than forty members present. The motion, "that the debate be now adjourned," does not supersede the question, but merely defers the decision of the House. 2. By a motion, that the orders of the day be now read, which may be put and carried on days on which notices of motion have precedence. 3. By what is called *moving the previous question*. The act of the Speaker in putting the question is intercepted by a motion, "that the question be now put." The mover and seconder of this motion vote against it; and if it be resolved in the negative, the Speaker is prevented from putting the main question, which, however, may be brought forward on another day. 4. By an amendment substituting words of an entirely different import for those of the motion, so that the sense of the House is taken on a totally different question.

When the question is put by the Speaker in the Lords, the respective parties claim "content" or "non-content;" in the Commons, the expression used is "aye" or "no." The Speaker signifies his opinion which party have the majority, and if the House acquiesce, the question is said to be resolved in the affirmative or negative; when his decision is disputed, the numbers must be counted by a division. Both Houses now divide by the content or ayes going into the right lobby, and the non-contents or noes into the left, each being counted by tellers appointed by the Speaker. In the House of Commons, two clerks with printed lists of the members put a mark to the name of each as he re-enters the House, so as to secure accuracy in the division-lists. The Speaker of the Commons, who does not otherwise vote or take part in a debate, has a casting-vote in case of equality. In the House

of Lords, the Speaker is, on the other hand, not disqualified from taking part in a debate; he votes on divisions, but has no casting vote; and on an equality, the non-contents prevail. The system of pairing commonly practised, though never directly recognised by the House, enables members on opposite sides to absent themselves for a time agreed on, each neutralising the votes of the other. A member of the Upper House may, with leave of the House, by a protest enter his dissent from a vote of the House, and its grounds. Every protest is entered on the Journals of the House, together with the names of all the lords who concur in it.

No question or bill is allowed to be offered in either House substantially the same with one on which the judgment of that House has already been expressed in the current session. A resolution of the House, however, may be rescinded, and an order discharged; and by 18 and 14 Vict. c. 21, it is provided that every act may be altered, amended, or repealed in the same session of parliament.

In debate, a member of the Commons addresses the Speaker; a member of the Upper House the lords generally, in both cases standing and uncovered. No member may speak except when there is a question before the House, or with the view to propose a motion or amendment, the only admitted exceptions being in putting questions to ministers of the crown, or to members concerned in some business which is before the House, and in explaining personal matters. A member is not allowed to speak twice to the same question except in explanation, and the proposer, in some cases, in reply—a restriction which does not apply in committee. By the rules adopted by both Houses for preserving order in debate, no allusion is allowed to debates of the same session on a question not under discussion, or to debates in the other House of Parliament. All reflections on any determination of the House are prohibited, except when made with a view of moving that the determination be rescinded; so is the mention by a member of her Majesty's name either irreverently, or to influence the debate, and the use of offensive and insulting words against parliament or either House, or a member of the House in which he is speaking. No member is allowed to refer to another by name, or otherwise than by the rank or office which he enjoys, or place which he represents. The Speaker naming a member to the House, is an old-established form of censure, which was last used when Mr Fergus O'Connor struck the member beside him.

**Messengers.**—It is often found necessary for the Houses to communicate with each other regarding matters occurring in the course of business. Messages from the Lords were formerly sent by Masters in Chancery or judges, while the Commons sent a deputation of their own members. According to a new arrangement adopted in 1853, one of the clerks of either House may be the bearer of a message.

**Committees.**—Parliamentary committees are either "of the whole House," or "select." A committee of the whole House is the House itself, with a chairman instead of the Speaker presiding. The chair is taken in the Lords by the chairman of committees appointed at the beginning of each session, in the Commons by the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means. Matters relating to religion, trade, the imposition of taxes, or the granting of public money, are generally considered in committee before legislation, as also are the provisions of any public bill. Proceedings are conducted nearly as when the House is sitting, the Lords being addressed in the Upper House, and in the Lower the chairman, who has the same powers to maintain order as the Speaker, and a casting vote in case of equality. In committees of the Commons, as in the House itself, a quorum of forty members is required; but if that number are not present, the Speaker must resume the chair to adjourn the House. A motion in committee need not be seconded, and there is a more unlimited power of debate than in the House, members being at liberty to speak any number of times on the same question. A motion for "the previous question" is not allowed. When the business of the committee is not concluded on the day of sitting, the House is resumed, and the chairman moves "that the House be again put into committee on a future day," in the Lords, and in the Commons reports progress, and asks leave to sit again.

Select committees are composed of a limited number of members appointed to inquire into any matter, and report. In the Commons, it is usual to give select committees power to send for persons, papers, and records; in the Lords, they may, without any special authority, summon witnesses. In neither House can a committee enforce the attendance of a witness; this must be done, when necessary, by

the House itself. The Commons have certain standing orders for insuring the efficiency of committees, and impartiality in their appointment. No committee is to consist of more than fifteen. Members moving for a committee must ascertain whether the members whom they propose to name will attend. Lists of the members serving on each committee are to be affixed in the committee clerk's office and the lobby. To every question asked of a witness, the name of the member who asks it is to be prefixed in the minutes of evidence laid before the House; and the names of the members present at each sitting, and, in the event of a division, the question proposed, the name of the proposer, and the votes of each member, are to be entered on the minutes, and reported to the House. In the Lords there are no special rules regarding the appointment and constitution of committees; but resolutions containing arrangements similar to those of the Commons regarding questions to witnesses, minutes of proceedings, and divisions, have been adopted since 1852. Select committees have the power of adjournment from time to time, and sometimes from place to place. By an anomaly not easily explained, the Commons have always been considered not to have the power of administering oaths; a power of examining on oath has, however, by statute been granted to election committees, and committees on private bills. In the House of Lords, witnesses had formerly to attend at the bar of the House to be sworn; but the oath may now be administered by any committee of the House. Except where leave of absence has been obtained, no member, unless above the age of sixty, can excuse himself from serving on committees, or for not attending when his attendance has been made compulsory by order of the House. In committees on private bills in the Commons, the chairman has a deliberative as well as a casting vote. Since 1864, joint committees of both Houses, composed of an equal number of members of each, have occasionally been appointed.

**Bills.**—The principal business which occupies both Houses is the passing of bills. In early times, laws were enacted in the form of petitions from the Commons, which were entered on the Rolls of Parliament, with the king's answers subjoined; and at the close of the session, these imperfect records were drawn up in the form of a statute, which was entered on the Statute Rolls. It was found that, on undergoing this process, the acts passed by the parliament were often both added to and mutilated, and much of the legislative power practically came into the hands of the judges. Bills in the form of complete statutes were first introduced in the reign of Henry VI. Bills are either public or private; the former affect the general interests of the community, the latter relate to local matters. Public bills are introduced directly by members; private bills by petitions from the parties interested, presented by members. Bills may originate in either House; but the exclusive right of the Commons to deal with all legislation regarding taxes or supplies, makes it necessary and expedient that by far the greater part of both public and private bills, except such as are of a purely personal nature, should originate in the Lower House. Bills regarding restitution of honors originate in the House of Lords. One description of act alone originates with the crown—an act of grace or pardon. It is read only once in each House, and cannot be amended, but must be accepted in the form in which it is received from the crown, or rejected.

**Public Bills.**—In the House of Lords, any member may present a bill. In the Commons, any member may move for leave to bring in a bill, except it be for imposing a tax, when an order of the House is required. When the motion is seconded, and leave given, the mover and seconder are ordered to prepare and bring in the bill. Such bills, however, as relate to religion, trade, grants of public money, or taxation, are required to be introduced by the House itself, on the report of a committee of the whole House. A bill is drawn out on paper, with blanks or italics where any part is doubtful, or where sums have to be inserted. It is read a first time, and a day fixed for a second reading, allowing a sufficient interval to let it be printed and circulated. When ready, which is often as soon as the motion for leave to bring it in has been agreed to, it is presented at the bar by one of the members who were ordered to prepare and bring it in, and afterwards, on an intimation from the Speaker, brought up to the table. The question is put, "That the bill be now read a first time," which is rarely objected to; and in the Commons can only be opposed by a division. The short title of the bill, as entered in the orders of the day and endorsed on the bill, is then read aloud, which is accounted suffi-

client compliance with the order of the House. A day is then appointed for considering the question, "that the bill be read a second time," allowing a sufficient interval to elapse to let it be printed and circulated. At the second reading, the member in charge of the bill moves "that the bill be now read a second time." This is the usual time for opposing a bill whose general principle is disapproved. This is done by an amendment to the question, by leaving out the word "now," and adding "this day three months," "this day six months," or some other time beyond the probable duration of the session. Counsel are sometimes allowed to plead at the second reading or other stages. If the bill be approved on the second reading, it is committed, either to a select committee, or to a committee of the whole House, to consider its provisions in detail. When the proceedings in committee are terminated, the bill is reported to the House with amendments, which may be agreed to, amended, or disagreed to. It is then ordered to be read a third time, when the entire measure is reviewed. No amendments, except what are verbal, can then be made, and the question is put to the House, "That this bill do now pass." The title of the bill is last settled. The bill, when passed by the Commons, is sent to the Lords, where it goes through the same forms: if rejected, no further notice is taken of it; if passed, a message is sent to the Commons that the bill is agreed to. If amendments have been made, they are sent down along with the bill to be discussed by the Commons; and if they are not agreed to, a conference is demanded by the Commons, to offer reasons for disagreeing to the amendments. A conference is a mode of communicating on important matters between the Houses, in which each House is brought into direct contact with the other by a deputation of its own members—the time and place of meeting being always fixed by the Lords. A conference is conducted for both Houses by managers, who, on the part of the House desiring the conference (in the case supposed, the Commons), consist of the members who have drawn up the reasons, with others sometimes added. If the Lords be not satisfied with the reasons offered, a second conference is desired, after which what is called a "free conference" may be demanded, in which the managers have more discretion vested in them to advance what arguments they please. No free conference has been held since 1749. By resolutions of both Houses, agreed to in 1851, reasons for disagreement from amendments may be communicated by messages without a conference, unless the other House should desire a conference; and since that time, there has been but one instance of a conference where a message would have been available. If the Commons eventually agree to the amendments, the bill is sent back to the Lords; if not, it is dropped. The same forms are gone through when a bill originates in the House of Lords. The official record of the assent of one House to the bills passed, or amendments made by the other, is an endorsement on the bill in Norman French. Thus, when a bill is passed by the Commons, the Clerk of the House writes on the top of it, "Soit bâillé aux seigneurs." When the Lords make amendment to a bill, it is returned with the endorsement, "A ceste bille avesque des amendements les seigneurs sont assentus." When it is sent back with these amendments agreed to, the Clerk of the House of Commons writes, "A ces amendements les Communes sont assentus." When both Houses have agreed to a bill, it is deposited in the House of Lords, to await the royal assent, unless it be a money-bill, which is sent back to the Commons.

*Private Bills.*—In private bills, the functions of parliament partake of the judicial as well as the legislative character, and the difficulties in reconciling the interests of the public and of individuals, often give rise to inquiries too extensive for the House to undertake, which therefore delegates them to committees. The standing orders require certain notices to be given to parties interested by personal service, and to the public by advertisement. The practice in both Houses now is for all petitions for private bills to be referred to four "examiners," two from the Lords, and two from the Commons, whose duty it is to examine whether certain notices and other forms required by the standing orders of the House have been complied with. If the report be favorable, leave is given to bring in the bill; if unfavorable, it is referred to a committee called the Committee on Standing Orders, who report on the propriety of relaxing the standing orders in this individual case—should they report unfavorably, it is still in the power of the House to relax the standing orders, though this is rarely done. Three days must elapse between the first and second

reading. At the second reading, the principle is considered, as in the case of public bills; and if the bill be carried, it is referred, if not a railway, canal, or divorce bill, to the "Committee of Selection," consisting of the chairman of the Standing Orders Committee, and five other members nominated at the beginning of the session, whose functions are to classify the bills, to nominate the Committees on them, and to arrange their time of sitting. A railway or canal bill is referred to the "General Committee of Railway and Canal Bills." This committee forms bills of this class into groups, and appoints the chairman of the committee which is to sit on each bill from its own body, the remaining members, four in number, being chosen from the Committee of Selection. Before the sitting of the committee, every private bill, whether proposed or unopposed, must be examined by the chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means and his council. It is also laid before the chairman of the Lords' Committee and his council, and effect is given to their observations, a proceeding which greatly facilitates the after-progress of the bill in the House of Lords. The Board of Trade, the Secretary of State for the Home Department, the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, and the Commissioners of Woods and Forests, also exercise a supervision over private bills of various kinds, by which the respective rights of their departments may be supposed to be encroached on. In the House of Lords, estate bills are referred to the judges. Every bill, at the first reading, is referred to the Examiners, before whom compliance with such standing orders as have not been previously inquired into must be proved. The Standing Orders Committee of the Lords is now assimilated in functions to that of the Commons. The bill is returned to the Commons either with amendments, or with a message that it is agreed to without amendments. In case of disagreement between the Houses, the same forms are observed as in public bills.

In recent times, the necessity for obtaining private acts has been, in many cases, obviated by general law adapted to different classes of objects, of which parties are enabled to avail themselves, instead of applying to parliament for special powers.

*Royal Assent.*—A bill becomes a statute or act of parliament on receiving the royal assent, which is given in the House of Lords, the Commons being also present at the bar. It is given in either of two ways: by letters-patent under the Great Seal, signed by the sovereign's own hand, and communicated to the two Houses by commissioners; or by the sovereign present in person in the House of Lords. When the royal assent is given by commission, three or more of the Lords Commissioners command Black Rod to signify to the Commons that their attendance is desired, on which the Commons, with the Speaker, immediately come to the bar. The commission is then read at length; and the titles of all the bills being read by the Clerk of the Crown, the royal assent to each is signified by the Clerk of the Parliaments in Norman-French, and so entered on the Lords' Journals. In assenting to a public bill, the words used are: "Le roy [la reyne] le veult;" to a private bill: "Soit fait comme il est désiré;" and to a bill of supply (which is presented by the Speaker and receives the royal assent before all other bills): "Le roy remercie ses bons sujets, accepte leur bonté, et ainsi le veult." In the case of an act of grace, which has originated with the crown, there was, till lately, no further expression of the royal assent; but the Clerk of the Parliaments, having read its title, said: "Le roi, prélates, seigneurs, et communes, en ce présent parlement assemblés, au nom de tous vos autres sujets, remettent très-humblement vostre Majesté, et prient à Dieu vous donner en santé bonne vie et longue;" the royal assent, however, has been latterly given to acts of grace in the usual form. The refusal of the royal assent is announced by the words, "Le roy s'avise." But the necessity for such refusal is generally removed by the observance of the constitutional principle, that the queen has no will but that of her ministers, who only continue in office so long as they have the confidence of parliament. The last instance in which the royal assent was refused was by Queen Anne in 1707, regarding a bill for settling the militia in Scotland.

The royal assent is seldom given in person, except at the close of a session, when the Queen attends to prorogue parliament, and then signifies her assent to such bills as have been passed since the last commission was issued; but bills providing for the honor and dignity of the crown, and bills for settling the civil lists, have generally been assented to by the sovereign in person, immediately after they have passed

both houses. When the royal assent is given in person, the Clerk of the Crown reads the titles of the bills; and the Clerk of the Parliaments, who has previously received her Majesty's commands in the reading room, makes an obeisance to the throne, and signifies her Majesty's assent, as already described, the queen giving a gentle inclination.

**Supplies.**—Prior to 1688, in addition to parliamentary taxation, imposts were sometimes levied by an exercise of the royal prerogative. Since the Revolution, no taxes have been raised otherwise than by parliamentary authority. The Commons have the exclusive right to impose taxes and vote money for the public service. The Lords cannot even make an alteration in a bill of supply, except to correct a clerical error. The Lords are not even entitled to insert in a bill any pecuniary penalties, or to alter the amount or application of any penalty imposed by the Commons; a rule whose rigid assertion has been found to be attended with so much inconvenience that there has latterly been a disposition to relax it. If a bill containing provisions which make a pecuniary charge on the public originate in the Lords, any such provisions are struck out in the bill as sent to the Commons. In the Commons, these provisions are printed in red ink, and supposed to be blank, and may be agreed to in committee. But though the Commons has the exclusive right to grant supplies, a grant requires the ultimate assent of the queen and the House of Lords.

The public revenue of the crown is derived in part from permanent charges on the consolidated fund, and in part from actual grants for specific public services, which require the yearly sanction of parliament. On the opening of parliament, the queen demands from the Commons the annual provision for the public services, and directs estimates to be laid before them. On agreeing to the address in answer to the royal speech, the Commons order the speech to be taken into consideration on another day. On the arrival of that day, a motion is made: "That a supply be granted to her Majesty," and the House resolves into a committee to consider that motion. On the day appointed, the committee sits and agrees that a supply be granted, which, being reported, is agreed to by the House. The House then appoints another day on which it resolves itself into a "Committee of Supply." The estimates for the army, navy, and ordnance departments, are first laid before the committee; then the estimates for civil services, known as the miscellaneous estimates. The first business of the Committee of Supply is to elect a chairman, who is known as the Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, over which he also presides. When the first report of the Committee of Supply has been received and agreed to, a day is appointed for the House to resolve itself into a "Committee of Ways and Means." This committee is not appointed till a sum has been voted by the House, nor is it afterwards allowed to vote in excess of the expenditure voted by the Committee of Supply. It is the function of the Committee of Supply to consider what specific grants are to be voted, and of the Committee of Ways and Means to determine how the funds shall be raised which are voted by the Committee of Supply. Without special parliamentary authority, the consolidated fund could not be applied to meet the supplies voted for the surface of the year; but to make it so available, the Committee of Ways and Means votes several grants from time to time out of the consolidated fund "towards making good the supply granted to her Majesty;" and bills are founded on the resolutions of the committee, by which the treasury receives authority to issue the requisite amount from the consolidated fund for the service of the year. It belongs to the Committee of Ways and Means to determine what sums shall be raised by exchequer bills in anticipation of the annual revenue, to make up the supply granted to her Majesty. When the Committee of Supply has determined the number of men that shall be maintained during the year for the army and sea-service, and its resolutions have been agreed to, the *Mutiny Bill* and *Marine Mutiny Bill* are brought in, providing respectively for the discipline of the troops and marines when on shore. Apart from this annual sanction, the maintenance of a standing army in time of peace would be illegal, and the army and marines would be relieved from all martial discipline. The Committee of Ways and Means receives the annual financial statement from the Chancellor of the Exchequer, popularly called the "Budg.-t." That minister gives a general view of the resources of the country, and of the financial policy of the government, and presents a probable estimate of income and expenditure for the twelve months ending on the 1<sup>st</sup> of April.

of the following year. He states what taxes he intends to reduce, and what new ones he means to impose, and ends by proposing resolutions for the adoption of the committee, which, when reported to the House, form the groundwork of bills for accomplishing the financial objects proposed. The charges for collecting the revenue, have, since 1854, been brought under the supervision of the House of Commons; and estimates are voted for the revenue departments. A new tax can only be proposed except by a minister of the crown. The resolutions of Committees of Supply and of Ways and Means are reported on a day appointed by the House, and read a first time without a question, and a second time on a question put from the chair, and are agreed to by the House, or may be disagreed to, amended, postponed, or re-committed. When the Committee of Supply is closed, the Committee of Ways and Means authorises the application of money from the consolidated fund, the surplus of ways and means, and sums in the Exchequer, to meet the grants and services of the year, and the resolutions of the committee are carried into effect by the Consolidated Fund Bill, or as it is often called, the *Appropriation Bill*. By a standing order of April 3, 1862, a standing Committee of Public Accounts is appointed at the beginning of each session to examine into the appropriation of the sums granted by parliament to meet the public expenditure. Taxes of a permanent and general character are not now considered in the Committee of Ways and Means.

**Petitions.**—Among the duties of parliament is the receiving of petitions. A petition must be presented by a member of the House to which it is addressed. Petitions from the corporation of London are, however, presented to the House of Commons by the sheriffs at the bar, or by one sheriff, if the other be a member of the House, or unavoidably absent. In 1840, a petition was allowed to be presented by the Lord Mayor and Aldermen, when the sheriffs were in custody of the sergeant-at-arms. The Lord Mayor of Dublin has been allowed to present a petition at the bar of the House, and the same privilege would probably be conceded to the Lord Provost of Edinburgh. Petitions which violate any of the rules of the House, are not brought up, but returned to the petitioners; and if an irregularity be discovered after a petition is brought up, its presentation is not recorded in the votes. In the House of Lords, when a petition is laid on the table, an entry is made in the Lords' minutes, and afterwards in the Journals of the House, which, however, does not describe its nature and substance. A petition may, on presentation, be made a subject of debate, but unless this is done, there remains no public record of its import, or of the parties by whom it was signed. In the House of Commons, according to standing orders adopted in 1842, the member presenting a petition is to confine himself to a statement of who the petitioners are, the number of signatures, the material allegations of the petition and its prayer. In case of urgency, or where questions of privilege are involved, the matter of the petition may be discussed; but in ordinary cases no debate is allowed, and it is referred to the Committee on Public Petitions, and if relating to a subject with regard to which the member presenting it has given notice of a motion, it may be ordered to be printed with the votes. The reports of the Committee on Public Petitions are printed twice a week, and point out the name, the subject, and the number of signatures of each petition, and the total number of signatures, and petitions relating to each subject; and, in some cases, the petition itself is printed at full length in the appendix.

**Communications with the Crown.**—Besides at the opening and proroguing of parliament, and giving of the royal assent, there are other occasions on which the crown communicates with parliament by a *message*, under the sign-manual, to either House singly, or both Houses separately. Messages are brought by a member of the House, being a minister of the crown, or one of the royal household, and may relate to important public events, the prerogatives or property of the crown, provision for the royal family, &c. An *address* is the mode in which the resolutions of parliament are communicated to the crown. Addresses may be joint, of both Houses, or separate, of either House.

**Returns.**—Each House has the power of ordering returns from all those public departments which are connected with the revenue, under control of the Treasury, or regulated by statute; but returns of matters connected with the exercise of royal prerogative, as from public departments subject to her Majesty's secretaries of state, are obtained by means of addresses to the crown. A return is not allowed to be ordered in one House regarding the proceedings of the other; when such return is

wished, it is usual to make an arrangement by which it is moved in the House to whose proceedings it relates, and after it has been presented, a message is sent to request that it may be communicated. Returns cannot be moved from private associations, or persons not exercising public functions; and the papers and correspondence sought from public departments must be of an official, not a private or confidential description. This rule was, under special circumstances, departed from in 1853 in regard to the opinion of the law-officers of the crown in the case of the *Cagliari*. Accounts and papers presented are ordered to lie on the table, and when necessary, ordered to be printed, or in the Commons referred to the Printing Committee appointed at the beginning of each session.

**Election Petitions.**—Until 1770 all questions regarding controverted elections were decided by the whole House; the Grenville Act of that year introduced the practice of appointing committees for their trial, and the proceedings of election committees were further regulated by 11 and 12 Vict. c. 98. By the "Parliamentary Elections Act 1868" (31 and 32 Vict. c. 124), election petitions are now presented to the Court of Common Pleas in Westminster or Dublin, or the Court of Session in Scotland, and tried by a single judge appointed by the court, and sitting in the borough or county whose election is contested. An election petition must be signed by some person who voted, or had a right to vote at the election, or by some person who claims to be returned, or alleges himself to have been a candidate, and presented within twenty-one days after the return objected to, or, if it proceeds on the allegation of bribery, within 28 days after the alleged payment. Security is to be found for costs to the extent of £1000, either by securities not exceeding four, or by a deposit of money, or partly in each way. The judge determines whether the member was duly elected, and certifies to the Speaker his determination, which is final. Should the petition allege corrupt practices, the judge shall also report to the Speaker whether there has been any corrupt practice within the knowledge and consent of any candidate, the names of persons proved guilty, and whether corrupt practices have prevailed extensively at the election: also the judge may specially report any matter for consideration of the House of Commons. Where, on application of any party to a petition, it appears that the case raised can be conveniently stated as a special case, it may be so stated and determined by the court, who certify their decision to the Speaker, which is final. An election petition cannot be withdrawn without leave of the court or judge on special application: and a person who might have been a petitioner may apply to be substituted for the person withdrawn. The court or judge is to report to the Speaker whether in their opinion the withdrawal of the petition has been induced by any corrupt arrangement. The most frequent subjects of special reports are bribery, treating, and the use of undue influence, matters regarding which, prior to 1868, various acts had been passed, the most important being 17 and 18 Vict. c. 102 (1854) 21 and 22 Vict. c. 87 (1853), and 26 Vict. c. 29 (1863), three statutes known as the "Corrupt Practices Prevention Acts." By the act of 1868, a candidate convicted of bribery is punished by voidance of his election, incapacity during 7 years to be elected or to vote, to hold any office under 5 and 6 Will. IV. c. 76, or 3 and 4 Vict. c. 108, or any municipal or judicial office, or to act as justice of the peace; and the same disqualifications to vote, to be elected, and to hold office, are incurred by any person other than a candidate found guilty of bribery. If a candidate is proved to have knowingly engaged as canvasser or election-agent a person found guilty within the previous seven years of any corrupt practice, his election is void. Act 15 and 16 Vict. c. 55 enacts that upon the joint address of both Houses of Parliament, representing to her Majesty that a Committee of the House of Commons has reported that corrupt practices have extensively prevailed at any election, her Majesty may appoint commissioners to make inquiry; and by the act of 1868, the judge's report to the effect that corrupt practices have prevailed, or that there is reason to believe they have prevailed, is to be accounted equivalent to the report of the House of Commons' Committee to that effect under the previous act. It is further provided by the act of 1868 that within 21 days of the return to the Clerk of the Crown, or within 14 days after the meeting of parliament, a petition may be presented by any two electors, alleging that corrupt practices have extensively prevailed at their last election, or that there is reason to believe this to have been the case. If, on such petition, an address by both Houses of Parliament be presented to the crown, pray-

ing for inquiry into such allegation, the crown may appoint commissioners to inquire, with the powers and subject to the provisions of Act 15 and 16 Vict. c. 57.

By the Act of 1854, the offering of money, office, employment, &c., to a voter to induce him to vote or abstain from voting, or the offering of a similar consideration to any person to induce him to procure the return of a candidate or the vote of an elector, the acceptance of such consideration, and the payment of money in the knowledge that it is to be expended in bribery, or the repayment of money which has been spent in bribery, are all declared to be acts of *bribery* punishable by fine and imprisonment, as well as by the forfeiture of £100 with costs to any person who will sue for the same. Any voter who agrees to receive money, office, or employment for voting or abstaining from voting, and any person who, after an election, receives money or other consideration on account of any person having voted or refrained from voting, is also guilty of bribery, and liable to forfeit £10 with costs to any one who will sue for the same. *Treating*, which is defined as the providing of meat, drink, or other entertainment to any person in order to be elected, or in consideration for any person voting or abstaining from voting, involves a penalty of £50 similarly recoverable, as also does *undue influence*, or interference by intimidation, abduction, or otherwise, with the freedom of electors. Persons guilty of any of these offences are, by the provisions of the same acts, to be struck off the register, and their names inserted in a separate "list of persons disqualified for bribery, treatment, and undue influence," which is to be appended to the register of voters. Cockades are prohibited, as is the furnishing of refreshment on the day of election to a voter in consideration of his being about to vote. By the Corrupt Practices Act, 1854, it is however declared lawful to provide a conveyance for a voter, though not to pay him a sum of money for travelling expenses. By the Act of 1868, no payment is allowed to be made on behalf of a candidate except through his authorised agent, and all claims against a candidate in respect of an election must be settled within a month, otherwise the right to recover them is barred. A detailed account of election expenses with vouchers is required to be delivered within two months of the election to the returning officers, by whom it is published in a local newspaper, and the vouchers are to be open for a month to the inspection of voters. The act of 1868 provides that when an election committee has reported that certain persons named have been guilty of bribery, and their report is confirmed by a commission of inquiry, such report, with the evidence taken, is to be laid before the Attorney-general with the view of instituting a prosecution.

*Inpeachment*.—There are instances, as far back as the times of the Plantagenet princes, of the supreme power of parliament being exercised to punish offences where something extraordinary in the nature, or some unforeseen obstacle to the execution of the ordinary laws, was deemed to render this advisable. This was done by a bill of attainder, which in the reign of Henry VIII. became the usual mode of proceeding against state offences. A bill of attainder sometimes followed a regular trial and conviction, as in the case of Empson and Dudley, but was often passed without trial, examination of witnesses, or hearing the accused party, as in the attainder of Fisher and Sir Thomas More. Bills of attainder were sometimes, but rarely, had recourse to under the Stuart kings; the last instance was the case of Sir John Fenwick, in 1696. The practice of impeachment of extraordinary offenders before the Lords by the Commons, which had been frequent during the 14th and 15th centuries, was revived in the reign of James I. This proceeding is not like bills of attainder or pains and penalties, the making of a new law *pro re nata*, but a carrying out of the already known and established law. The great representative inquest of the nation first find the crime, and then as prosecutors support the charge before the highest court of criminal jurisdiction. It has always been allowed that a peer may be impeached for any crime whether recognisable by the ordinary courts or not. The right of the Commons to impeach a commoner of a capital offence, which was at one time doubted, has been solemnly affirmed by the House of Lords. The trial is conducted by managers for the Commons. Witnesses are summoned by the Lords at the desire of the Commons, and Westminster Hall has usually been the place of trial, the Lord High Steward presiding. The managers make their charges and adduce evidence; the accused answers, and may defend himself by counsel; and the managers have a right to reply. In giving judgment, the question is put by the Lord High Steward to each peer, beginning with the

junior baron, on each article separately, whether the accused be guilty. The answer is, "Guilty, on my honor," or "Not Guilty, on my honor," the Lord High Steward giving his opinion the last, and the numbers being cast up, the accused is acquitted with the result. Impeachments have not been common in later times, though they are still a competent proceeding; the latest memorable cases are those of Warren Hastings in 1783, and Lord Melville in 1805.

*Trial of Peers.*—Peers are, in all cases, tried by their peers for treason, misprision of treason, felony, or misprision of felony. For misdemeanors, however, they are tried before the ordinary courts of law; and the Lords Spiritual are in all cases tried before the ordinary courts of the country. During the sitting of parliament, the trial proceeds before the House of Lords, or more properly before the Court of Parliament presided over by the Lord High Steward. When parliament is not sitting, the trial takes place before the Court of the Lord High Steward—a tribunal whose constitution was at one time very objectionable, that officer being allowed to summon what peers he pleased, only with the proviso that the number should amount in all to 28. Act 7 Will. III. c. 8 requires that all the peers who have a right to sit and vote in parliament be summoned. Peers of Scotland and Ireland are, in terms of the Acts of Union, tried in the same way. By 4 and 5 Vict. c. 22, a peer is liable on conviction to the same punishment as any other of the lieges.

See Sir T. Erskine May's "Laws, Privileges, Proceedings, and Usage of Parliament," 6th edition, 1868.

**PARLIAMENTARY CHURCH** is a church erected under the authority of an act of parliament. In England such a church is generally called a district church; and the acts of parliament authorising such churches, are known as the Church Building Acts. See **PARISH**. In Scotland similar churches are called **Quoad Sacra** (q. v.) churches.

**PARMA**, a former sovereignty of Upper Italy, having the rank of a duchy, and bounded on the n. by Lombardy and Venice, e. by Modena, s. by Genoa and Tuscany, and w. by Piedmont, consisted of the duchies of Parma and Piacenza, which were subdivided into 5 districts, and contained in all 2268 English square miles, with a population (1871) of 490,259. The Apennines, which cross the southern division of the duchies, send off spurs northwards, and give to the northern part of the country the character of a plain, gently undulating, but sloping uniformly to the Po, which is the recipient of all the rivers of the country. The highest peaks of the Apennines in P. are, Monte Alpe di Succiso, about 7000 feet; and Monte Parma and Monte Orsajo, both more than 5250. The mountain-range is richly clad with oak and chestnut forests. The plain, which is very fertile, produces rich crops of grain (including rice), leguminous plants, fruits of all kinds, olives, and grapes; while marble, alabaster, salt, and petroleum are the chief mineral products. Next to agriculture, the production and manufacture of silk, the rearing of cattle and poultry, cheese-making, and the extraction of the mineral products afford the chief employment. Silk and cheese are the chief exports. The cheese, however, known as Parmesan, is not made here, but in the neighborhood of Lodi (q. v.).

The form of government was monarchical, and the Roman Catholic religion the only one tolerated, though a few Jews are found here and there through the country. The condition of education, though improved of late, is still very defective. The administrative power was in the hands of a council of state, which was divided into two sections—one for internal administration, which acted as a court of final appeal in matters of justice, the other for finance and military and foreign affairs. The revenue of P. in 1859 was estimated at 11,566,648 lireas (£458,085), and the expenditure at 11,273,883 lireas (£446,490). The total debt, funded and redeemable, amounted to 15,558,218 lireas (£616,167). The army (1859) before the annexation, according to the statistics of 1863, consisted of 8290 soldiers; the duke had also the occasional loan of an Austrian regiment, and the fortress of Piacenza was garrisoned by the troops of that power.

*History.*—P. and Piacenza belonged in the time of the Roman Empire to Cisalpine Gaul, and after its fall came under the rule of the Lombards, to whose rule succeeded that of the kings of Italy and the German emperors. In the 12th and following centuries, they joined the other territories of Northern Italy which were struggling for liberty and independence, and consequently became involved

**In the Guelph and Ghibelline contests.** Weakened by these strife, they fell under the domination of the powerful houses of Este, Visconti, and Sforza; but in 1499 they passed under the yoke of the French monarch, Louis XII., from whom they were soon recovered by the Emperor Maximilian, and handed over to Pope Leo X. in 1513. They continued under the sovereignty of the popes till 1543, when they were alienated by Pope Paul III., and with the surrounding territory were erected into a duchy for his natural son Pier-Luigi Farnese, the grandfather of Alessandro Farnese, the celebrated regent of the Low Countries. On the extinction of the male line of Farnese, in 1781, by the death of the eighth duke, Antonio, his niece Elizabeth, the queen of Philip V. of Spain, obtained the duchies for her son Don Carlos, who, however, exchanged them in 1735 with Austria for the throne of the Two Sicilies. In 1748 they were restored along with Guastalla to Spain, and became a duchy for the Infante Don Philip, with a reversion to Austria in case of the failure of his male descendants, or of any of them ascending the Spanish or Neapolitan throne. Philip was succeeded in 1765 by his son Ferdinand, who was an able and enlightened ruler, and expelled the Jesuits in 1768. He died in 1802, and his dominions were immediately taken possession of by the French, and were incorporated with France under the designation of the department of Taro in 1806. In 1814, by the treaty of Paris, P., Piacenza, and Guastalla were presented as a sovereign duchy to the ex-empress Maria Louisa, a proceeding strongly opposed by the king of Spain, who demanded them for his sister, Maria Louisa, the widow of Louis, king of Etruria, the son of Duke Ferdinand. However, in 1817, it was settled that Maria Louisa of Austria should possess the duchies, and that on her death they should descend to Ferdinand Charles, Duke of Lucca, the son of Maria Louisa of Spain, and the rightful heir; and on failure of his heirs, P. should revert to Austria, and Piacenza to Sardinia. The empress governed very much after the Austrian fashion, but with gentleness, though liberal sentiments were looked upon by her with little favor. On her death, in 1847, the Duke of Lucca succeeded as Charles II., and certain exchanges of territory, previously settled by the great powers, took place with Tuscany and Modena—the chief of which being the transfer of Guastalla to Modena in exchange for the districts of Villa-franca, Treosciutto, Castevoli, and Melazzo, all in Massa-Carrara, resulting in a loss to P. of about 77 English square miles of territory, and a gain of 193 English square miles. This transfer was not made without great discontent on the part of the inhabitants. The duke's rule was severe and tyrannical, and on an address being presented to him with a view of obtaining a reform of certain abuses, and a more liberal political constitution, similar to what Tuscany had (February 1848) obtained from its grand-duke, he threw himself into the arms of Austria, and consented to the occupation of his territory by Austrian troops. In March 1848 a revolution broke out, and the duke was compelled to grant the popular demands, but he almost immediately after retired from the country. P. joined with Sardinia in the war of 1848—1849 against Austria, but on the triumph of the latter power was compelled to receive Charles III. (his father, Charles II., having resigned his throne, March 1849) as its ruler. The new duke recalled the constitution which his father had been compelled to grant, and punished with great severity the active agents of the revolutionary movements in his dominions. His arbitrary measures were effectively seconded by his chief minister, an Englishman named Ward, who shared the public obloquy with his master. After Charles III.'s assassination in March 1854, his widow Louise-Marie-Therese de Bourbon, daughter of the last Duke of Berry (q.v.), assumed the government for the behoof of her son Robert I., and made some attempts at political reform; but owing to the excited state of the people they were little effective, and she and her son were compelled to leave the country in 1859, on the outbreak of a new war between Sardinia and Austria. In March 19th of the following year the country was annexed to Sardinia, and it now forms a part of the kingdom of Italy, constituting the two provinces of Parma (area 125 English square miles, pop. in 1871, 264,509), and Piacenza (area 966 English square miles, pop. 225,778), a few of the outlying districts, amounting to about 150 square miles, being incorporated with other provinces.—“Official Statistics of the Kingdom of Italy” (Turin, 1861); “Budget of the *Emilias*; Report of the Marquis Pepoli to the Minister of Finances” (Turin, 1860); *idem*. “Report of General Tozes to the Minister of War” (1868).

PARM<sup>A</sup>, the chief town of the province of the same name in Italy, and formerly the capital of the duchy of Parma, is situated on both sides of the river Parma, 12 miles south from the Po, 75 miles south-east from Milan, and about the same distance east-north-east from Genoa, with a population (1972) of 45,609.

The town is of a circular form, and is surrounded by walls and ditches flanked by bastions; the streets are straight and wide, and meet at right angles, the chief of them, a part of the Roman Via Aemilia, crossing the city from east to west, and dividing it into two nearly equal parts. P. is celebrated for its churches, 10 in number, the chief of which are the *Duomo*, or Cathedral (consecrated 1106 A.D.), built chiefly in the Lombard style, having the interior adorned with magnificent frescoes by Correggio, and paintings by other artists, and surmounted by a beautiful dome; the *Battistero*, or Baptistry, one of the most splendid in Italy, begun in 1196 and completed in 1281; the church of the *Madonna della Steccata*, containing the famous painting of "Moses breaking the Tablets of the Law," by Parmigianino. The other celebrated buildings are, the Farnese Palace, a gloomy and ill-construted edifice; the Farnese Theatre, built (1618–1629) of wood, and now in a most dilapidated condition. P. has also a library containing 120,000 volumes, mostly well selected, and many of them rare and valuable works; a museum of antiquities; a botanic garden; a theatre (*Teatro Nuovo*); an academy of fine arts, founded in 1752, possessing a collection of 600 pictures, many of which are exceedingly valuable. The pictures most highly esteemed are the "Madonnas" of Correggio and Francia, the "St Jerome" of Correggio, and the "Jesus Glorified" of Raphael.

The manufacturers of P. are stockings, porcelain, sugar, wax-candles, and vessels of crystal, also silk, cotton, and fustian stuffs. The chief exports are cheese and silk goods; and in June there is an annual silk fair.

PARM<sup>A</sup>, Battles of. An indecisive engagement took place here June 29, 1784, between the confederated armies of England, France, and Spain, and the Austrians; and on June 19, 1799, the French under Macdonald were routed by the Russians under Suvarov, with a loss of 10,000 men and 4 generals.

PARMELIA, a genus of Lichens, with a leafy horizontal thallus which is lobed and cut; and orbicular shields (*apothecia*) fixed by a central point, concave, and bordered by the inflexed thallus. The species are numerous, and many are found in Britain. Some of them are occasionally employed in dyeing. Various chemical principles have been discovered in lichens of this genus, as *Uenine* or *Urnio Acid* (also found in species of the genus *Usnea*), and *Parietin*. Valuable medicinal properties—tonic and febrifugal—have been ascribed to *P. parietina*, the Common Yellow Wall Lichen, or Common Yellow Wall Moss of the herb shops, a bright yellow species with deep orange shields, plentiful on walls and trees in Britain and most parts of Europe.

PARNIDES, a Greek philosopher of Elea, in Lower Italy, and in the opinion of the ancients the greatest member of the Eleatic school, flourished about the middle of the 5th c. B.C. Nothing is known with certainty regarding his life, but he is said to have visited Athens in his old age, and to have conversed with Socrates, then quite a youth. The story, though it rests on the authority of Plato, has a suspicious air, and seems as if it were intended to account for the influence which the philosophy of P. undoubtedly exercised on that of Socrates and Plato themselves. P., like Xenophanes of Colophon, sometimes regarded as the first of the Eleatics, expounded his philosophy in verse—his only work being a didactic poem "On Nature." The leading design of this poem is to demonstrate the reality of Absolute Being, the non-existence of which P. declares to be inconceivable, but the nature of which, on the other hand, he admits to be equally inconceivable, inasmuch as it is dissociated from every limitation under which man thinks. P. is not a theologian in speculation, seeking rather to identify his "Absolute Being" with "Thought" than with a "Deity." Only fragments of his poem remain, which have been separately edited by Fülleborn (Zürich, 1795); another collection is that by Brandis, in his "Commentationes Eleaticae" (Altona, 1815); but the best is to be found in Karsten's "Philosophorum Greorum veterum Reliquiae" (Amstelod. 1835).

PARMIGIANO. G<sup>r</sup>olamo Francesco Maria Mazzola, called Parmigiano, or Parmigianino, born at Parma in 1503, an able painter of the Lombard school, and the most

distinguished of those who followed the style of Correggio. His pictures attracted much attention when he was little more than fourteen years of age. In 1528 he went to Rome to follow out his studies, and was soon favorably noticed and employed by Clement VII. He was in that city when it was stormed by the imperialists under Bourbon in 1527, and, it is said, was calmly at work on his picture of "The Vision of St Jerome" (now in the National Gallery, London) when soldiers, bent on pillage, burst into his studio. He was, however, protected by their leader. After this event he left Rome for Bologna, where he painted various important works, and returned to Parma in 1531. Having engaged to execute several extensive frescoes in the church of S. Maria Steccata, after repeated delays, he was thrown into prison for breach of contract, and, on being released, in place of carrying out his undertaking, he fled to Casal Maggiore, in the territory of Cremona, where he died soon afterwards in 1540. Vasari, in his notice of P., attributes his misfortunes and premature death to his passion for alchemy; but this oft-repeated story has been disproved by the researches of late biographers. He executed several etchings, and some wood-cuts are attributed to him.

**PARNAH'BA**, or Paranabyba, a river of Brazil, rises in the Sierra dos Coroados, between the provinces of Goyas and Piauhi, about  $11^{\circ}$  s. It flows north-east and north, and enters the Atlantic in long, about  $41^{\circ} 40'$  w. by five months, which enclose a delta about 30 miles wide along the shore. These months, however, are only from two to four fathoms deep. It drains the province of Piauhi, and forms the boundary-line between it and the province of Maranhao. Total length estimated at 750 miles.—A chief tributary of the Parana also bears the name of Parahiba.

**PARNA'SSUS**, a mountain greatly celebrated among the ancients, and regarded by the Greeks as the central point of their country. It was in Phocis. It has three steep peaks, almost always covered with snow, and seen from a great distance, the highest being fully 8000 feet above the level of the sea; but as only two of them are visible from Delphi, it was customary among the Greeks to speak of the two-peaked Parnassus. On its southern slope lay Delphi (q. v.), the seat of the famous oracle, and the fountain of Castalia (q. v.). The highest peak was the scene of the orgies of the worship of Dionysus (Bacchus); all the rest of the mountain was sacred to Apollo and the Muses, whence poets were said to "climb Parnassus," a phrase still thus employed.

**PARO'CHIAL BOARD**, in Scotland, is the board in each parish which manages the relief of the poor. In England, the same duty is performed by overseers, and in some cases by guardians of the poor.

**PAROCHIAL RELIEF** is the relief given to paupers by the parish authorities. See Poor.

**PA'RODY** (Gr. *para*, beside, and *ode*, a song), the name given to a burlesque imitation of a serious poem. Its peculiarity is that it preserves the form, and as far as possible the words of the original, and thereby differs from a Travesty, which is a looser and less literal kind of burlesque. The invention of parodies is commonly ascribed to the Greeks (from whom, at least, we have derived the name); the first parodist, according to Aristotle, being Hegemon of Thasos, who flourished during the Peloponnesian war; according to others, Hippomox. From the fragments that are extant of ancient parody, we infer that Homer was the favorite subject of comic imitation. Thus Hippomox, in his picture of a glutton, ludicrously insinuates a comparison between the feats of his hero in eating and those of Achilles in fighting, by commencing as follows:

Sing, O celestial goddess, Eurymédon, foremost of gluttons,  
Whose stomach devours like Charybdis, eater unmatched among mortals.

The "Batrachomyomachia" (Battle of the Frogs and Mice), erroneously ascribed to Homer, is also a happy and harmless specimen of the parody, which, however, soon began to exchange its jocular and inoffensive raillery for a biting and sarcastic banter, of which numerous specimens may be seen in the comedies of Aristophanes; while the philosopher Timon of Phlius invented, under the name of "Silli," a new species of satirical parody. Among the Romans we first meet with this form of Ir-

erature in the period of the decline. All the power of Nero could not prevent his verses from being parodied by Péreius. Among modern nations the French—as might naturally be expected from their character—have been most addicted to this literary mimicry. Coracille parodied Chapelain in his "Cid," and Racine parodied Corneille. The *pot pourris* of Désangiers are considered by his countrymen models of this ungracious kind of literature. Schiller's famous poem of the "Bell" has been often parodied by German wits. In England, perhaps the best compositions of this nature are the "Rejected Addresses" of the brothers James and Horace Smith. Many will remember, in particular, the parody on Scott's "Battle of Flodden" in "Marmion," ending—

'Id rot 'em  
Were the last words of Higginbotham.

Barham's "Ingoldsby Legends" contains a felicitous parody on Wolfe's "Lines on the Burial of Sir John Moore." We quote the first stanza as a specimen:

Not a son had he got, not a guinea or note,  
And he looked most confoundedly flurried  
As he bolted away without paying his shot,  
And his laududy after him hurried.

Thackeray's "Miscellanies" also contain some very clever and satirical prose parodies upon certain of his brother novelists.

The historical development of the parody has been treated by Moser in Danz's and Creutzer's "Studien" (6th vol.). See also Moser's "Parodiarnum Exempla" (Ulm. 1819), and Weland's "De Præcipuis Parodiis Homericarum Scriptoribus" (Göt. 1833).

**PAROLE** (literally, a word) is the declaration made on honor by an officer, in a case in which there is no more than his sense of honor to restrain him from breaking his word. Thus a prisoner of war may be released from actual prison on his parole that he will not go beyond certain designated limits; or he may even be allowed to return to his own country on his parole not to fight again, during the existing war, against his captors. To break *parole* is accounted infamous in all civilised nations, and an officer who has so far forgotten his position as a gentleman ceases to have any claim to the treatment of an honorable man, nor can he expect quarter should he again fall into the hands of the enemy he has deceived.

**PAROLE EVIDENCE**, in Law, means such evidence as is given by witnesses by word of mouth at a trial or hearing of a cause. *Parole Agreement*, in English Law, means any agreement made either by word of mouth or by writing not under seal. If the agreement is made by writing under seal, it is called a deed, or indenture, or covenant, according to the nature of its contents.

**PAROPAMISA'N MOUNTAINS.** See AFGHANISTAN.

**PA'ROS**, one of the larger islands of the Grecian Archipelago, is situated west of Naxos, from which it is separated by a channel from four to six miles w.e. Greatest length, 15 miles; greatest br. depth, 9 miles; area, about 95 square miles; pop. 6000. The surface is hilly, the scenery picturesque, and the soil naturally fertile, but imperfectly cultivated. The island is especially productive in cotton, wax, honey, partridges, and wild pigeons. Near the middle of the island, the mountain Capres-o (ancient *Marpessa*), abounds in the famous Parian marble, which was used by many of the greatest sculptors of antiquity. Parekhia, on the west coast, is the principal town, and Naussa, on the north const., is the chief port.

In ancient times, P., which is said to have been colonised by Cretans, attained great maritime prosperity, and became wealthy and powerful. It submitted to the Persians; and after the battle of Marathon was assailed ineffectually by Miltiades, who received here the wound of which he soon after died. After the defeat of Xerxes, P. came under the supremacy of Athens, and shared the fate of the other Cyclades. Archilochus, the inventor of Iambic verse, was born here.

**PAROTID GLAND.** See SALIVARY GLANDS.

**PA'RQUETRY**, a kind of wood mosaic used only for flooring. The art of making inlaid wood floors has until lately much declined in this country, but on the con-

tinent it has been much in use, and has been carried to great perfection. Parquetry floors are usually of oak, but other and more ornamental woods have so been much used for giving variety and beauty to the pattern. In the more elaborate kinds of parquetry, veneers are used, but it is much more generally composed of blocks of wood squared at the sides, and laid down so as to combine and form a geometric pattern. Of late, the taste for this work has revived in Britain, and it is beginning to be extensively employed in the better class of buildings.

PARR, Samuel, LL.D., a once notable scholar, was born January 15, 1747, at Harrow-on-the-Hill. He entered Emmanuel College, Cambridge, in 1765; but the death of his father, two years afterwards, necessitated his doing something for himself, and he was, in consequence, induced to accept an assistant-mastership at Harrow, where he remained five years. The head-mastership then becoming vacant, P. applied for it, but was rejected, whereupon he left, and started as an independent schoolmaster. In 1777, he was appointed Master of Colchester School, where he was ordained priest, and obtained the curacies of Hythe and Trinity Church. Next year, he became Master of Norwich School; but in 1786, settled at Hatton in Warwickshire, where he spent the rest of his life. In 1787, he published an edition of Bellenden, to which he prefixed his celebrated preface, which is as remarkable for its uncompromising advocacy of Whig principles as for the scrupulous Ciceronianism of its Latinity. He died March 6, 1825.

It is almost impossible to understand the reputation which P. once had. None of his voluminous writings justify it. That he was in some respects an accomplished and even a great scholar, is undoubtedly, for he could write Latin of Ciceroian purity and fluish; but it is equally undoubted that he never did anything with his boasted scholarship. P. has left the world absolutely nothing to keep it in remembrance of him, yet his complete works (edited by Dr J. Johnstone in 1828)—exclusive of his contributions to periodicals—form eight enormous tomes, and contain 5734 octavo pages, many of them printed in small type. They relate to matters historical, critical and metaphysical, but in all of them “the thread of Parr’s verbosity is finer than the staple of his argument.” What, then, gave him the fame that he certainly enjoyed during his life? Beyond all question, it was his conversational powers. He was an amazing, an overwhelming talker. Bold, dogmatic, arrogant, with a memory profoundly and minutely retentive, and with a genuine gift of ephemeral epigram, he seemed, at the tables of statesmen, and wits and divines, to be a man of tremendous talent, capable of any literary feat; but the learning and the r.-parice have left little trace of their existence, and posterity declines to admire the wonders that it has neither seen nor heard. See De Quincey’s famous essay on “Dr Samuel Parr on Whiggism in its Relations to Literature” (Author’s edition, vol. 5. Edm. Adam and Charles Black, 1862).

#### PA'RRA. See JACANA.

PARRAKEE'T, or Parroquet, a name very commonly given to many of the smaller species of the parrot family; generally to species having long tails, and natives of the East Indies, Africa, and Australia, not so frequently to American species; although it is sometimes also applied to some of these, indifferently with the name Parrot.—One of the most beautiful groups of the *Psittacidae*, combining gracefulness of form with splendor of plumage, is that to which the ALEXANDRINA P. or RING P. (*Palaeornis Alexandrae*) belongs. It is about the size of a common pigeon, green, with a red collar, whence its name Ring P., and is a native of the East Indies. It is said to have been brought to Europe by some of the members of Alexander the Great’s expedition to India, and to have been the first of the parrot tribe known to the Greeks and Romans, by whom it was highly prized, as it still is, not only for its beauty, but for its docility and its power of imitating human speech. Like many of its tribe, it is gregarious, and immense flocks make their abode in some of the cocoa-nut groves of the western parts of Ceylon, filling the air with the most deafening screams. The Ring P. has many congeners, natives chiefly of the East Indies, exhibiting much variety of splendid plumage.—Somewhat like them in length and form of tail, but with longer and stronger legs, is the GROUND P., or GROUND PARROT (*Perophorus formosus*), of Australia, a bird very common in all the southern parts of New Holland and in Van Diemen’s Land,

inhabiting scrub or ground covered with very low underwood. Its habits are very unlike those of parrots in general; it runs along the ground, and even seeks to escape from enemies by running, unwillingly takes wing, and then only for a short low flight. It makes no nest, but lays its eggs in a hole in the ground. It is a small bird, not much more than 12 inches in entire length, one half of which is occupied by the tail; its color, dark green above, yellowish below, less brilliant than in many of the parrot tribe, but finely marked and mottled. Its flesh has a very strong game flavor. There are numerous other Australian species, distributed in several genera, some of which, although less exclusively than that just noticed, live and seek their food on the ground. Some of them exhibit the greatest splendor of plumage. The only one we shall notice is the ZEBRA P. (*Melopsittacus undulatus*), a very beautiful little species, which has often been brought to England, and has sometimes breed in it. In the vast inland plains of Australia, this P. is to be seen in flocks of many hundreds feeding on the seeds of the grasses, which afford food also to many other small species.

PA'RRIAS, a well-built town of Mexico, in the state of Coahuila, 470 miles north-west of Mexico, near the east shore of Lake Parras. It derives its name from a species of indigenous vine much cultivated, and has always been celebrated for its wines and brandies. There are many old Spanish families here. Pop. 8000.

PARRH'A'SIUS, one of the greatest painters of ancient Greece, was the son of Euenor, himself an artist, and was born at Ephesus in the 5th c. B.C. He practised his profession, however, at Athens, the inhabitants of which held him in high estimation, and conferred on him the rights of citizenship. He was already celebrated in the time of Socrates, with whom, according to Xenophon, he held a conversation ("Mem." 3, 10), and was also a younger con temporary of Zenobius. The date of his death is unknown. Seneca, who lived several hundred years after, tells a monstrous story about him. He says that when P. was painting his "Prometheus Vincens," he got hold of one of the prisoners taken at the capture of Olynthus by Philip of Macedon (347 B.C.), and crucified him in his studio that he might copy from life the expression of agony. Fortunately for P.'s memory, the anecdote is almost certainly untrue, as it would require us to suppose that he was still alive and painting when upwards of 100 years old. P. appears to have surpassed all his predecessors in purity of design, accuracy of drawing, force of expression, and what is technically called "finish." According to Pliny, he was the first who established a true proportion between the different parts of a picture, and delineated with elegance and precision all the minutiae of the features, even to those evanescent motions that betray the most delicate sentiments of the soul. He painted the extremities, such as the hands and fingers, in so exquisite a style, that the intermediate parts seemed relatively—but only relatively—inferior. Quintilian calls him the legislator of his art, because his canon of proportion for gods and heroes was followed by all contemporary and subsequent painters. Among his works were an apparently symbolical picture of the Athenian "Demos" ("People"), a "Thesers" ("Naval Commander in full Armor," "Ulysses feigning Madness," "Castor and Pollux," "Bacchus and Virtue," a "Meleager, Hercules, and Perses" on one canvas, a "Cretan Nurse with a Child in her Arms," a "Priest officiating with a Child bearing Incense," "Two Young Children," an "Achilles," an "Agamemnon," &c. But his subjects were not always of a pure or lofty character. His "Archigallus" (high-priest of Cybele) and his "Meleager and Atalanta" were most licentious representations, and gave such pleasure to the Emperor Tiberius, a man of unbounded sensuality, that he kept them in his bedroom, and valued the second in particular at more than a million sesterces.

P. was of an excessively proud and arrogant disposition. He called himself the prince of painters, and claimed to be descended from Apollo; he also painted himself as the god Mercury, and then exposed his own portrait for the adoration of the crowd. His vanity was equal to his pride, and shewed itself even in his apparel, which was of the kind called "gorgeous." He generally dressed in a purple robe with a golden fringe, sported a gold-headed cane, and wore boots tied with gold clasps.

PA'RRICIDE (Lat. *particida*) is rather a popular than a legal term. In the Roman law it comprehended every one who murdered a near relative; but in English the

term is usually confined to the murderer of one's father, or of one who is *in loco parentis*. The parricide does not, in any respect, differ in Britain from the murderer of a stranger; in both cases, the punishment is death by hanging. In the Roman law, a parricide was punished in a much more severe manner, being sewed up in a leather sack, along with a live cock, viper, dog, and ape, and cast into the sea to take his fate with these companions.

**PAKRISH'S CHEMICAL FOOD** is the popular name for a non-official preparation medicinally known as *Compound Syrup of Phosphate of Iron*, every drachm of which contains 1 grain of phosphate of iron, 2½ of phosphate of lime, besides soda and potash. Mr Parrish of Philadelphia was the first to publish a formula for this very useful compound.

**PA'RRO!** (*Psittacula*), a Linnean genus of birds, now the family *Psittacidae*, of the order *Scansores*, or Climbers (q. v.), comprehending a vast number of species, natives of almost all tropical and subtropical regions; a few species extending further north and south, in America, in New Zealand, and in Van Diemen's Land, even to the neighborhood of Lake Michigan in North America, and to Terra del Fuego in South America. They are mostly birds of splendid plumage; they vary very much in size, from the Great Macaw, more than three feet in length, tail included, to the little Love-birds, not larger than sparrows. They are mostly gregarious, and are often seen in vast flocks, generally inhabiting forests, and making their nests in trees, feeding chiefly on fruits and seeds, partly also on leaves and buds; but some of them dwelling in open plains, feeding on the seeds of grasses and other plants of humble growth, bulbs and succulent parts of vegetables, and living mostly on the ground. The voices of the P. tribe are generally harsh and discordant, although some of the smaller kinds have not unpleasant voices; but many of the larger have a remarkable power of imitating human speech, and in domestication become capable of articulating not only words but sentences. They exhibit a greater degree of intelligence than is usual in birds, with a monkey-like restlessness and love of trick; and although docile and affectionate, are generally of capricious irritable temper. They have a short, stout, hard beak, rounded on all sides, and enveloped at the base in a membrane than the nostrils are pierced; the upper mandible generally much longer than the lower, much curved, and sharp pointed. The tongue is almost always very large, thick, round, and a shy; the muscles which move the mandibles are more numerous and powerful than in most other birds. They make use of the powerful hooked bill as well as of the feet in climbing trees; and employ their feet as hands for holding their food, and bringing it up to the mouth. Their feet differ from those of all the other climbers, in being covered with small tubercle-like scales instead of plates. Some have short and some have long tails. Most of them have short wings. Their intestines are very long and slender, and without coeca.

The *Psittacidae* are easily distinguished from all other birds; but their division into distinct subordinate groups has not been found so easy. Whilst the name P. popularly includes all, except that it is seldom given to some of the smallest species, some are known by the names Macaw, Cockatoo, Parrakeet, Lory, Love-bird, &c. See these heads. But some of these names are very vaguely applied. And although the P. family is regarded as consisting of a number of very natural groups, the characters and limits of these groups have not yet been very well defined.

The name P., in its most restricted sense, is sometimes applied only to those species which have the upper mandible very distinctly toothed, the lower mandible longer than it is high; and the tail short, and square or rounded; but this use is rather ornithological than popular, the most restricted popular use equally including long-tailed species, such as the Caroline P., which are ornithologically ranked with the macaws.—The CAROLINE P. (*Conurus Carolinensis*) is the species of which the northern range extends far beyond all others of its tribe to the shores of Lake Michigan; although by the increase of cultivation, and the war waged against these birds for their depredations on orchards and corn-ricks, their numbers have been greatly diminished in regions where they were once plentiful. Its whole length is about 14 inches, of which about one-half is occupied by the tail; the general color is green, shaded with blue, and diversified with orange, the wing primaries almost black. It is gregarious,

prefers to roost in the holes of hollow trees, and in such situations also the females lay their eggs. It seems to love salt, frequenting salt licks like pigeons. It is easily tamed, but does not acquire the power of articulation.—Of the short-tailed parrots, one of the best known is the GRAY P. (*Prilacus erythacus*), a West African species, about the size of a small pigeon, of an ash-gray color, with a crimson tail. It is famous for its docility, its power of articulation and of imitating noises of all kinds, its loquacity, and its mischievousness. It is very often brought to Europe, and often lives to a great age in confinement. Individuals have been known to attain the age of nearly 100 years.—The GREEN PARROTS (*Chrysotis*), natives of the tropical parts of South America, are also among the short-tailed parrots most frequently seen in Britain.

PARROT-FISH (*Scarus*), a genus of fishes of the family *Labridæ* (q. v.) or *Cyclo Labridæ*, of oblong and massive form, with large scales, and remarkable for the structure of their jaws and teeth, the jaws being divided into halves by a median suture, the teeth incorporated with the bone in crowded quincuncial order, the surface even and polished in some species and rough in others, the oldest teeth forming the trenchant border of the jaw, and being succeeded by others as they are worn away, whilst new ones are formed behind. The species are numerous. Some of them feed on fuel, and some on corals, the younger branches of which they crush, so that the animal part affords them nourishment, whilst the calcareous part is rejected. They are fishes generally of brilliant colors, some of them of wonderful splendor, and have received the name parrot-fish partly on this account, and partly on account of a fancied resemblance in their jaws to a parrot's bill. Most of them are natives of tropical seas. One species is found in the Mediterranean (*S. Creticus*), the *Scarus* of the ancient, of which many wonderful stories were told, as to its love, its wisdom, its ruminating, its emitting of sounds, &c., and which was esteemed the most savory and delicate of all fishes. It is still held in high esteem for the table. The Greeks cook it with a sauce made of its own liver and intestines.

PARRY, Sir William Edward, commonly known as SIR EDWARD PARRY, a celebrated English navigator, was born at Bath, 19th December 1790. His father, who was a physician of some eminence, destined him for the medical profession; but acting on the advice of a friend, entered him as a first-class volunteer on board the *Ville-de-Paris*, the flag-ship of the Channel fleet, in 1808. After several years' service, he received his commission as lieutenant, January 6, 1810. Though thus early engaged in active service, his education had not been neglected; he had attained at school to considerable eminence in classical knowledge; and for the first five years after entering the navy, he had particularly studied French and mathematics under the chaplain's superintendence, after which he constantly employed his leisure time in nautical and astronomical studies. In February 1810, he was sent to the Arctic regions in command of a ship, for the purpose of protecting the British whale fisheries and improving the admiralty charts of those regions; but in 1813, he was recalled and despatched to join the fleet then blockading the coast of the United States. He remained on the North American station till the spring of 1817, and during this time he wrote and distributed MS. copies of a work entitled "Nautical Astronomy by Night," in which rules were given for determining accurately the altitude of the pole by observations of the fixed stars. This work he subsequently published in London. Having returned to England too late to take part in the African exploring expedition, he was, at his urgent request, backed by the recommendations of Mr Barrow, secretary to the Admiralty, appointed to the command of the *Alexander*, under the orders of Captain John Ross in the *Isabella*, and despatched in search of the "North-West Passage" (q. v.) in April 1818. The expedition returned to England, having made no important discoveries. The admiralty were dissatisfied with the report of Captain Ross; and P.'s opinion, though only communicated to his private friends, having become known to them, he was again sent out (May 1819), and this time commenced that career of discovery (see NORTH-WEST PASSAGE) which has immortalised him as the greatest of all Arctic explorers. P. on his return to Britain was hailed with the utmost enthusiasm, and was made commander (4th November 1820) and a member of the Royal Society. He subsequently made a second and a third voyage to the same regions, but effected nothing further of importance. P. now devoted him-

sold to the discharge of his duties as hydrographer, but such labors were too monotonous for one of his temperament, and he accordingly prepared a plan of an expedition for reaching the north pole, which being submitted to the admiralty and approved of by them, his old ship the *Heceta* was fitted out for a polar expedition, and P. set sail in her, accompanied by Lieutenant J. C. Ross, 4th April 1827. See **POLAR VOYAGES**. The "Journals" of these voyages were published by order of the admiralty.

P.'s career as an explorer was now closed, and he again returned to his duties as hydrographer, but his health now gave way under this sedentary mode of life, and he exchanged his office for that of commissioner to the Agricultural Company of Australia, for which country he sailed 20th July 1829. He returned to England in November 1834, and filled in succession various government appointments up till December 1846, when he retired from active service, receiving a sinecure office. On 4th June 1852 he was raised to the rank of Rear-admiral of the White, and in the following year was appointed Lieutenant-governor of Greenwich Hospital—an office which he held till his death, 7th July 1855, at Ems in Germany whether he had gone for the benefit of his health. A complete edition of his voyages was published in 1833 (Lond. 5 vols.). His life has been written by his son, the Rev. Edward Parry, M.A. of Balliol College, Oxford (1857).

**PARSEES** (People of Pars or Fars, i. e., ancient Persia) is the name of the small remnant of the followers of the ancient Persian religion, as reformed by Zerdusht, Zoroaster, as he is commonly called. They are also known under the denomination of Guebres, under which head some account will be found respecting their recent history and present numbers. The pre-Zoroastrian phase or phases of their primeval religion will probably for ever remain shrouded in deep obscurity; so much, however, is fully established by recent investigations, that this, and what afterwards became the Brahmanic religion, were originally identical; that in consequence of certain social and political conflicts between the Iranians and the Aryans, who afterwards peopled Hindustan Proper, an undying feud arose, in the course of which the former forsook even the hitherto common faith, and established a counter faith (Ahura), a principal dogma of which was the transformation of the ancient now hostile, gods into demons, and the branding of the entire Deva religion as the source of all mischief and wickedness. Zerdusht, the prophet, whose era is given very differently by ancient writers and by modern investigators, placed variously between 500 or 600 B.C. (Röth) and 1200 B.C. (Lang), had, like all prophets and reformers, many predecessors, chiefly among the Soshyantos or Fire-priests (Atharvans); yet to him belongs the decisive act of separating for ever the contending parties, and of establishing a new community with a new faith—the Mazdayasna or Parsee religion proper, which absorbed the old Ahura religion of the fire-priests. Referring for a summary of what is known and speculated about the person of the great reformer to the article under his name, we shall here confine ourselves to pointing out, as the characteristics of his leading doctrines, that the principle of his theology was as pure a Monotheism as ever the followers of the Jehovahistic faith were enjoined. He taught the existence of but one deity, the Ahura, who is called Mazzdā (see ORMUZZD), the creator of all things, to whom all good things, spiritual and worldly, belong. The principle of his speculative philosophy is dualism, i. e., the supposition of two primeval causes of the real and intellectual world; the Vohu Manö, the Good Mind or Reality (Gyan), and the Akev Manö, or the Naught Mind, or Non-reality (Ajjaiati); while the principle of his moral philosophy is the triad of Thought, Word, and Deed. Not long, however, did the pure idea of Monotheism prevail. The two sides of Ahura Mazzdā's being were taken to be two distinct personages—God and Devil—and they each took their due places in the Parsee pantheon in the course of time:—chiefly through the influence of the sect of the Zendiks, or followers of the Zend, i. e., Interpretation. According to Zerdusht there are two intellects, as there are two lives—one *mental* and one *bodily*; and, again, there must be distinguished an *earthly* and a *future* life. The immortality of souls was taught long before the Semites had adopted this belief. There are two abodes for the departed—Heaven (Garō-Demāna, the House of the Angels' Hymns, Yuzna, xxviii. 10; xxxiv. 2; cf. Is. vi., Revelat., &c.) and Hell (Drähō-Demāna, the residence of Devils and the priests of the Deva religion). Between the two there is the Bridge of the Gatherer or Judge, which the souls of the pious alone can pass. There will be a general resurrection, which is to precede the

last judgment, to foretell which Sostosh (Soskyana), the son of Zerdusht spiritually begotten (by later priests divided into three persons), will be sent by Ahuramazda. The world, which by that time will be utterly steeped in wretchedness, darkness, and sin, will then be renewed; death, the archfiend of creation, will be slain, and life will be everlasting and holy. These are the outlines of the Zoroastrian creed, as it flourished up to the time of Alexander the Great, throughout ancient Irania, including Upper Tibet, Cabuli-stan, Sogdiana, Bactriana, Media, Persia, &c.; and it is curious to speculate on the consequences which might have followed Marathon and Salamis had the Persians been victorious. The religion of Ormuzd would have dethroned the Olympians, as it dethroned the gods of the Assyrians and Babylonians; and it would certainly have left its traces upon the whole civilised world unto this day in a much more direct and palpable shape than it now does. From the death of Alexander, however, it gradually lost ground, and rapidly declined under his successor, until, in the time of Alexander Severus, Ardshir "Arianos" (cf. Mirkhond ap. de Sacy, "Mémoires sur divers Aut. de la Perse," &c., p. 59), the son of Babagan, called by the Greeks and Romans Artaxerxes or Artaxerxes, who claimed descent from the ancient royal lineage of Persia, took the field against Artabanus, and slew him (225), thus putting an end to the four hundred years' rule of the Parthians, and founded the Sasanide dynasty. This he effected in conjunction with the national Persians, who hated the "semi-Greek" dynasty of the Arsacides, their leaning to the foreign, and contempt for the Zend religion, and finally for their powerlessness against the spreading conquests of the Romans. The first act of the new king was the general and complete restoration of the partly lost, partly forgotten books of Zerdusht, which he effected, it is related, chiefly through the inspiration of a Magian Sage, chosen out of 40,000 Magians. The sacred volumes were translated out of the original Zend into the vernacular, and disseminated among the people at large, and fire temples were reared throughout the length and the breadth of the land. The Magi or priests were all-powerful, and their hatred was directed principally against the Greeks. "Far too long," wrote Ardshir, the king, to all the provinces of the Persian empire, "for more than five hundred years, has the poison of Aristotle spread." The fanaticism of the priests often also found vent against Christians and Jews. The latter have left us some account of the tyranny and oppression to which they as unbelievers were exposed—such as the prohibition of fire and light in their houses on Persian fast-days, of the slaughter of animals, the baths of purification, and the burial of the dead according to the Jewish rites—prohibitions only to be bought off by heavy bribes. In return, the Magi were cordially hated by the Jews, and remonstrated in their writings by the title of demons of hell (*Kidushin*, 72 a.). To accept the instruction of a Magian is pronounced by a Jewish sage to be an offence worthy of death (*Shabb.* 75 a.; 156 b.). This mutual animosity does not, however, appear to have long continued, since in subsequent times we frequently find Jewish sages (Samuel the Arian, &c.) on terms of friendship and confidence with the later Sasanide kings (cf. Moed Katan, 26, a. &c.). From the period of its re-establishment, the Zoroastrian religion flourished uninterruptedly for about 400 years, till, in 651 A.D., at the great battle of Nahavand (near Ecbatana), the Persian army, under Yezdegrid, was routed by the Calif Omar. The subsequent fate of those that remained faithful to the creed of their fathers has been described, as we said before, under GUEBRES. At present, some remnants inhabit Yazd and Kirmān, on the ancient soil of their race; others, who preferred emigration to the endless tribulations inflicted upon them by the conquering race, found a resting-place along the western coast of India, chiefly at Bombay, Surat, Nawsari, Achmedābād, and the vicinity, where they now live under English rule, and are recognised as one of the most respectable and thriving sections of the community, being for the most part merchants and landed proprietors. They bear, equally with their poorer brethren in Persia, with whom they have of late renewed some slight intercourse for religious and other purposes—such as their Rivāyat or correspondence on important and obscure doctrinal points—the very highest character for honesty, industry, and peacefulness, while their benevolence, intelligence, and magnificence outvie that of most of their European fellow-subjects. Their general appearance is to a certain degree prepossessing, and many of their women are strikingly beautiful. In all civil matters they are subject to the laws of

the country they inhabit; and its language is also theirs, except in the ritual of their religion, when the holy language of Zend is used by the priests, who, as a rule, have no more knowledge of it than the laity.

We have spoken of the leading fundamental doctrines as laid down by their prophet. Respecting the practical side of their religion, we cannot here enter into a detailed description of their very copious rituals, which have partly found their way into other creeds. Suffice it to mention the following few points. They do not eat anything cooked by a person of another religion; they also object to beef, pork, especially to ham. Marriages can only be contracted with persons of their own caste and creed. Polygamy, except after nine years of sterility and divorce, is forbidden. Fornication and adultery are punishable with death. Their dead are not buried, but exposed on an iron grating in the Dokhma, or Tower of Silence, to the fowls of the air, to the dew, and to the sun, until the flesh has disappeared, and the bleaching bones fall through into a pit beneath, from which they are afterwards removed to a subterranean cavern.

Ahuramazda being the origin of light, his symbol is the sun, with the moon and the planets, and in default of them the fire, and the believer is enjoined to face a luminous object during his prayers. Hence, also, the temples and altars must forever be fed with the holy fire, brought down, according to tradition, from heaven, and the sul ying of whose flame is punishable with death. The priests themselves approach it only with a half-mask (Penom) over the face, lest their breath should defile it, and never touch it with their hands, but with holy instruments. The fires are of five kinds; but however great the awe felt by Parsees with respect to fire and light (they are the only eastern nation who abstain from smoking), yet they never consider these, as we said before, as anything but emblems of Divinity. There are also five kinds of "Sacrifice," which term, however, is rather to be understood in the sense of a sacred action. These are—the slaughtering of animals for public or private solemnities; prayer; the Daruna sacrament, which, with its consecrated bread and wine in honor of the primeval founder of the law; Hom or Heomoh (the Sacer. *Soma*), and Dabistan, the personified blessing, bears a striking outward resemblance to the sacrament of the Lord's Supper; the sacrifice of Expiation, consisting either in flagellation, or in gifts to the priest; and, lastly, the sacrifice for the souls of the dead. The purification of physical and moral impurities is effected, in the first place, by cleansing with holy water (Nirang), earth, &c.; next, by prayers (of which sixteen, at least, are to be recited every day) and the recitation of the divine word; but other self-castigations, fasting, celibacy, &c., are considered hateful to the Divinity. The ethical code may be summed up in the three words—purity of thought, of word, and of deed: a religion "that is for all, and not for any particular nation," as the Zoroastrians say. It need hardly be added, that superstitions of all kinds have, in the course of the tribulations of ages, and the intimacy with neighboring countries, greatly defiled the original purity of this creed, and that it forms now very much among the different communities of the present time.

Something like a very serious schism, however, has lately broken out in the Parsee communities, and the modern terms of Conservative and Liberal, or rather bigot and infidel, are almost as freely used with them as in Europe. The sum and substance of these innovations, stoutly advocated by one side, and as stoutly resisted by the other, is the desire to abolish the purification by the Nirang—a filthy substance in itself—to reduce the large number of obligatory prayers, to stop early betrothal and marriage, to suppress the extravagance in funerals and weddings, to educate women, and to admit them into society. Two counteralliances or societies, the "Guides of the Worshippers of God" and "the True Guides" respectively, are trying to carry out at this moment, by means of meetings, speeches, tracts, &c., the objects of their different parties.

The literature of the Parsees will be found noticed under PERSIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE, and ZEND-AVESTA. Besides the latter, which is written in ancient Zend, and its Gujarati translation and commentaries, there are to be mentioned, as works specially treating of religious matters, the "Zardusht-Nameh," or Legendary History of Zerdusht; the "Saddeh," or Summary of Parsee Doctrines; the "Dabistan," or School of Manners; the "Desatir," or Sacred Writings, &c. All these have been translated into English and other European languages.

On the influence Parsim has had upon Judaism and its later doctrines and ceremonial, and, through it, upon Christianity and Mohammedanism—which besides drew from it directly—we cannot dwell here at any length. So much, however, may be stated, that the most cursory reading of the sacred Parsee books will shew, in a variety of points, their direct influence upon the three Semitic creeds. Of works treating on the subject of this article, we mention principally, Hyde, "Vet. Rel. Pers. Hist." (Oxon. 1760, 4to); Ouseley, "Travels in the East" (Lond. 1819); Anquetil du Perron, "Exposition des Usages des Parses;" Rhode, "Diction. Sage d r al en Baktrier," "Meder u. Perser," &c. (Frank.-u.-M., 1820, 8vo); Dorabhooy Framjee, "The Parsees," &c. (Lond. 1868); Dadubhai Naoroji, "The Manners and Customs of the Parsees;" and "The Parsee Religion" (Liverpool, 1861, 8vo); and lastly, Haug's "Essays on the Parsee Religion" (Bombay, 1862), and Spiegel's "Eräu" (Biel. 1863).

PA'RSELEY (*Petroselinum*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Umbellifera*. The species are annual or biennial, branching, smooth, herbaceous plants, with variously pinnate leaves.—COMMON P. (*P. sativum*), which has triplinato shining leaves, one of our best known culinary plants, is a native of the south of Europe, growing chiefly on rocks and old walls, and naturalised in some parts of England. The cultivation of P. is extremely simple, and an annual sowing is generally made, although when cut over and prevented from flowering, the plant lives for several years. A variety with curled leaflets is generally preferred to the common kind with plain leaflets, as finer and more beautiful, being often used as garnish; it is also safer, as the poisonous Fool's P. (q. v.) is sometimes gathered by mistake instead of the other.—HAMBURG P. is a variety with a large white carrot-like root, cultivated for the sake of its root, and much in the same way as the carrot or parsnip. To produce large roots and of delicate flavor, a very rich soil is required. The foliage of P. is not merely of use for flavoring soups, &c., but is nutritious, at the same time that it is stimulating, a quality which it seems to derive from an essential oil present in every part of the plant. P. contains also a peculiar gelatinous substance called *Apine*. The bruised leaves of P. are sometimes employed as a stimulating poultice. The seeds are a deadly poison to many birds, and when powdered they are sometimes used for killing lice.

PA'RSNIP (*Pastinaca*), a genus of plants of the natural order *Umbellifera*, having compound umbels with neither general nor partial involucres; yellow flowers with roundish, involute, sharp-pointed petals; calyx almost without teeth; fruit dorsally compressed and flat, with a broad border, the ridges very fine. The species are annual, biennial, or perennial herbaceous plants, with carrot-like, often fleshy roots, and pinnate leaves.—The Common P. (*P. sativa*) is a native of England, although not of Scotland, and is abundant in some districts, particularly in chalky and gravelly soils. It is also found in many parts of Europe, and of the north of Asia. It is a biennial, with angular farrowed stem, 2-3 feet high, pinnate leaves with ovate leaflets, rather shining, cut and serrated, and a three-lobed terminal leaflet. The root of the wild plant is white, aromatic, mucilaginous, sweet, but with some acridness; and injurious effects have followed from its use. Cultivation has greatly modified the qualities both of the root and foliage, rendering them much more bland. The P. has long been cultivated for the sake of its root, which in cultivation has greatly increased in size, and become more fleshy. The flavor is disliked by some, as well as the too great sweetness, but highly relished by others; and the root of the P. is more nutritious than that of the carrot. The produce is also, on many soils, of larger quantity; and although the P. delights in a very open rich soil, it will succeed in clayey soils far too stiff for the carrot. It is rather remarkable that it has not been extensively cultivated as a field-crop, and for the feeding of cattle, except in the Channel Islands and in limited districts of continental Europe; more particularly as cattle are very fond of it, and not only the flesh of cattle fed on it is of excellent quality, but the butter of dairy-cows fed on pasturage in winter is far superior to that produced by almost any other kind of winter-feeding. The mode of cultivation of the P. scarcely differs from that of the carrot. There are several varieties in cultivation. A very large variety, cultivated in the Channel Islands on deep sandy soils, has roots sometimes three or four feet long; but this is fully twice the ordinary length, and there is a smaller turnip-rooted variety

sometimes cultivated in gardens where the soil is very shallow. The P. is used chiefly in winter, whether for the table or for feeding cattle. It is improved rather than injured by frost; but is apt to become ranky, if allowed to remain too long in the ground; and exhibits acrid qualities after it has begun to grow again in spring. The root of the P. is much used in the north of Ireland for making fermented liquor, with yeast and hops; and both in England and Ireland, for making P. wine, which has some resemblance to Malmsey wine.—Another species, the CUT-LEAVED P. or SEKAKUL (*P. Sekakul*), having pinnatifid cut leaflets, a native of India, Syria, and Egypt, is cultivated in the Levant, and is very similar in its uses to the common parsnip.

**PARSON.** In English Ecclesiastical Law, means the incumbent of a benefice in a parish. He is called parson (Lat. *persona*) because he represents the church for several purposes. He requires to be a member of the Established Church of England, and to be duly admitted to holy orders, presented, instituted, and inducted; and requires to be 23 years of age. When he is inducted, and not before, he is said to be in full and complete possession of the incumbency. The theory is, that the freehold of the parish church is vested in him, and as the legal owner, he has various rights of control over the chancel. He is also the owner of the churchyard, and as such is entitled to the grass. As owner of the body of the church, he has a right to control of the church bells, and is entitled to prevent the churchwardens from ringing them against his will. The distinction between a parson and vicar is, that the parson has generally the whole right to the ecclesiastical dues in the parish, whereas the vicar has an appropriator over him, who is the real owner of the dues and tithes, and the vicar has only an inferior portion. The duty of the parson is to perform divine service in the parish church under the control of the bishop, to administer the sacraments to parishioners, to read the burial-service on request of the parishioners, to marry them in the parish church when they tender themselves. He is bound to reside in the parish, and is subject to penalties and forfeiture, if he without cause absent himself from the parish. He is subject to the Clergy Discipline Act, in case of misconduct.

**PA'RSTONSTOWN** (anciently called BIRR), a considerable inland town on the river Brosna, in King's County, Ireland, 69 miles west-south-west from Dublin, with which city it is connected by a branch line issuing from the Great Southern and Western Railway at Ballybrophy. Pop. in 1871, 4939; of whom 4049 were Roman Catholics, 725 Protestant Episcopalians, and the rest Protestants of other denominations. Birr had its origin at an early period in a monastery founded by St Breandan, and was the scene of many important events, both in the Irish and in the post-invasion periods. The castle, which was anciently the seat of the O'Carrols, was granted by Henry II. to Philip de Worcester; but it frequently changed masters, and even alternated between English and Irish hands. By James I., it was granted to Lawrence Parsons, ancestor of the present proprietor, the Earl of Rosse; but through the entire period of the civil wars, its possession was constantly disputed, until after 1690, when the Parsons family was finally established in possession. About this time Birr returned two members to parliament, but the privilege was temporary. The castle has been rebuilt. P. is one of the handsomest and best inland towns in Ireland, with several fine churches and chapels, a munuary, a statue of the Duke of Cumberland, a bronze statue (erected in 186) of the third Earl of Rosse, a town-hall, a library, literary institute, a model and other schools. But the great attractions of P. are the castle, the observatory, and the laboratory of the late Earl of Rosse (q. v.), still maintained in active use by the present earl. P. is an important corn-market, a considerable centre of inland commerce; but with the exception of a distillery and brewery, it is almost entirely without manufactures. It is a military station, and the seat of a union workhouse.

**PĀRS'WANĀTHA**, the twenty-third of the deified saints of the Jainas, in the present era. He and Mahāvīra, the twenty-fourth, are held in highest esteem, especially in Hindustan. In a suburb of Benares, called Bellapuri, there is a temple honoured as the birthplace of Pārs'wanātha. See JAINAS.

**PART**, in Music. When a piece of music consists of several series of sounds performed simultaneously, each series is called a part.

PARTA'NNA, a market-town of the island of Sicily, in the province of Trapani, 36 miles south-west of Palermo, on a slope. Pop. 12,467.

PARTERRE, in gardens laid out in the old French style, the open part in front of the house, in which flower-beds and closely-cut lawn were intermingled according to a regular plan.

PAR'THENOGENESIS (from the Gr. *parthenos*, a virgin, and *genesis*, the act of production) is a term invented by Professor Owen to indicate propagation by self-splitting or self dividing, by budding from without or within, and by any mode save by the act of impregnation; the parthenogenetic individuals being sexless or virgin females. See the articles GENERATIONS, ALTERNATION OF. For many remarkable facts in relation to parthenogenesis in insects, the reader is referred to Professor Owen's eighteenth lecture, "On the Comparative Anatomy and Phy'lo'gy of Invertebrate Animals;" and to Siebold, "On Parthenogenesis," translated by Dallas.

PA'RTHENON, the temple of Minerva at Athens; one of the most celebrated of the Greek temples, and usually regarded as the most perfect specimen of Greek architecture. Many of the sculptures have been brought to England, and are now in the British Museum. See GREECAN ARCHITECTURE.

PA'THENOPE'AN REPUBLIC (from *Parthenope*, the oldest name of the city of Naples) was the name given to the state into which the kingdom of Naples was transformed by the French Republicans, 23d January 1799, and which only lasted till the following June, when the invading army was forced to retreat.

PA'RTHIA, anciently a country of Western Asia, lying at the south-east end of the Caspian Sea, from which it was separated by a narrow strip known as Hyrcania, now forms the northern portion of the province of Khorassan, and is an almost wholly mountainous region. Its rivers are erey mountain torrents, which are supplied by the melting snow on the Eibnuz range during winter and spring, but are mostly dry in summer and autumn.

The original inhabitants are believed to have been of Scythian race, as shown by their language as well as by their manners, and to belong to the great Indo-Germanic family. If this be the case, as is very probable, the term Parthian, from its analogy to the Scythian word *parthe*, banished, seems to indicate that they were a tribe who had been driven to P. out of Scythia (i. e., Central Asia). The Parthians, during the time of the Roman Republic, were distinguished by primitive simplicity of life and extreme bravery, though at the same time much given to bacchanalian and voluptuous pleasures. They neglected agriculture and commerce, devoting their whole time to predatory expeditions and warfare. They fought on horseback, and after a peculiar fashion. Being armed solely with bows and arrows, they were rendered defenceless after the first discharge; and, to gain time for adjusting a second arrow to the bow, turned their horses and retired, as if in full flight, but an enemy incautiously pursuing, was immediately assailed by a second flight of arrows; a second pretended flight followed, and the conflict was thus carried on till the Parthians gained the victory, or exhausted their quivers. They generally discharged their arrows backwards, holding the bow behind the shoulder; mode of attack more dangerous to a pursuing enemy than to one in order of battle. The Parthians first appear in history as subject to the great Persian Empire. After the death of Alexander the Great, P. formed part of the Syrian kingdom, but revolted under Antiochus II., and constituted itself into an independent kingdom under the Arsacidae (see ARSACES), 250 B. C., a race of kings who exercised the most completely despotic authority ever known, treating their subjects as if the vilest of slaves; yet so accustomed did the Parthians become to this odious rule, that some of the later monarchs, who had received a Roman education, and after their accession treated their subjects with ordinary justice and humanity, were completely despised. The capital of the Parthian monarchy was Hecatompylos ("the city of the hundred gates"), now Damghan. The Parthian dominion rapidly extended to the Euphrates on the west and the Indus on the east, and became a most powerful and flourishing empire. Seleucia, Ctesiphon—the capital of the Persian emperors of the Sasanidæ—and other celebrated cities date their rise from this period, and soon eclipsed, in size and splendor, the ancient Hecatompylos. In spite of repeated attacks on the part

of the Romans, the Parthians maintained their independence (see CRASSUS, SURENA); and though Trajan, in 115–116 A.D., seized certain portions of the country, the Romans were soon compelled to abandon them. In 214 A.D., during the reign of Artabanus IV., the last of the Arsacidae, a revolt, headed by Ardshir, son of Babegan, broke out in Persia, and the Parthian monarch, beaten in three engagements, lost his throne and life, while the victor substituted the Persian dynasty of the SASSANIDA (q. v.) for that of the Arsacidae. Some scions of the Parthian royal family continued for several centuries to rule over the mountainous district of Armenia, under the protection of the Romans, and made frequent descents upon Assyria and Babylonia; but their history is obscure and of little importance.

PARTIAL LOSS, in the law of Marine Insurance, is a loss which is not total; and therefore the insurer is not entitled to abandon or give up the remains of the ship or cargo, and claim the entire insurance money; but he is bound to keep his ship or goods, and claim only in proportion to his actual loss or damage.

PA'R TICIPLE (Lat. *participium*, part-taking), the name of a class of words which have the meaning of a verb with the form of an adjective. The name is said to have been given from their partaking of the nature both of a verb and of an adjective. Some grammarians make the participle a distinct part of speech, but it is more commonly classed as a part of the conjugation of the verb. There are in English two participles, one in *-ing*, usually called the present, but properly the imperfect, because it expresses continued, unfinished action, e. g., *loving*, *writing*; and the other expressing past action, and ending either in *-ed* (*t*) or in *-en*, e. g., *loved*, *written*. In Ang.-Sax. and Old Eng., the imperfect participle ended in *-and*, e. g., *haband* (having), corresponding to the modern Ger. *habend*, Gr. *echont* (os), Lut. *habent* (is). In the sentence, "He is *writing* a letter," *writing* is the imperfect participle; in "the *writing* of the letter occupies him," or "*writing* is a difficult art," it is a substantive, and had a different origin. In the latter case, *-ing* corresponds to the Ang.-Sax. termination *-ung*, used in forming substantives from a large class of verbs; thus, Ang.-Sax. *halung* (allowing) is equivalent in meaning and in etymology to Lat. *consecratio*; similarly, modern Ger. *Vernichtung*, annihilation, from *vernichten*, to annihilate. Such a phrase as, "while the letter is *writing*," seems to be a shortened form of the now antiquated, "is a-writing," which was originally, "is in writing." Although this mode of expression is liable in some cases to ambiguity, it is terser and more idiomatic than the circumlocution of "is being written," which is often substituted for it. The verbal substantive in *-ing* is often exactly equivalent to the infinitive; thus, "*standing* long in one position is painful" = "*to stand*," &c. It has this advantage, that while it can be constructed as a noun (e. g., with a possessive case), it can retain at the same time the usual adjuncts of a verb; as, "What are we to infer from the king's dismissing his minister?" The use of this form contributes not a little to the peculiar brevity and strength of the Eng. s language.

PA'R TICK, a town of Scotland, in the county of Lanark, prettily situated chiefly on a rising ground on the Kelvin, immediately above its junction with the Clyde, and about three miles west-north-west of the Cross of Glasgow, of which city it now forms a suburb. Nine-tenths of the workmen of P. are engaged in ship-building, and there are numerous ship-building yards, flour-mills, cotton factories, and bleach-fields. A large proportion of the inhabitants are engaged in business in Glasgow, and for their accommodation extensive ranges of handsome villas have been built here. Pop. (1851) 8131; (1861) 8183; (1871) 17,691.

PARTINICO, Saladi, a post-town of Sicily, in the province of Palermo, and 19 miles south-west of the city of that name, at the foot of a grand precipice of red limestone. The plain in the vicinity is of surpassing fertility; corn, wine, oil, fruit, and sun-dried fish are produced in rich abundance; and linen and woollen goods are manufactured. Pop. (1872) 20,154. Scattered vestiges of ancient habitations are still to be seen on the summit of the height above the town, and are said to be the ruins of the ancient *Parthenicum* mentioned in the "Itinerary" of Antoninus, and there only.

PA'R TISAN is a name for a halberd or pike, or for a marshal's baton. The name is also given to the leader of a detached body of light troops, who make war

by harassing the enemy, rather than coming to direct fighting, by cutting off stragglers, interrupting his supplies, and confusing him by rapid strategy. The action of such a corps is known as *Partisan warfare*.

PARTITION, a thin interior wall dividing one apartment from another. It is usually of brickwork,  $4\frac{1}{2}$  or 9 inches thick, or of timber with standards about  $4\frac{1}{2}$  inches thick covered with lath and plaster. Wooden partitions are used when there is no sufficient support for brick. When these have to carry joists or any other weight, they ought to be constructed in the form of a truss (q. v.).

PARTITION, or Partitura, in Music. See SCORE.

PARTITION LINES, in Heraldry, lines dividing the shield in directions corresponding to the ordinaries. According to the direction of the partition lines, a shield is said to be party per fess, per pale, per bend, per chevron, per saltire; a shield divided by lines in the direction of a cross, is said to be quartered; and a shield parted at once per cross and per saltire, is said to Gironné (q. v.) of eight. The partition lines are not always plain; they may be engrailed, invected, embattled, wavy, nebuly, indented, dancetté or raguly—forms which will be found explained under separate articles.

PARTNERSHIP, in the law of England, is the union of two or more individuals acting under a contract, whereby they mutually contribute their property or labor for the purpose of making profits jointly. When a partnership is confined to a particular transaction or speculation, it is usually called a joint-adventure, and the parties are joint-adventurers. The usual criterion by which a partnership is ascertained to exist, as distinguished from other arrangements, is that there is a community of profit; it is not essential that both should suffer losses equally or proportionably, for one partner may stipulate that he shall not be liable to lose. This stipulation is binding between the partners, but of course is insufficient to prevent the partners from being all liable to third parties. So one partner may contribute all the capital or all the labor. A dormant partner is one whose name does not generally appear to the world as a partner, but who nevertheless is to all intents and purposes a partner, with equal rights and liabilities to the rest. In order to constitute that kind of community of profit which is the chief ingredient in a partnership, it is necessary that the partner share in the profits as a partner; for in many cases, clerks, servants, or agents receive a commission or remuneration proportioned to profits, and yet are not partners, for this is merely one mode of ascertaining the salary which they are to receive. In all such cases, therefore, the distinction as to whether there is a partnership or not turns on the consideration whether the alleged partner receives a share of the profits, as such, or merely receives a salary proportioned to profits, without having a specific interest in the firm. The contract of partnership may be entered into either by word of mouth or in writing. If no specified term be agreed upon, it is a partnership at will, and may be dissolved by either of the parties at pleasure. Sometimes, also, the Court of Chancery will interfere to dissolve the partnership before the time appointed; but this only happens when some unforeseen and urgent reason exists, as that one of the partners has become lunatic, or has proved grossly dishonest, or the object of the partnership cannot be carried out. Mere differences of opinion on minor matters are no ground for seeking a dissolution. The partners may make any kind of arrangement between themselves that they think proper; but if these are unusual and special stipulations, there is no certainty of securing the same being adhered to, without a formal deed or indenture of partnership being executed. Thus, it is common to stipulate as to the capital each is to contribute, and as to the proportion of profits he is to receive, as to what is to be done in case of the death of a partner, &c. Unless a stipulation is made to the contrary, the rule is, that the death of one of the partners dissolves the partnership. So does his bankruptcy. It is also a rule that no new partner can be introduced without the consent of the rest. There was once a peculiarity in the law of England as to the form of remedy—the rule being, that partners cannot sue each other in a court of law in respect of partnership transactions, but the only remedy is by a bill in Chancery. As against third parties, whatever may be the secret arrangements between themselves, the rule is, that any partner can bind the firm in all matters which are within the scope of the partnership, each being by the nature of the contract made the agent of all the rest for business purposes. Thus, any one

may accept a bill in the name of the firm, provided such be one of the modes of doing business. It is, however, to be borne in mind, that the firm is only bound by one of the partners in those matters which are strictly within the proper business of the firm, which is an important qualification of the general power. Within the above limits, each partner can bind the rest of his copartners, however imprudent or foolish may be his act, for it is one of the implied conditions, that all have full confidence in each other. It follows from this principle, that the firm is liable for the dealings of each partner on its behalf within the scope of the partnership, and each is liable to the full extent for all the debts of the firm; in short, each is liable to his last shilling for the solvency of the firm. Hence, it is often of importance for a partner, on leaving the firm, to know how to terminate this liability. The rule is, that as regards all strangers, a notice in the "Gazette" is good notice; but as between the firm and those who have had dealings with it, the "Gazette" notice is of no use, unless it can be proved that the party had actual notice given to him—and hence a circular notice sent to customers announcing the fact of retirement, is the only course effectual.

The practice of individuals entering into large associations, now called joint-stock companies, which were originally only extended partnerships, has led to a separate code as to these being framed for the United Kingdom. See **JOINT-STOCK COMPANIES**. The practice of limiting the liability of partners or shareholders in joint-stock companies had of late years led to the belief, that a similar restriction might well be extended to ordinary partnerships, and accordingly a bill was introduced into parliament in 1864 to enable this to be done. But that view was not carried out except to a limited extent, though an attempt was made to simplify some of the rules as to partnership liability, which are somewhat perplexing. It had long been matter of complaint that every man who had a share of the profits of a trade was said to be liable also to bear his share of the loss; whereas by lending money at a fixed rate of interest he was a mere creditor, and could be exposed to no risk but the loss of his advance. The House of Lords, however, in 1860, had held it to be a mistake to suppose that a person who advanced money on terms of sharing profits was necessarily a partner. To remove part of the difficulty, however, an act of 28 and 29 Vict. c. 86 was passed, which enacts that if advances are made by written contract to a person in trade on terms of sharing profits, that of itself will not make the lender a partner. Nor will the payment of a servant or agent by a share of profits, nor the receipt by a deceased partner's widow or child of part of the profits as annuity, make any of these a partner. But the benefit of this act was confined in most cases to written contracts, and thus the old law remains as to other cases. It is still the law that a person, not a partner, becomes liable as one, if he has either represented himself as a partner, or authorised another so to represent him; and the third person dealing with the firm must have known this representation to enable him to hold the dormant partner liable. In 1870, a bill was passed "to facilitate compromises and arrangements between creditors and shareholders of joint-stock and other companies in liquidation," but these points do not call for notice here.

In Scotland, the law of partnership, though in its essential features the same with the law of England, differs in one or two particulars. The partnership is treated as a distinct person in law, the partners being only its sureties or cautioners; and the consequence of this is, that in actions by or against the firm, the individual partners need not be named, though in practice one or two of them generally are named. Each partner may also sue the firm as if it were a distinct person; and the firm may be made bankrupt without any of the partners being sequestrated. See Paterson's "Comp. of E. & S. Law," p. 214.

**PARTRIDGE** (*Perdix*) a genus of gallinaceous birds, of the family *Tetraonidae*, having a short, strong bill, naked at the base; the upper mandible convex, bent down at the tip; the wings and tail short, the tarsi as well as the toes naked, the tarsi not spurred.—The **COMMON P.**, or **GRAY P.** (*P. cinerea*), is the most plentiful of all game-birds in Britain, and becomes increasingly plentiful as cultivation is extended, whilst the range of the moorfowl is restricted. It is not found in the Outer Hebrides. On the continent of Europe, it is abundant in almost all districts suitable to its habits, from Scandinavia to the Mediterranean, and is found also in the north of Africa, and in some parts of the west of Asia. It varies considerably in size; those found in rich lowlands being generally the largest, and about 12 $\frac{1}{2}$  inches in entire length; whilst those which inhabit poorer and more upland districts are rather

smaller. The female is rather smaller than the male. The upper parts of both are ash-gray, finely varied with brown and black; the male has a deep chestnut crescent-shaped spot on the breast, which is almost or altogether wanting in the female. A variety called the Mountain P. has the plumage brown. The P. is seldom found far from cultivated land. It feeds on grain and other seeds, insects and their larvae and pupae, and the pupae of ants are generally the food sought at first for the young. The nest is usually on the ground, among brushwood and long grass, or in fields of clover or corn, and generally contains from twelve to twenty eggs. The young run as soon as they are hatched. Both parents shew a very strong attachment to their young, and great courage in repelling assailants; they have also recourse, like many other birds, to stratagem, to draw off the most powerful and dangerous enemies, such as dogs, in another direction, fluttering close before them as if broken-winged, whilst the brood escape. Until the end of autumn, the parent birds and their brood keep together in a *covey*; late in the season, several coveys often unite into a *pack*, when it becomes much more difficult for the sportsman to approach them. The flight of the P. is strong and rapid for a short distance, but it does not seem to be capable of a long-sustained flight. The eggs of partridges are often hatched, and the young birds reared, by the domestic hen, the chief requisite being a plentiful supply of ants when the birds are very young. Partridges thus reared become very tame, but they seldom breed in the aviary.—The RED-LEGGED P. (*P. rufus*, or *Caccabis rufus*, the genus or sub-genus *Caccabis* being distinguished by a rudimentary blunt spur on the tarsi) is a native of the south of Europe and of the Channel Islands, and is now also plentiful in some parts of England, particularly Norfolk and Suffolk, into which it has been introduced. It is rather larger than the common P., stronger on the wing, and less easily approached by the sportsman, whilst it is also less esteemed for the table. The upper parts are of a reddish-ash color; the throat and cheeks white, bounded by a collar of black, which expands in black spots on the breast; and the sides exhibit bars of black. The plumage is smooth.—Two other species, nearly allied to this, are found in some of the southern parts of Europe. India has a number of species. The habits of all the species much resemble those of the Common Partridge.—The name P. is sometimes extended so as to include the species of *Ortyx* (see VIRGINIAN QUAIL), and in South America is sometimes given to the Tinamous.

#### PARTRIDGE BERRY. See GAULTHERIA.

PARTRIDGE PIGEON (*Geophaps*), an Australian genus of *Colubridae*, approaching more than most of the pigeons in character and habits to the true gallinaceous birds, and particularly to partridges. Their plumage is beautiful, and generally with a bronze tinge and lustre on the wings, which causes them to be sometimes called Bronze-wings. There are several species. They live mostly on the ground, and rise with a whirring noise, like the pheasant, when disturbed. They are highly esteemed for the table. *Geotrygon montana*, a species of another genus of *Colubridae*, bears the name of PARTRIDGE DOVE in the West Indies. It also seeks its food chiefly on the ground, although it affects well-wooded districts.

PARTRIDGES, in Artillery, were very large bombards formerly in use at sieges and in defensive works. They are mentioned in Froissart.

PARTRIDGE-WOOD, a very pretty hard-wood from the West Indies and Brazil; it is usually of a reddish color, in various shades from light to dark, the shades being mingled in thin streaks; but in some choice sorts they are curled upon one another so as to resemble the feathers of the partridge, whence its name. One variety occurs in which the colors are remarkably bright, and it is consequently called Pheasant-wood. In Brazil this beautiful wood is so plentiful that it is employed in shipbuilding, and it is said to be used in our navy-yards under the name of Cabbage-wood, but this is doubtful; many woods are known as partridge, and several as cabbage wood. Among the Brazilian it is called "Angelim," and they describe four sorts—*Angelim de pedra* (the Stone Angelim), *A. vermelho* (Red Angelim), *A. amargoso* (Bitter Angelim), and *A. varzea* (Cultivated Angelim). Its chief use in this country is for cabinet-work, Tunbridge-ware, parasol sticks, fans, and other small matters for which its beauty recommends it. It is said to be yielded by the leguminous tree (*Andira inermis*), which is found not only in the Brazils, but in other parts of South America and the West Indies.

PARTS OF SPEECH are the several kinds or classes into which the words of a

language are divided. There is nothing in the outward form of words that would enable us to divide them into classes. The distinction lies in the *offices* that the several words perform in a sentence (q. v.). All words performing the same office in sentences belong to the same class. The essential parts of speech are the Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction (see these several head-). The Articles (q. v.) are not distinct parts of speech, being essentially pronouns; and Interjections (q. v.) hardly belong to articulate speech. To name the class or part of speech to which each word of a sentence belongs, is called to *parse* it.

**PARTURITION.** See MIDWIFERY.

**PARTY,** in Heraldry. See PARTITION LINES.

**PARTY-WALL** is the wall dividing two houses or tenements, and which is, in a certain sense, one and indivisible, though the property of two or more parties. The question as to who is the owner of any particular part of the party-wall, is solved by ascertaining who is the owner of the soil on which it is built. In the absence of evidence to the contrary, it is presumed that half of the soil belongs to the owner on one side, and the other half to the owner of the other side; and unless the wall has stood twenty years and upwards, each owner can do what he likes with his own half, and can pare it away if he likes. But in general, mutual interest prevents each party from resorting to his strict legal rights. A practice exists for one who builds a house adjoining the wall of a neighbor, to pay for half the expense. In Scotland, a party building close to the wall of another's house, can compel the owner of the first house to give him half of the wall or gable, on paying half the expense; while in England there is no such compulsion. In Scotland, where the practice exists of building houses in flats lying each upon the other, the law is not clearly settled, and requires to be cleared up as to what is the nature of the property or interest which each proprietor of a flat has in that part of the gable bounding his own flat. The better opinion is, that each is the entire owner of his half of the gable, the others having merely cross servitudes; and hence it follows, that if the flats on both sides of a gable belong to one owner, he can make a communication through the gable, provided he do not injure the chimney-flues of the lower flats, or the stability of the structure.

**PĀRVATĪ** (from the Sanscrit *parvata*, mountain, literally, mountain-born) is one of the names by which Durgā, the consort of S'iva, is usually called, she being the daughter of the mountain Himalaya.

**PA'RVICE,** a porch or open space in front of the door of a church.

**PASCAGOULĀ**, a river, and bay at its mouth, in Mississippi, U.S. The river, formed by the junction of the Leaf, the Chickahay, with numerous branches, drains the south-eastern portion of the state, and flows into the Mississippi Sound through two mouths which form the bay. It is navigable 100 miles through a sandy region of pine-forests, supplying turpentine. The villages on the bay are summer resorts from Mobile and New Orleans; and on the shores at night are heard sounds like the *Aeolian* harp, supposed to be caused by some kind of shell-fish.

**PASCAL,** Blaise, one of the most distinguished philosophers and scholars of the 17th c. was born at Clermont, in Auvergne, France, June 19. 1623. His father, Etienne Pascal, was president of the Cour des Aides at Clermont. His mother, Antoinette Bezon, died while he was little beyond infancy. He had two sisters—the elder, Gilberte, Madame Perier, afterwards his biographer; the younger, Jacqueline, who became a nun of Port Royal, under the celebrated Mère Angélique, sister of Antoine Arnauld. From childhood, Blaise gave evidence of extraordinary abilities; and when he reached his eighth year, his father resigned his office at Clermont, and came to Paris, in order personally to direct the boy's education. For the purpose of concentrating all the boy's efforts upon language, his father kept out of his reach all books treating the subject of mathematics, for which he had early evinced a decided taste; and it is recorded that by his own unaided speculations, drawing the diagrams with charcoal upon the floor, he made some progress in geometry. One account represents him as having thus mastered the first thirty-two propositions of the first book of Euclid's "Elements"—a statement which carries its own refutation with it. Thenceforward, he was permitted freely to follow the bent of

his genius. In his sixteenth year, he produced a treatise on Conic Sections, which extorted the almost incredulous admiration of Descartes. In his nineteenth year, he invented a calculating-machine; and turning his attention to the novel questions as to the nature of fluids, which Torricelli's theories had raised, he produced two essays, which, although not published till after his death, have established his reputation as an experimental physicist. His father having accepted an office at Itouen, P. was there brought much into intercourse with a distinguished preacher, Abbé Guillebert, a member of the Jansenists, but a man of great eloquence, a great master of ascetic theology, from whom and from other members of the same rig'd sect, as well as from the writings of Arnauld, St. Cyran, and Nicole, P.'s mind received a deeply religious turn; and his health having suffered much from excessive study, he gave himself up in great measure to retirement and theological reading, and to the practice of asceticism. The death of his father, and his sister Jacqueline's withdrawal to Port Royal, confirmed these habits; and it is to this period that we owe his magnificent though unfinished "Pensées," which have extorted the admiration even of his unbelieving, and therefore unsympathizing critics. Having fully identified himself with the Jansenist party, he was induced (1655) to take up his residence at Port Royal, although not as a member of the body, where he resided till his death, entirely given up to prayer and practices of mortification, among which practices may be mentioned that of wearing an iron girdle, studded with sharp points, which he forced into his flesh whenever he felt himself assailed by sinful thoughts. In the controversy to which the condemnation of Arnauld by the Sorbonne (1655) gave rise, P. took a lively interest; and it was to this controversy that he contributed the memorable "Lettres Provinciales," published under the pseudonym of Louis de Montalt. These famous Letters (eighteen in number, not reckoning the nineteenth, which is a fragment, and the twentieth, which is by Lemaitre), are written, as if to a provincial friend, on the absorbing controversial topic of the day. The first three are devoted to the vindication of Arnauld, and the demonstration of the identity of his doctrine with that of St. Augustine. But it was to the later letters that the collection owed both its contemporary popularity and its abiding fame. In these P. addresses himself to the casuistry and to the directorial system of Arnauld's great antagonists, the Jesuits; and in a strain of humorous irony which has seldom been surpassed, he holds up to ridicule their imputed laxity of principle on the obligation of restitution, on simony, on probable opinions, on directing the intention, on equivocation and mental reservation, &c. In all this, he professes to produce the authorities of their own authors. Of the extraordinary ability displayed in these celebrated Letters, no question can be entertained; but the Jesuits and their friends loudly complain of their unfairness, and represent them as in great part the work of a special pleader. The quotations, with the exception of those from Escobar, were confessedly supplied by P.'s friends. It is complained that many of the authors cited are not Jesuits at all; that many of the opinions ridiculed and reprobated as opinions of the Jesuit order, had been in reality formally repudiated and condemned in the Society; that many of the extracts are garbled and distorted; that it treats as though they had been designed for the pulpit and as manuals for teaching works which in reality were but meant as private directions of the judgment of the confessor; and that, in almost all cases, statements, facts, and circumstances are withheld, which would modify, if not entirely remove, their objectionable tendency. See JESUITA. To all which the enemies of the Jesuits reply by arguments intended thoroughly to vindicate Pascal. P. himself entertained no compunctions feeling for the production of these Letters, but even at the approach of death declared his full satisfaction of the work, such as it was. His later years were made very wretched by continued, or at least frequently recurring hypochondria, under the influence of which he suffered from very painful fantasies, which he was unable to control. His strength was completely worn out by these and other infirmities, and prematurely old, he died at the early age of thirty-nine in Paris, in the year 1662. His "Pensées sur la Religion, et sur quelques autres Sujets," being unfinished, were published with suppressions and modifications in 1669; but their full value was only learned from the complete edition which was published at the instance of M. Cousin (Paris, 1844). Of all his works, the "Lettres Provinciales" have been the most frequently reprinted. They were translated into Latin in the lifetime of P. by Nicole under the pseudonym of a German

professor, "Wilhelm Wendroc;" and an edition in four languages appeared at Cologne, in 1684.

**PASCHAL.** See **PASSOVER.**

**PAS'CO**, or Ce'rro De Pasco, an important mining city in Peru, in the department of Junin, stands at an elevation of about 14,000 feet above sea-level, 80 miles north-east of Lima, in a direct line, but upwards of 130 miles by the winding mountain road. It consists of a collection of huts spread over an area that has been hollowed out and perforated in all directions by mines. The number of the inhabitants varies according to the state of the mines; being sometimes considerably more than 12,000: and often much less. It possesses a journ. al of literature and mining. The Cerro, or "mountain knot," of Pasco rises in Sacshuanata, 16,000 feet above the level of the sea. Coal is found.

**PAS-DE-CALAIS** (Fr. for Strait of Dover), a department in the north of France, bounded on the n. by the department of Nord and the Strait of Dover, and on the w. by the Strait of Dover and the English Channel. Area, 1,631,590 acres, of which 893,300 acres are cultivated, and 236,707 in meadows. Pop. (1872) 761,158. The surface is level, with the exception of a ridge of hills running from the south-east to the north-west, ending in Gris-nez Cape (q. v.), and forming the water-shed between the North Sea and the English Channel. The rivers, which are of no considerable length, are the Scarpe and Lys in the basin of the North Sea, and the Authie and Canche belonging to the basin of the English Channel. The rivers are navigable within the department, and are connected by canals. The coast-line is 80 miles in length, and the shores are in certain parts low and sandy; while for several miles on either side of Gris-nez, cliffs similar to those of Dover front the sea. The climate is mild, but exceedingly inconstant. The soil is very fertile—all the usual cereal and leguminous crops are produced in abundance—and the country is very productive both as regards agriculture and manufactures. Fishing is actively carried on, on the coast, particularly in the neighborhood of Boulogne. Coal of an indifferent quality is raised, the excellent quarries of the department are worked, and considerable quantities of turf are cut. The industrial establishments are numerous and important, as iron-foundries, glass-works, potteries, tanneries, and numerous bleach-works, and mills and factories of various kinds. Boulogne and Calais are the principal harbors. There are six arrondissements—Arras, Béthune, St Omer, St Pol, Boulogne, and Montreuil. The capital is Arras.

**PASENG.** See **GOAT.**

**PA'SEWALK**, a town of Prussia, in the government of Stettin, 25 miles west-north-west of the city of that name, on the Uker. It contains two churches, two hospitals, and several woollen-cloth and leather factories; and carries on an active general trade. Pop. (1871) 8049.

**PASHA'**, or Pacha, a title used in the Ottoman empire, and applied to governors of provinces, or military or naval commanders of high rank. The name is said to be derived from two Persian words—*pa*, foot or support, and *shah*, ruler—and signifies "the support of the ruler." The title was limited in the early period of the Ottoman empire to the princes of the blood, but was subsequently extended to the grand-vizier, the members of the divân, the seraskier, captain-pasha, the begiers-begs, and other civil and military authorities. The distinctive badge of a pasha is a horse's tail, waving from the end of a staff, crowned with a gilt ball; in war, this badge is always carried before him when he goes abroad, and is at other times planted in front of his tent. The three grades of pashas are distinguished by the number of the horse-tails on their standards; those of the highest rank are pashas of three tails, and include, in general, the highest functionaries, civil and military. All pashas of this class have the title of vizier; and the grand-vizier is, *par excellence*, a pasha or three tails. The pashas of two tails are the governors of provinces, who generally are called by the simple title "pasha." The lowest rank of pasha is the pasha of one tail; the sanjaks, or lowest class of provincial governors, are of this rank. The pasha of a province has authority over the military force, the revenue, and the administration of justice. His authority was formerly absolute, but recently a check was imposed on him by the appointment of local councils. The pasha is in his own person the military leader and administrator of justice for the province under

his charge, and holds office during the pleasure of the sultan—a most precarious tenure, as the sultan can at any moment, in the exercise of his despotic power, exile, imprison, or put him to death; and this has frequently been done in cases where the pasha's power has excited the apprehension, or his wealth the avarice of his royal master.

PASKEVITCH, Ivan Feodorovitch, Count of Erivan. Prince of Warsaw, and a Russian field-marshall, was born at Poltava, May 19, 1782. He was descended from a Polish family, and was at first a page to the Czar Paul, but entered the army, and served in the campaign in 1805, which was ended by the defeat of Austerlitz; and then against the Turks. He took a prominent part in the campaign of 1812, and several times defeated the French under Eugène, Ney, and St Cyr; he was also present at Leipzig, and the conflicts under the walls of Paris. In 1825, he was appointed commander-in-chief against the Persians, whom he completely defeated, conquering Persian Armenia, taking Erivan, and ending the war by the peace of Turkmanchay (q. v.), a peace exceedingly favorable to Russia. In recompense for these services, he was created Count of Erivan, and received a grant of 1,000,000 rubles (£158,600). In 1828 and 1829, he made two campaigns against the Turks in Asia, signalled by the taking of Kars, Erzerum, and other important provinces, and terminated by the treaty of Adrianople in 1829. In 1831, P., now a field-marshall, was appointed viceroy of Poland, put an end to the revolt within three months after his appointment, and reconstruct the administration on the basis of a complete incorporation with Russia. Such was the vigor and severity of his rule, that the eventful year 1848 passed over without any attempt at revolution. When Russian intervention in Hungary had been resolved upon, P., though now 67 years of age, marched into that country at the head of 200,000 men, and, after a junction with the Austrians, defeated the Hungarians in several battles, and by mere force of numbers crushed out the last spark of insurrection. The 50th anniversary of his military service was celebrated at Warsaw, in 1850, with the utmost rejoicings, and on this occasion the sovereigns of Austria and Prussia conferred on him the rank of field-marshall in their respective armies. In 1854, he unwilling took the command of the Russian army on the Danube; but fortune, which had hitherto invariably smiled upon him, deserted him at Siliestrilia; and after undergoing a succession of sanguinary repulses, and being himself grievously wounded, he withdrew his army, and resigning the command, retired to Warsaw, where he fell into a state of profound melancholy, and died January 29, 1858.

PA'SMA is the name given to a non-official healing-powder, which is regarded as very serviceable in burns, ulcers, excoriations, &c. It is composed of 30 parts of silica, 12 of magnesia, 6 of alumina, 2 of protoxide of iron, and 50 of starch from the olive root.

PA'SPALUM, a genus of grasses, with spikes either solitary or variously grouped, one-flowered spikelets, and awnless paleae. The species are numerous, natives of warm climates.—*P. scorbiu'atum* is cultivated as a cereal in India, where it is called Koda. See MILLET. It will grow in very barren soils, and delights in a dry, loose soil. *P. exile* is cultivated in like manner in the west of Africa, where it is called Fundi (q. v.) or Fundungi.—Other species are valuable as fodder-grasses. *P. purpureum* is a very important fodder-grass in the coast districts of Peru, during the dry months of February and March. *P. stoloniferum*, also a Peruvian species, has been introduced into France; but is apt to be injured by frosts, and seldom ripens its seeds in the neighborhood of Paris.

END OF VOLUME TEN.







